Annual Conference Proceedings

Association of Leadership Educators

30th Annual Conference (Virtual)

In Tune with Leadership: Understanding Research & Best Practices

July 10-31, 2020*

*Core conference schedule July 13-15
Asynchronous presentations available July 10-31
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Leadership Studies Comprehensive Program Review
A Work in Progress

Abstract

Educators and administrators of leadership education programs ought to develop comprehensive frameworks and processes for program evaluation. This is desirable not only to develop and improve individual program offerings but also to advance our relatively nascent interdisciplinary field of study, collectively. This poster displays one such comprehensive model implemented in an academic department that offers several individual leadership education programs. The framework and tools utilized by this academic department can also be successfully applied within other institutions in a variety of contexts. Additionally, best practices of program review are displayed, and finally, participants will be provided a toolkit of program review resources for use in their institutions.

Introduction

Leadership studies as an academic discipline in higher education is young. Additionally, leadership studies programs have a great degree of variance in program characteristics, including overall objectives, goals, specific learning outcomes, student characteristics, and delivery modality (Whitaker & Arensdorf, 2018; Komives, 2011). For this reason, it is not uncommon for programs to be engaged in attempts to conduct comprehensive review of the curriculum and program with objectives of quality improvement and growth (Keating, Rosch & Burgoon, 2014). Because of the diverse and nascent nature of the field, using the tools and resources for such evaluation that already exist for more traditional, and less diverse, academic disciplines, has proved challenging (Huber, 2002; Seemiller & Murray, 2013). If we are to continue to better define the aims of quality leadership education programming, it is integral for practitioners to develop and regularly carry out regular program review and evaluation that is multi-dimensional, collects robust quantitative and qualitative data, and includes multiple stakeholder perspectives.

Background

The Leadership Studies department at a mid-sized regional comprehensive university has been engaged in comprehensive program review (CPR) for several years. Prior attempts at program review earlier in the lifespan of the department had been informal, and were small in scope. As the department has grown in size, complexity, and reach, it has become necessary to develop more robust methods for conducting program review. As a consequence, and building on best practices in academic program review, the department has developed a model for conducting CPR in leadership studies which may be useful to many other programs attempting to do similar work.

Description of Innovative Practice

Comprehensive Program Review (CPR) is a type of academic program review concerned with developing an understanding of the totality of stakeholders, issues, and data within which an academic department is enmeshed, and their complex interconnections. Program review is used by many institutions to determine the viability and effectiveness of academic units. Some
institutions take an approach which more heavily prioritizes resource allocation or increased efficiency, while others develop processes more concerned with centralized, long-term planning (Hanover, 2012). CPR goes beyond the concerns of academic learning outcomes assessment and should include the myriad aspects of administration of leadership education in higher education, including advising and enrollment management; pedagogy and effective teaching; human, technology and financial resource allocation; alumni and employer engagement; learning communities, student government and other shared governance functions; and strategic plan alignment at all levels - departmental, college, and university (Bornman, 2004).

There is no single, universal, model of academic program review, but all are rooted in self-evaluation. At its best, CPR is a forward-looking process focused on eliciting action plans for the development of high quality, sustainable, relevant, and growing academic programs. CPR ought to, ideally:

- Bring about lasting and ongoing impact that is appropriately aligned with the University’s strategic vision
- Focus on continuously improving teaching and learning
- Build on existing and ongoing self-evaluation processes (e.g., annual departmental reports) and learning outcomes assessment plans
- Be a joint effort of all internal and external stakeholders – faculty, students, staff, alumni, community partners, employers, Regents (if applicable) and others contributing to the program
- Include periodic peer benchmarking and environmental scanning in enrollment management, emerging technologies, best practices in pedagogy, and discipline-specific academic content
- Result in specific short/long-term recommendations prioritized by identified strengths and weaknesses

**Current Results**

This innovative practice poster will be presented in three parts. First, the poster provides a brief overview of CPR. This section will include information about the various types of program review regularly conducted in institutions of higher learning, a brief literature review that includes best practices, and popular models/frameworks available to leadership educators desiring to evaluate their own programs.

Second, the poster provides a visual depiction of an institutional case study of CPR. Attendees will see how one leadership studies department at a state comprehensive university developed a customized, five-year iterative comprehensive program review process that evaluates all aspects of its curricular and co-curricular leadership education programming across campus-based, online, and international modalities. The poster will depict this department’s “work in progress” (which will be in year two of the five-year timeline at the time of the ALE conference) and will give a revealing and realistic look at the complex challenges and “lessons learned” as the department undertakes this complex initiative.
Third, the poster will include a QR Code where conference attendees can view additional information in real time on the web. They will be provided access to a “CPR toolkit” that includes a customizable template, a timeline graphic, various data collection methods, and additional CPR resources. Participants will be encouraged to access these materials and utilize them in modified fashion in their own program review processes.

Conclusions / Recommendations

CPR provides one avenue for leadership educators to take proactive steps to improving their programs. As stewards of the field of leadership education, we have a responsibility to ensure that our programs are as relevant and effective as possible for our students. Developing a sense of the relative strength of one’s program is difficult, and we hope that sharing resources on this one method of CPR assists others in completing their own evaluation and improvement.

References


Undergraduate Student Experiences of a Residential Leadership Development Camp

Abstract

Leadership and teamwork remain among the top skills desired by entry-level employers. Ten years ago, the Department of Kinesiology developed a 1-week residential leadership development camp as a part of their curriculum. For this study, 187 students from the attended the leadership development camp. Throughout the camp, students completed several personal journal entries. On the last day of camp, students were given a prompt to describe their camp experience to future students. Descriptive phenomenology was used to evaluate student responses. A total of 187 journal entries were analyzed using thematic analysis, revealing 8 common themes. The Leadership Development Camp was described as a unique experience for college students that provides opportunities for growth in the areas of leadership, teamwork, communication, problem solving, innovation, and professionalism.

Introduction

Ten years ago, the Department of Kinesiology collaborated with the Military Science Department to adopt and modify the Army ROTC’s Leadership Development Program to align with the Department of Kinesiology’s student learning outcomes. As a graduation requirement, all undergraduate students in the Department of Kinesiology and students studying Sports Management (~215 per year) are required to attend a 1-week residential leadership development camp. At this camp, students are placed into teams (at camp we call it “families”) and work with this team throughout the week in a series of leadership and team-building challenges. The leadership development program utilizes experiential education via a series of challenge and problem-solving activities to focus on developing leadership and teamwork skills in students (Panicucci, 2008).

Camp has been part of the curriculum in the Department since 1921. Over the years, the focus of Camp has shifted from the preparation of physical education teachers to first an outdoor recreation and individual sports camp, to now a leadership and teamwork development camp. After a school-wide strategic plan was developed in 2011, Camp was completely redesigned to align with the newly identified student learning outcome of leadership and teamwork development.

Background

As Astin and Astin (2000) noted nearly 20 years ago, higher education has made undergraduate leadership training a ubiquitous characteristic due to the demand from the job market. Over the past 10 years, this focus on leadership and teamwork has remained in the top tier of skills desired by entry-level employers. In fact, the 2018 National Association of Colleges & Employers survey found both leadership and teamwork to be among the top five valued skills in college graduates (NACE, 2018). However, a survey in 2015 found that 60% of surveyed students currently hold, anticipate holding, or recently held a leadership position while in college, yet, only 32.5% of the students had taken a leadership course (Bettis, Christian, and Allen, 2015).
Unsurprisingly, many employers have reported that new college graduates are still lacking in soft skills, such as leadership (Association of American College and Universities, 2015).

A surveillance of the current scholarship on how higher education is attempting to boost student engagement in formal leadership development training reveals a host of configurations. For instance, leadership training in some institutions is delivered throughout an entire 4-year program (Dunn, Ho, Odom, and Perdue, 2016). While other universities focus on an episodic and time intensive (i.e., 5 day) programs (Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf, 2015); and still others focus on a more moderate 6-month experience (Fields, 2010). Furthermore, some are situating their leadership program in a residential camp setting. Moreover, as Lien and Goldenberg (2012) highlight, these off-campus programs lead to a deeper learning experience.

Similarly, the use of experiential education through challenge and problem-solving activities fosters an environment that pushes students beyond their comfort zone into their learning zone (Panicucci, 2008). More importantly, these experiences are considered as a high-impact practice (Kuh, 2008). It appears that regardless of the scope and scale of the training, if the experience is intentional and meaningful, then development of leadership attributes and qualities comes to fruition.

Camp utilizes experiential education via a weeklong series of challenge and problem-solving activities. The specific sequence begins with ice breaker/de-inhibitor activities followed by trust building activities, which are led by the leadership counselor. Twenty-minute cooperation/communication activities are then led by each student while the counselor evaluates leadership behavior. After feedback from the group and a 1:1 debriefing session with the leadership counselor, students lead for a second time attempting to complete a 30-minute challenge/problem solving activity. Following this sequence of experiential-based challenge education allows students to build comradery and trust with their fellow teammates, while allowing students to demonstrate leadership skills in a nonthreatening, fun environment. (Project Adventure, 1995). The purpose of this study was to evaluate the lived experience of students who attended the 1-week leadership development camp.

**Description of Program/Methodology**

For Camp, students travel six hours away from a large urban campus to a rural-residential camp setting. The weeklong experience provides multiple opportunities for growth in the areas of leadership, teamwork, communication, problem solving, innovation, and professionalism. Taking students out of the typical classroom to a residential camp allows for a deeper learning experience (Lien & Goldenberg, 2012). Similarly, the use of experiential education through challenge and problem-solving activities fosters an environment that pushes students beyond their comfort zone into their learning zone (Panicucci, 2008).

At Camp, leadership development is defined as a continuous process of training, assessment, and feedback with the goal of instilling and enhancing desirable behavior. The purpose of Camp is to provide an individual-focused training process designed to develop leadership skills in a variety of environments. The mission of the leadership camp is to train students, evaluate their skills, and develop their leadership.
On the first evening of the leadership camp, students are placed into small teams and work with this team throughout the week. A leadership counselor, who is an upperclassman that demonstrated excellence while at camp, facilitates each team. The leadership counselors complete extensive training prior to facilitating a team and enroll in an advanced 1-credit hour leadership course while in the role of leadership counselor.

Students at camp are evaluated using a rubric on 15 specific leadership dimensions using an ongoing 360-degree approach: feedback from a leadership counselor, self-evaluation, and peer evaluation from teammates. Additionally, students complete daily journals that allow for qualitative assessment of leadership and personal growth throughout the weeklong experience. For the last journal entry, students write a letter to future campers describing their overall experience at Camp.

For this study, 187 students from the Department of Kinesiology attended a 1-week residential leadership development camp. Students were put into small teams in which they led their peers through two different challenge and problem solving activities. Throughout the camp, students completed several personal journal entries to serve as goal-setting, reflection, and personal growth tools. On the last day of camp, students were given the following prompt in their journals: “If you were asked to give a presentation to next year’s class about the “Camp Experience,” what would you tell them? Write a speech, letter, or summary paper that details what your “fellow travelers” should know as they prepare, and explain to them what you learned about yourself while at Camp.”

This study used descriptive phenomenology, which is a qualitative research design. Descriptive phenomenology aims to describe lived experience of a specific phenomenon (Lopez & Willis, 2004). The phenomenon of interest in this study was attending the 1-week leadership camp.

All journal entries for the above prompt were typed verbatim and de-identified by removing names. Prior to reading the letters, researchers identified any preconceived notions as to decrease bias. First, researchers read through each letter and identified common experiences. Then researchers extracted the common experiences and coded the letters according to each common experience. Next the researchers met to compare common experience and collaborated to describe each common experience and create themes. Finally, exemplar cases were identified for common experience themes. The use of MaxQDA analysis software aided data analysis (Speziale & Carpenter, 2007).

**Current Results**

A total of 187 journal entries were analyzed for this study. Thematic analysis revealed eight themes that tell the story of the Camp Experience: 1) unique learning experience, 2) building relationships, 3) Open mindset, positive attitude, & giving 110% 4) stepping out of comfort zone, 5) building trust, 6) personal growth, 7) gaining lifelong skills, and 8) once in a life time experience. Table 1 in the appendix illustrates the eight themes along with exemplar quotes pulled from individual journal entries.
Conclusions/Recommendations

This leadership development camp is a unique experience for college students in that it takes students off campus to another state for seven days/six nights. The weeklong experience provided multiple opportunities for building relationships and personal growth. For example, one student noted, “I was surprised by the camp experience. I had dreaded going to this camp the entire time, but it really changed me as a person. It helped me to really get out of my shell and be more confident when approaching new situations and not to be afraid to take risks.” The preceding comment also strongly supports the generally held notions of teamwork, communication, and success as illustrated in Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf (2015). They consistently found that students notice and value how communication and teamwork contribute to the development of leadership skills. This becomes even more magnified when doing so using outdoor experiences in the “backcountry” or in traditional outdoor situations similar to this leadership camp.

Many students at camp found they were able to step out of their comfort zone, which allowed learning to occur at a deeper level; “I got out of my comfort zone, the first night and went further and further each night and even expanded my comfort zone.” Based on overall interpretations, the leadership camp can be described as a unique, once in a lifetime experience that allows for a deeper understanding of leadership and teamwork; “You should prepare by opening your mind and accept that this will be a once in a lifetime experience that will change your perspective of team and individual success.”

References


National Association of Colleges & Employers. *2018 Job Outlook Report*


### Appendix

Table 1: Identified Themes & Exemplar Quotes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Exemplar Quotes</th>
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</table>
| Unique Learning Experience   | • “Fellow travelers, you are about to experience one of the most fun, unique, and adventurous times of your lives.”  
• “I have learned from camp that this form of a classroom has helped me out by getting those hands on experience.”  
• “I would tell my “fellow travelers” to prepare for a life changing experience that will teach them a lot about themselves and their peers.”  
• “This camp is unlike any other class you’ve taken, with a positive outlook, you will take life lessons back home with you.” |
| Building Relationships        | • “By the time you leave you will wonder where the week went and will realize all the friendships you made.”  
• “You will get to know several new students in ways you could never imagine.”  
• “You will develop intimate relationships with individuals in your “families” and your will learn how to work as a team.”  
• “I made a lot of new friends and developed even greater relationships with those I already knew.” |
| Open Mindset, Positive Attitude, & Giving 110% | • “If you keep your mind open to possibilities and have a positive attitude at camp, then you will gain knowledge about yourself and also gain new friends and relationships as well.” |
| **Stepping out of Comfort Zone** | - “I suggest to go with an open mind and good attitude and I promise you will come back a happy camper.”  
- “This is one of the biggest pieces of advice I could give you. Go into camp with a good attitude and you’ll get so much more out of it.”  
- “I would tell them the key to having a good time and learning life lessons from the activities is to keep a positive attitude and keep trying.”  
- “Attempt to make your comfort zone smaller so that your fun and opportunity zones double in size.”  
- “I also learned that taking risks is really important because you might miss out on a life changing experience.”  
- “It helped me to really get out of my shell and be more confident when approaching new situations and not to be afraid to take risks.”  
- “I got out of my comfort zone, the first night and went further and further each night and even expanded my comfort zone.” |
| **Building Trust** | - “Always remember trusting yourself is as important as trusting others.”  
- “We had to learn how to communicate, trust, rely on each other to achieve our task(s) at hand.”  
- “It [Camp] helped me gain a better understanding of how much trust is needed when being a good leader.”  
- “I have learned to trust others more quickly and rely on them to accomplish tasks. I can trust others to do their part.” |
| **Personal Growth** | - “I am a far more confident person, and now possess the tools it takes to continue to grow as a leader, and I absolutely love camp.”  
- “I have learned so much about myself in this short time it’s unreal. I am a much better leader than I originally thought. I now know my weaknesses and how to better them. I know how to keep my cool when things repetitively don’t go my way.”  
- “This experience leads you on adventures that help you conquer fears and lets you use your previous life adventures to help others conquer theirs.”  
- “You start to notice things about yourself that you didn’t even know and these things help you become a better leader and a better person.” |
| **Gaining Lifelong Skills** | - “Camp isn’t just a class but it is an experience that will last throughout the rest of their college career and also work career.”  
- “Leaving camp I feel way more prepared to enter life after college than I did before attending.”  
- “This will help you in your future career, the rest of your schooling and with life in general.”  
- “I have enjoyed every single minute of camp, and I plan on taking what I have learned and applying it in real life situations. Not only will the skills I have learned be of assistance in the job place, it also applies to school and relationships.” |
| **Once in a Lifetime Experience** | - “Always enjoy the time you have here because it will be over before you know it and there is no coming back to the once in a lifetime opportunities.” |
• “You should prepare by opening your mind and accept that this will be a once in a lifetime experience that will change your perspective of team and individual success.”
• “Be ready for a once in a lifetime opportunity here at camp.”
• “Overall, camp was one of the greatest experiences of my life.”
An Examination of Commonalities Among Undergraduate Leadership Curriculum

Abstract

This poster presents the results of a content analysis of the core curriculum from 53 undergraduate leadership degree programs to find commonalities in course offerings to guide the review of a statewide adult degree completion program offering a Bachelor of Science degree in Organizational Leadership. After analysis, there lacked a clear list of standardized courses within leadership programs. However, after grouping specific course offerings into broader topic categories, enough commonalities emerged to make recommendations for course revisions in the program.

Introduction

This study originated as a result of an effort to revise the curriculum of a statewide adult degree completion program offering a Bachelor of Science degree in Organizational Leadership. The program, founded in 2007, has largely focused on business related coursework with minimal attention to leadership studies. As part of the curriculum review, the question was asked: what typical courses made up a degree in leadership? Therefore, the purpose of this study is to review the core curriculum of programs that offer a major in the discipline of leadership and look for commonalities in course offerings. The study builds upon Brungardt et al. (2006), which sought to examine common program outcomes and themes among 15 organizational leadership major programs, and subsequent work by Greenleaf et al. (2017), which studied the nature and scope of leadership programs at 45 institutions. The current study examined the core curriculum of 53 major programs that met the criteria developed by the researcher to find similarities in course offerings. A content analysis of required courses in the core curriculum of the programs was utilized to develop a list of common courses offered in the field of leadership studies.

Background

As an area of study, leadership is relatively young with the first leadership programs at the bachelors and masters level appearing in the 1980s (Perruci & McManus, 2013). The development of these programs followed Burns’ (1978) call for the academic study of leadership. Leadership has traditionally been studied through the lens of a specific discipline (e.g. political science, history, psychology) which requires the leadership scholar to cross disciplines and “integrate information from many different perspectives” (Riggio, 2012, pp. 4-5). This multidisciplinary approach is reflected by the fact that major degree programs in leadership education vary greatly in title, discipline placement and credit hour requirements (Greenleaf et al., 2018). According to Kellerman (2018), leadership education varies dramatically between institutions as there exists no standardized core curriculum. Further, teachers of leadership employ various and separate pedagogical methods to teach leadership (Kellerman, 2018). Brungardt et al. (2006) found little consistency as to where leadership programs were placed, tremendous range in credit hour requirements with the programs, and a lack of clear career placement. However, a majority of programs they studied focused on theory and application (Brungardt et al., 2006). Despite the disparity, Friesen (2018) stated that, regardless of discipline placement, graduates from a leadership program should come out of their program with
“foundational knowledge” that ensures a “universal language for practicing leadership” (p. 51). While Brundgardi et al. (2006) offered an examination of courses based on broad based categories, very little research actually explores the similarities in coursework regardless of which discipline houses the program.

**Methodology**

Potential participants were identified from the list of programs provided by Greenleaf et al. (2017) and listings in the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs. Further, the researcher conducted internet searches using key words related to bachelor degree programs in leadership to find additional programs not listed in the other sources. After developing an initial pool of programs, the researcher screened the programs for appropriateness to this study. To be included, the core courses needed to have more than 50 percent of their courses grounded in the study of leadership. Programs that were fundamentally business degrees or focused on a particular industry (e.g. educational leadership or ministerial leadership) were eliminated from consideration. In addition, only programs that had their required core courses posted on their website were included.

The researcher then completed a content analysis of required core curriculum to develop a list of commonly offered courses in an undergraduate leadership degree. Supporting courses that appeared as part of the core requirements (e.g. human resources management, marketing, project management) were not included. Courses were categorized by basic content as opposed to course titles which varied between institutions. For example, a “Foundations of Organizational Leadership” course may have content that served as an introductory course or it may serve as a course in leadership theory.

**Results**

Based upon the content analysis of the 53 programs studied, course listings were initially categorized into one of 12 content areas: Foundations (Introduction to Leadership, Foundations of Organizational Leadership); Theory; Organizational Studies (Organizational Behavior, Organizational Communications); Communications (Business Communications, Interpersonal Communications); Ethics; Team Dynamics (Group Dynamics, Leading Teams); Change (Leading Change, Innovation, Change Management); Conflict Resolution and Negotiation; Decision-making and Critical Thinking; Global Leadership; Diversity (Leadership and Gender, Leading Diverse Organizations); and, Capstone (Capstone, Senior Seminar). Courses that may encompass two areas (e.g. Global Leadership and Diversity) were counted in both categories with the exception of Foundations courses that were identified to be primarily theory based offerings. Isolated courses only appearing at a single institution were eliminated from inclusion. Topic inclusion ranged from 19%-70% (Table 1). Only three categories appeared in more than half of the 53 programs examined: Theory (70%), Ethics (59%), and Organizational Studies (51%).
Table 1

Percentage of Topic Inclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course category</th>
<th>Percentage of inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Studies</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capstone</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundations</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Dynamics</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making and Critical Thinking</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Resolution and Negotiation</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Leadership</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the analysis, the low percentages of common courses would appear to support Kellerman’s (2018) assertion of the lack of any standardized core curriculum. However, the intent of this study was to primarily examine courses considered part of the core program (i.e. required courses) and does not take into account courses offered as electives or within discipline-specific requirements. For example, a quick examination of elective offerings from some of the programs studied show courses such Global Leadership, Leadership and Gender, and Innovation and Change. Further, a leadership program housed within a Business department will often have a course in ethics in that program’s requirements. As a result, the multidisciplinary nature of leadership studies and where a program is housed will have an impact on what is included in the core curriculum of that program.

Another consideration is that some of the categories utilized for this study are often taught as part of others. For example, Change, Decision-making, and Conflict Resolution and Negotiation are often included in courses such as Organizational Behavior (Cooper et al., 2018; Dubrin, 2016; Kinicki & Fugate, 2018; Scandura, 2019). In this instance, if we were to add these subjects into the Organizational Studies category, it would bump to 78% of programs. Considering Global Leadership and Diversity as a single category would double the number of programs offering courses in that category. Texts in leadership communication courses will often cover Team Leadership and Group Communication (Barrett, 2014) which allows for merging those courses. After taking into account these topic mergers, seven revised categories emerged: Foundations, Theory, Leadership Communication and Teams, Organizational Studies, Ethics, Global Leadership and Diversity and Capstone. Topic inclusion jumped to a range between 38%-78% (Table 2).

Table 2

Revised Percentage of Topic Inclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course category</th>
<th>Percentage of inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Studies</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Communication and Teams</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusions/Recommendations

The research conducted was part of an effort to guide the curriculum revision of a statewide adult degree completion program offering a Bachelor of Science degree in Organizational Leadership. The intent was to provide guidance on the creation of new courses and the revision of some existing courses. The program currently has nine core courses and the option for an internship. In addition, the program allows for an area of focus which varies between institutions but largely is business-related. In addition, three courses in the core are considered business fundamental courses in Statistics, Marketing and Finance. As previously stated, there is a lack of a standard core curriculum in the field of leadership. However, based on the results, there exists some broad categories of courses which create some commonality between programs. With that in mind, the following recommendations were made to the curriculum review committee:

1. **Drop the optional internship option from the core and replace with a required Organizational Studies course.** As this is a degree finishing program, very few students take advantage of the internship option. In the rare case that a student wanted to complete an internship, it could easily be inserted within the area of focus or as an elective.

2. **Maintain but revise content in the existing Communications course to include modules related to team leadership**

3. **Maintain existing courses in Ethics and both the Capstone and Foundations courses, but revise content with a greater leadership focus.**

4. **Maintain the existing business fundamentals courses in Marketing, Finance and Statistics.**

5. **Maintain the existing Leadership Theory course.**

6. **Replace an existing course focused on organizations and society with a course in Global Leadership and Diversity.** The existing course has elements of Global Leadership and Diversity, but much of the course was redundant with the existing Ethics course. Remaining topics, such as corporate social responsibility, should be incorporated into the Ethics course revision.

7. **Revise the existing Capstone class to better incorporate the leadership core in a culminating research project.**

The current research did not address the context in which a program existed, solely focusing on core courses. Future research should examine the context in which leadership programs exist. This data could include what department is hosting the program, credit requirements, elective offerings, geographic region of the institution, and whether the school and/or program exist in a brick and mortar setting or online.
Resources


University-wide Leadership Minor Applicant Demographics

Abstract

Leadership development happens at a variety of locations on a college campus. Students with a particular interest in the theory and practice of leadership have the option to pursue leadership coursework through a major or minor. The purpose of this study was to describe student demographics of applicants in a university-wide leadership minor. While all eleven undergraduate colleges have been represented since the current application process was initiated in 2012, there is no constant configuration of enrollment by college. Data indicates students enrolling in the leadership minor are increasingly more female. With frequencies indicating that leadership minor students are becoming more diverse in selected program of study, instructors of leadership courses need to be proactive in developing content for students with varying interests and background.

Introduction

College students each bring unique backgrounds, experiences, and identities 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 (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2015). Individual differences in the college classroom should be accounted for by leadership educators (Andenoro et al., 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2015). Apparent trends of enrollment in courses and programs must be analyzed and shared from time to time to ensure we are meeting the needs of students and being inclusive regardless of student interest or program.

Background

One of the earliest lines of inquiry within leadership attempted to examine traits that were indicative of being strong leaders (Stogdill, 1948). While the idea that leaders have a set of skills they need to develop to be successful in all situations has since been transformed, students on college campuses are engaging in leadership education to gain foundational leadership perspectives. However, are the students pursuing leadership education indicative of enrollment trends on all college campuses?

According to Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, university enrollment globally is becoming increasingly more female with women forming the majority of student populations in developed countries (2019). Additionally, between now and 2030 student participation is projected to continue to expand. The students filling these classroom roles are likely to be more varied when including international students, part-time, and older students (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2019).

The purpose of this study was to describe demographics of students applying to a university-wide leadership minor. At the [university], the university-wide leadership minor has been housed within the [college] and the [department] since its inception in 2006. Students interested in the minor are selected and enrolled through an application process. The minor entails fifteen-credit hours which includes leadership, communications and ethics coursework. Since the current
application process was instated in 2012, 791 students have applied from all eleven undergraduate colleges at the university.

Methodology

The population was undergraduate student applicants to a university-wide leadership minor from fall 2012 to spring 2019. The complete population of finished, submitted applications (N = 791) were analyzed for this study. Applications were purposefully used in place of registrar enrollment because the application process is used as an enrollment management tool in place of a quality control system. To have a better understanding of students interested in pursuing leadership education through the university-wide leadership minor, applications were used as acceptance into the program is dependent on numerous extenuating circumstances. Applications are submitted twice a year in fall and spring and were analyzed based on academic year. Students’ sex and college enrollment were extracted from the self-reported application information. Frequencies were calculated to describe the demographics of student sex and college enrollment by academic year.

Results

The data indicates that applicants are becoming increasingly more female since 2012.

Table 1
Leadership Minor Applicants by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2012-2013 (n = 95)</th>
<th>2013-2014 (n=100)</th>
<th>2014-2015 (n=114)</th>
<th>2015-2016 (n=121)</th>
<th>2016-2017 (n=141)</th>
<th>2017-2018 (n=126)</th>
<th>2018-2019 (n=94)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of Female Applicants</strong></td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of Male Applicants</strong></td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first year of the program, students applied to the leadership minor from seven of the eleven undergraduate colleges at [university]. While all eleven colleges have been represented since 2012, there is not consistent configuration of enrollment by college. While the [college] houses the department which the minor is conducted, the College of Business and College of Liberal Arts and Sciences are becoming increasingly more predominant. The College of Business has a higher enrollment rate than the host college in the 2017-2018 academic year.
Table 2
Leadership Minor Applicants by College

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College</th>
<th>2012-2013 (n = 95)</th>
<th>2013-2014 (n=100)</th>
<th>2014-2015 (n=114)</th>
<th>2015-2016 (n=121)</th>
<th>2016-2017 (n=141)</th>
<th>2017-2018 (n=126)</th>
<th>2018-2019 (n=94)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural &amp; Life Sciences</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design, Construction, &amp; Planning</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Health &amp; Performance</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health &amp; Health Professions</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions & Recommendations

It is evident that the leadership minor at [university] is in line with global trends of becoming increasingly more female. There appears to be no constant configuration of students enrolling by college. While there is no data indicating why the enrollment is sporadic, anecdotally it could relate to the nature of recruitment within the minor. Information is sent out to students through a variety of avenues. However, the most effective form of recruitment is word of mouth from currently enrolled students. Additional reasoning may be found in university course requirements and offerings changing over time.

Analysis of the data indicates that there is a higher likelihood of students in a class being enrolled in a wider range of colleges than when the current application process began in 2012. When making administrative decisions regarding course offerings and curriculum revisions, it is essential to think through potential future demographic trends.

For implementation, a widespread recruiting and educational tool should be developed to ensure students regardless of program understand the opportunities available within leadership education. As educators, it is imperative that we are actively engaging in tactics to bridge the gap between students and leadership education when recruiting.
When designing experiences and examples in our classes, it is pivotal to know that students are going to be entering our classrooms with more a more diverse set of experiences than ever. Program of study and college which they are enrolled has the potential to largely influence students’ college experience. When students are enrolled in upper-level, content-specific courses with students who are not from their college, the collegiate experience they are bringing with them into the classroom is likely very different.

As this study only examines applications, there is a limitation of accurately being able to identify which college a student is enrolled in between submitting the application and graduating. While students typically apply for the major after they are enrolled in upper-level courses, there is a possibility students have changed colleges after acceptance into the program.

Overall, it is important for educators to be aware of many facets of who the students are enrolling in their programs. In an effort to offer an inclusive experience within leadership education, it is important for us to be thinking of not simply what we are teaching on but who we are teaching.
References


Civic Investment in Twenty-First Century America: A Call to Action for Leadership Educators at State Comprehensive Universities

Abstract

This poster addresses the responsibility of state comprehensive universities, as “stewards of place” to serve the public purpose and greater good by advancing public education and initiatives that strengthen communities through increased civic engagement. It will highlight how one particularly committed rural state comprehensive university has begun a strategic planning process that includes an integrated, far-reaching campus- and community-wide investment in civic and leadership education designed to address critically consequential state and regional problems, and provides conference attendees with tools and a “road map” for developing similar initiatives to solve collective problems that state comprehensive universities are uniquely qualified to address. This poster will hopefully serve as an inspirational call to action, designed exclusively for the ALE audience.

Introduction

The American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) boasts nearly 400 institutional members throughout the United States, and from Guam, the Bahamas, China, and Guyana. These campuses are found in towns, cities, suburbs, and in remote rural locations and range in size from approximately 1,000 students to more than 45,000. At the heart of these institutions is a belief that educational access and opportunities for success should be available to all Americans. AASCU members are committed to programs and policies that place students at the center of their institutional endeavors and the institutions consider themselves “stewards of place” thereby engaging faculty, staff and students with the communities and regions they serve by helping to advance public education, economic development, and improvements in the quality of life for all people (“Members”, n.d.).

At times referred to as “the people’s universities” (SSN, 2020, para. 1), state comprehensive universities play a pivotal role in not only providing access to higher education, but also in terms of supporting regional economies and the civic and cultural life of the residents in those areas. While these institutions do tend to buoy area economies and serve significant numbers of underrepresented students and others, there are challenges and barriers to continued success in terms of the public purpose. For example, these comprehensive regional institutions are chronically underfunded when compared to flagship universities (SSN, 2020, para. 8).

Although many AASCU schools were founded more than a century ago for the purpose of preparing teachers to serve the rural communities surrounding the universities, these schools have expanded their missions to embrace a full complement of academic programs, e.g., teacher education, social sciences, health care, business, engineering, and technology, etc., while maintaining their historical commitment to the aforementioned public purpose and serving the greater good in the regions where they are located (Doss Bowman, 2019). But, the changing socioeconomic demographic of twenty-first century America, and rural America in particular, along with the decline in the nation’s civic health have created unique challenges for these universities as they work to honor their public purpose.
The Decline of America’s Civic Health

One of the most significant challenges for state comprehensive universities centers on how to address the increasingly common “civic desserts” throughout the United States. Civic deserts are communities without opportunities for civic engagement and as a result of their increases, there has been a “decline in a wide range of important indicators of civic health and connectivity [that] threaten [the nation’s] prosperity, safety, and democracy” (Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine, 2017, p. 4).

The National Conference on Citizenship (NCoC) is a Congressionally chartered organization with a nationwide network of partners that are committed to strengthening the nation’s civic health. According to one of NCoC most recent reports, just “28 percent of Americans say that they belong to any group that has leaders who that consider both accountable and inclusive” (Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine, 2017, p. 4) and, from “1974 to 2004, membership in at least one community organization or group has decreased by more than 13 percentage points” (p. 4).

The declines in civic engagement are also linked to greater social isolation in America. The number of one-person households has risen by more than 114 percent since 1960. Further, people are socializing less with their neighbors and employees are more likely now to work remotely thus, decreasing the likelihood of interacting with co-workers (Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine, 2017, p. 5).

Bitter partisanship and polarization have also negatively impacted the nation’s civil discourse and engagement (Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine, 2017; “Polarized”, 2019). The lack of shared understandings of basic facts and values along with the increased partisanship are contributing to the fraying of America’s communities (Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine, 2017, p. 5) and the number of active hate groups in America has reached a record high (SLPC, 2019).

According to Atwell, Bridgeland, & Levine (2017), the number of Americans reading newspapers has declined steadily since the 1970s and their confidence in the media plummeted 34 percentage points from 1972 to 2019 (p. 14); confidence in the Executive Branch of Government and Congress are lingering at historic lows of 13 and 6 percent respectively (p. 16); and, the United States trails most developed nations in terms of voter turnout (“Trails”, 2018).

Research has also demonstrated massive disparities nationwide in health, well-being, and access to healthcare based on sociodemographic factors (National Academies, 2017) and that groups of people with the poorest health outcomes are the least politically engaged (CHI, 2016). Further, other sociodemographic factors including education, income, race, and ethnicity are highly related to civic engagement and the low levels of political involvement for certain population groups suggests important perspectives are underrepresented in the democratic process (CHI, 2016). Civic health has a strong bearing on the quality of life in communities aside from being intrinsically good for a democratic society. A community strong in civic health is resilient, has effective governance, and provides a better life for its residents whereas low civic health leads to dysfunction in communities that make it difficult to address pressing public problems (NCoC, 2016).

Increasing Engagement and Strengthening Communities
AASCU schools are well positioned to make a dramatic difference in the communities they serve, but it requires they develop a solid plan, make a firm commitment, and facilitate a collaborative effort throughout the campus community and with community partners to make significant and sustained positive changes which serve the public purpose and greater good. Aside from a recommendation to expand access to and the quality of American history and civics education in the United States (NCoC, 2017), the NCoC, in conjunction with a health foundation (CHI, 2016, pp. 18-19), has identified three strategies for strengthening civic health and increasing political engagement (which leads to stronger and more prosperous communities):

1) *Increasing participation in the democratic process.* This means initiating campaigns to increase voter registration and developing culturally competent educational programs about the candidates and their platforms in addition to sharing information about pending legislation.

2) *Supporting in-state advocacy capacity.* Advocacy efforts are often sometimes disconnected to larger movements thus, creating silos within individual locations. Helping to facilitate the connectedness of the advocacy movements that already exist will better complement one to the other, reduce fragmentation, and increase the power to facilitate change.

3) *Leveraging media and building community partnerships.* Media outlets can be connected to community partners to develop a shared understanding of community needs and priorities through proactive engagement to strengthen civic health.

Beyond those recommendations, it is critically important that colleges and universities recognize that the “problems that plague U.S. democracy and civil life are in many respects problems of leadership” (Alexander, 1997) and deliberate attention should be given to augmenting university leadership studies education and development programs and curriculum. Former U.S. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, declared in 2011 that, “The need to revitalize and reimagine civic education is urgent” (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2011) and AASCU schools are equipped to serve this need.

**One School’s Commitment**

One school eagerly addressing civic engagement has a long history of adapting to surrounding challenges. As railroads and settlers pushed west during the 1800s, new communities began springing up and dotting the vast landscape of the new frontier. Many of these towns were rough and tumble in nature, sporting saloons and dance halls that catered to laborers, soldiers, farmers/ranchers, outlaws, and others who either lived in the area or were passing through. The lawlessness of one city where the university is now located, even earned the reputation as one of the most violent towns in the Frontier (“History”, n.d.).

Gone are the lawless days of the Old West, and over time the town was tamed and ultimately a Normal School for teacher education was opened in the early 1900s to serve the needs of area schoolchildren. After decades of growing pains and names changes, the school emerged roughly 70 years later as a full-fledged state university (“History of FHSU”, 2018).
Today, the university’s President considers the institution’s strategic plan “the ‘magnetic north’ where magic happens.” This is where a “dedicated community embarks on a journey of discovery” and creates initiatives aimed at strengthening not only the university but also the surrounding communities (Mason, 2020, p. A5). Specifically, one goal of the University’s strategic plan is squarely centered on community and global engagement for the express purpose of cultivating impactful partnerships. That is, after all, one of the cornerstones of a state comprehensive university.

The university is home to a nationally recognized institute that provides high-quality co-curricular and educational programs and initiatives to enhance civic leadership skills and development. Home to four distinct student-led projects, The American Democracy Project (an AASCU initiative), The Global Leadership Project, The Women’s Leadership Project, and Tigers In Service), the institute contributes to the civic landscape and socioeconomic prosperity of the state by providing direct and indirect benefits. Specifically, the institute serves the greater public good through co-curricular activities designed to educate students (and residents who are welcome to attend events and activities) to strengthen communities through deeper levels of understanding, awareness, and civic and community engagement. The institute and its community partners help to build capacity in individuals, groups, communities, and organizations through collaboratively addressing issues of public concern. Since 2015 the institute has hosted 385 co-curricular events; engaged 13,876 student participants; secured more than 100 community partnerships; and logged more than 17,000 service hours.

Activities of the institute are designed to increase engagement, strengthen communities, and support the strategies in the previous section including but are not limited to: guest lectures and campus conversations; service-learning; alternative service breaks; voter registration drives; interactive/exploratory events and opportunities; awareness campaigns; research; peer mentoring; modeling civil discourse and debate; fellowships; and continual assessment of current practices.

Conclusions/Recommendations

In 1947 President Harry Truman appointed a commission to examine the system of higher education in America in relation to its objectives, methods, facilities, and social role in advancing democracy. Responding to a pivotal time in history when the “world faced the full horrors of the Holocaust and the price of war” the commission asserted that “the first and most essential charge upon higher education is that…it shall be the carrier of democratic values, ideals, processes” (Ottenhoff, 2019, p. 22).

Fast forward to 2020 and while the horror of the Holocaust is behind us, the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (AGB) has issued an advisory statement that “echoes the urgency of the Truman commission” and underscores grave concerns in both the nation and higher education: a lack of civic literacy; growing skepticism about democracy as a system and way of life; racism, xenophobia, intolerance; income inequality; threatened social mobility; heightened distrust in institutions; and serious challenges to civil discourse (Ottenhoff, 2019).
The time is here, the time is now. State comprehensive universities not only have a responsibility to serve the public purpose, they have a moral obligation to be instrumental in the creation of a better tomorrow. A tomorrow that will preserve and protect the nation and her people.

References


Training for Middle-Level Managers: A Qualitative Study

Abstract

Training can enhance company reputation and profile, allow for blended learning, and assist with risk management (Noe, 2017). Because of these numerous benefits, it is important to understand how organizations develop middle managers. Middle managers are critical components of an organization because they are the managers between the lower-level employees and the higher-level managers. They are the “glue” in an organization. Due to this importance, and the likelihood of moving up in an organization, a better understanding of how they are developed is needed. This qualitative study investigated the various methods that are used to train middle level managers, how leaders identify which employees want to move up in the organization, and what individual characteristics leaders look for in individuals who are eligible for promotion.

Introduction

Training and development are both topics that are often discussed in management courses. In industry, organizations incorporate training to improve skill deficiencies or to teach employees new means of doing something or to learn new information. There are also various methods used to train employees. Some training may last a couple hours and other trainings can last months. There are also many things to consider before a training/development program is set up. Management has to decide who needs the training, what will the training include, and what training method will be used.

Leadership and training and development overlap. In order for training to be successful in a company, the support and success of the program starts with top leadership, all the way down to the lower level employees. If top-level leaders are not in favor of the training, or do not see value in the training, there will be very little success in terms of implementing this training for employees. The importance of training, just like company culture, values, and norms, start with top-level management of a company and streams down to the lowest level employees of the company. Together, these topics can work together to develop future leaders within organizations.

Background

Middle managers are defined as “individuals who lead a team with people or with people who managed a set of team leaders. Also, must be a salaried individual, obtain at least a college degree, and be on a managerial track. Additionally, they carry out agendas (rather than set them).” (Osterman, 2008, p. 5). Middle managers are often perceived as those managers who are on track to move up in the company and be future leaders.

Training is defined as a planned effort by a company to facilitate learning of job-related competencies, knowledge, skills, and behaviors by employees. Additionally, development is defined as training as well as formal education, job experiences, relationship and assessments of personality, skills, and abilities that help employees prepare for future jobs or positions (Noe, 2017). Formal training (education is delivered intentionally and formally in classroom like settings) is incredibly beneficial to organizations for numerous reasons such as improved employee performance, satisfaction, morale, improving weaknesses, creating consistency, increased productivity and innovation, and reduced turnover. Training can also enhance
company reputation and profile, allow for blended learning, and assist with risk management. (McNamara, n.d.).

Leaders often see the benefits of training programs, as well as the importance. For example, if a company is having problems with communication, computer skills, customer service, diversity, ethics, human relations, quality initiatives, safety, sexual harassment, or productivity, training may be the solution to the problem. Training can fix many deficiencies within an organization.

There are different ways to go about training. Training can be delivered in various ways. There are hands-on methods that entail on-the-job training. An example of this type of training is for new or inexperienced employees learning a technique in a work setting by observing peers or managers performing the job and then trying to imitate their behavior. A benefit to this method is that it can be customizable, directly applicable to the job, and skills learned on the job are more easily transferable to the job. Disadvantages include that it is can be unstructured and lead to poorly trained employees. There are various ways to perform a task (not everyone will perform it the same way), and bad habits may be passed on to the trainee as well (Noe, 2017).

Self-directed learning is another option that is hands on. This type of training has an employee take responsibility for all aspects of learning, including when it is conducted and who will be involved. Advantages include that learners can learn at their own pace, they may receive feedback about their learning performance, fewer trainers, reduced costs, and this can allow for an easier shift for employees to gain access to training materials. There are also many disadvantages including trainees must be willing to learn on their own and feel comfortable doing so, and they need to be motivated to learn. Additionally, this can result in higher developmental costs and development time will be longer (Noe, 2017).

An apprenticeship is a work-study training method with both on-the-job and classroom training. Typically, the length is about four years, but can also range from two to six years. There are benefits to both the learner and the company with an apprenticeship. The benefits are learners earn pay while they learn and their wages increase automatically as their skills improve. They can gain a wide range of skills and abilities. However, there are large development costs and time commitment. There may be limited access to women and minorities, which would be a big disadvantage (Noe, 2017).

Other methods include simulations (method that represents a real-life situation), case study (description about how employees dealt with a difficult situation), business games (trainees gather information, analyze it, and make decisions), and role play (trainees take on other roles). Additionally, there is behavior modeling (model demonstrates key behaviors), application planning, group building methods, adventure learning, team training, cross training, and action learning (Noe, 2017).

Companies will have different ways of ensuring middle level managers are well prepared for the position. Some companies will do this through formal training, experience, or formal education. Others will use more informal methods of training. For this project, I will be specifically looking at the methods companies use to develop middle managers. I will also be analyzing the topics of training to be offered to middle managers.
Description of Methodology

Twenty-four business leaders, in a small mid-western community of about 28,000 people, were contacted by email by the researcher to ask for volunteers to discuss training and development opportunities within their organization. The businesses were selected based on their relationship with the state university’s Career Services Department. The Career Services Director provided names of companies which frequently support the university through various activities. Through the information provided, the researcher was able to look up various companies and find contact information for the Human Resource Director or CEO. Additionally, a local Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) committee member was able to provide additional contact information.

In the middle of December, emails were sent out to twenty-four business representatives explaining the study and asking if they would be willing to participate. The dates and times for conducting the interviews were provided in the email. The dates offered were the last two weeks in January. The interview questions that would be asked during the face-to-face interviews were provided, as well as a consent form. The business representatives were asked to respond to the email if they were willing to participate in the qualitative study. The researcher provided her own contact information, in case there were any questions, concerns, or comments.

Once an email was received from a participant willing to participate, an email was sent from the researcher to set up a date, time, and location. Following that, one to two weeks before the interview, the researcher sent out a reminder email confirming the time, place, and location, as well as reattaching the consent form and interview questions for their convenience.

From January 15th-January 30th, fifteen interviews took place. In the evening after the interview, a thank you email was sent out thanking the respondent for their time and participation. Once again, the researcher provided her contact information in case there were any questions.

Current Results

At the beginning of the Spring 2020 semester, emails were sent to twenty-four leaders in a small mid-western community. Eighteen businesses responded to the email and fifteen businesses representatives were willing to participate in the study. This was a response rate was 62.5%. Respondents held positions as follows: 60% were human resource managers, 26% executive positions (executive director, executive administrator), 6% were presidents, and 6% were CEO’s. Six percent of the interviews were conducted via email, 20% conducted via telephone, and 73% were conducted face-to-face. The number of middle-level managers in the organizations survey ranged from two middle managers to 150 middle managers. The average number of middle managers was 48 managers. From the individuals interviewed, 100% of them received on-the-job training for their current jobs, and 100% of them found this to be beneficial. One hundred percent of respondents stated the employees who desire to grow in the organization, with the potential of promotion, inform the employers through one-on-one conversations. These conversations can occur via performance evaluations, career development plans, and employee check-ins. Once this is made known, 100% of respondents stated that training will differ for the employees based on whether the employee wishes to move up or not. Additionally, 66.6% of
respondents also discussed their organization having a formal leadership development program to specifically help those who wish to move up. Other development methods consisted of: conferences, stretch projects, mentorships, and assessments.

The most preferred methods of training currently used were online training and on-the-job training, accounting for 67% and 53% respectively. Other common methods being used are conferences, seminars, formal leadership programs within company, and classroom-type training (role play, simulations, and case studies would occur here). Lastly, the top five skills that were looked for in employees who are eligible for promotion include communication, self-development, leadership, teamwork, and adaptability/flexibility.

**Conclusions/Recommendations**

Overall, this research determined how middle managers are currently being developed in today’s organizations in a small midwestern community. This research is valuable to help other organizations, who may not have developing training methods, to help them structure their own training program. This can help educators in the classroom better understand what is currently happening in the workforce. A unique finding through this research was learning that 66.6% of the organization’s focus on allowing self-paced learning for their employees.

Future research and development could analyze the pros and cons of various types of training, such as self-paced learning or structured learning. Additionally, future research could compare the results from this study with results from another community bigger size and with different demographics. Research could also analyze whether various industries have different methods of training and development.

**References**


Examining College Students Significant Learning in the Integration Domain after Completing the StrengthsFinder and Student Leadership Practices Inventory

Abstract

Leadership educators should strive to promote deeper learning within their students. Fink’s taxonomy of significant learning promotes learning that leads to change. If there is no lasting change then no significant learning occurred (Fink, 2003). The purpose of this study was to measure undergraduate students’ integration of learning after the completion of the Clifton StrengthsFinder® and Student Leadership Practice Inventory in a personal leadership course through a self-reflection exercise about the experience. A content analysis of 25 face to face and 16 online class student reflections were used to analyze the connections made between the two assessments. Findings reveal how students integrated the two assessments and made connections between ideas and life.

Introduction and Background

Following completing StrengthsFinder® and the Student Leadership Practice Inventory, students in a personal leadership education course at a public land grant university synthesized their connections between these two assessments through a self-reflective exercise. This reflective exercise challenged students to think critically. Critical thinking is a sought-after skill in the workplace (AAC&U, 2018). In their 2018 report, the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U, 2018) found only 34% of employers believe students to be prepared for the workforce in the area of critical thinking and analysis.

Significant learning is a taxonomy that goes beyond cognitive learning. Significant learning occurs when there is some kind of permanent change in the learner’s life (Fink, 2003). Fink’s taxonomy is not hierarchical but interactive and relational (Fink, 2013). Significant learning is broken down into six major domains. These six domains include: foundational knowledge, application, integration, human dimensions, caring and learning to learn. Integration occurs when students see the connections between ideas, people and life. This domain leads to immense intellectual power (Fink, 2003). The integration domain was the primary focus of this study, observing student’s ability to make connections between different course material through a reflective exercise. Incorporating integrative approaches encourages students to “think the world together [rather] than think it apart (Palmer & Zajonc, 2010).

The StrengthsFinder® philosophy states that focusing on one’s area of natural talent will yield better results than focusing on overcoming weakness. Areas of deficiency must be managed and understood while optimizing the use of strengths. The StrengthsFinder® measures inherent talent with an individual that can be developed into personal strengths through an online assessment (Louis, 2012). The assessment measures 34 natural talent areas (Asplund, et al., 2007).

The Student Leadership Practice Inventory (SLPI) was developed for college students (Gallagher, et al., 2014) and measures five practices of leadership: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. Model the Way recognizes leaders who lead by example and lean heavily on their values and beliefs; it
requires leaders to clarify values by finding their voice and affirming shared values and set the example by aligning actions with shared values. Inspiring a Shared Vision focuses on leaders envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities and enlists others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations. Challenging the Process includes leaders who search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and by looking outward for innovative ways to improve and experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience. Enabling Others to Act focuses on leaders who foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships and strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence. Lastly, Encourage the Heart focuses on those who recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community (Kouzes & Posner, 2018).

Our strengths impact our normal behaviors and thus, it seems reasonable that our natural strengths impact the way we lead. The purpose of this study was to examine how students integrate their learning by identifying the connections made between their strengths and frequency of leadership behavior.

**Methodology**

The context of this study was an undergraduate personal leadership course taught within a 15-week semester at a four-year, public land-grant institution. Students included in the study were enrolled in the face to face and online sections. The course was structured around the five practices of exemplary leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 2018). Students completed the SLPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2018) and StrengthsFinder® online assessment as part of their course assignments. Following each assessment, lecture material was provided to explain in depth the five practices and individual’s strengths at different points of the semester. After completion of both assessments and lecture material, an extra credit assignment was presented. Students were asked to describe the connection between each of the five practices of highly effective leaders and their top five strengths. Students completed this electronically in paragraph form and was half a page single-spaced. For maximum credit, all five practices of highly effective leaders had to be connected to student’s strengths using an example. Students were asked to include their reasoning and examples for each. There was a total of 25 reflections in the face to face section and 16 reflections in the online section for a total of 41 (N = 41) reflections used for analysis in this study.

A content analysis of the reflections was used to examine the research question as we were analyzing indirect human behavior through an analysis of communications (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Huyn, 2012). Following the collection of reflections, data was collected and coded by hand. Each student was assigned a number and then reflections analyzed. Each strength the student mentioned in correspondence with a practice of a highly effective leader was documented with the students’ supporting evidence and explanation.

Trustworthiness of this study was established using Lincoln and Guba’s concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility was established through peer debriefing; transferability was established through the use of participant quotes in the findings;
and dependability and confirmability were established through the use of an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Results

Each practice of leadership will be discussed using quotes from student reflections. Some students connected numerous strengths to a practice while others only connected one. Some students discussed why a leadership practice was more difficult for them due to a specific strength.

Model the Way

Students were able to articulate how their strengths impact their ability to execute model the way for those around them. Specifically, three students reflected on this practice. Student 10 wrote in regards to the communication strength: "I am actively involved in setting an example for others through words" (10). Student 13 wrote in regards to adaptability: “I will be able to demonstrate that small bumps in the road of a project does not mean that it was a failure” (13). Student 28 wrote in regards to belief, adaptability, and consistency:

Having the belief theme demonstrates that I have unchanging values that I firmly believe in. Sharing these values with my followers and sticking to them will clarify my values to my followers. This then creates the model that my followers may or may not choose to follow. Similarly, the consistency theme demonstrates my loyalty and my ability to "walk the talk". Having the restorative theme allows me to teach my followers based on critical incidents that have occurred in the past. Since being restorative means that I make observations based on my experiences, I can use these observations to tell stories and teach my followers the various lessons that came from those experiences (28).

Challenge the Process

Students were able to express how their strengths impact their ability to challenge the process. Specifically, three students reflected on this practice. Student 6 said in regards to analytical: "I always am looking for the reasoning behind things. This paves the way for me to determine what the best practice is, innovate in the face of failure, and question the status quo" (6). Student 20 said in regards to focus: "I focus on what needs to be done, but I typically find a new strategy or plan to finish it, I like to overcome challenges when completing tasks" (20). Student 31 wrote in regards to positivity: "I really do not like failing, so challenging the process can be a real struggle for me. I need to work on having a positive attitude even when I fail, so I am able to grow and get better from my mistakes" (31).

Encourage the Heart

Students were able to make a connection between their strengths and this leadership practice. Specifically, four students reflected on this practice. Student 12 said in regards to significance: “I want those personal relationships and for people to have a positive image of me” (12). Student 23 said in regards to empathy: “I try to provide positive feedback when I a training new servers
at work because it enhances their performance and uplifts their confidence in their work" (23). Student 33 wrote in regards to ideation: “You can use ideas to motivate and encourage” (33). Student 13 wrote about consistency: "I think that this could make me less effective at encouraging the heart because I feel a need to treat everyone the same" (13).

Inspired a Shared Vision
Students were able to integrate their knowledge of strengths and this leadership practice. Specifically, three students reflected on this practice. Student 5 wrote in regards to analytical: “These leaders believe that they can make a difference, visualize the future, creating an ideal and unique vision of what an organization's potential can become” (5). Student 14 wrote in regards to WOO: “WOO allows me to get the trust of others to see the same goals that I do’ (14). Student 13 wrote in regards to harmony:

The harmony strength that I have allows me to get individuals together and explain why we have this vision. I do not like unproductive conflict, I do not have a problem with conflict itself unless it is pointless. Harmony helps me find levels of agreement with other members which in return allows me to connect to how our shared vision can be an asset to them (13).

Enable Others to Act
Students were able to describe the relationship between their strengths and this leadership practice. Specifically, three students reflected on this practice. Student 12 said in regards to activator: "Part of my natural strength is to help people turn words or thought into actions that start pushing them to meet the goal or task they have set” (12). Student 16 said in regards to individualization: “This strength allows me to see the best in others and pick out their strengths and weaknesses” (16). Student 18 said in regards to WOO: “I can easily build rapport with others, put myself out there and truly value the relationship with someone, it perfectly allows me enable others” (16).

Conclusions/Recommendations
This study sought to examine student’s ability to integrate information in a personal leadership education course. Students were able to integrate their learning (Fink, 2003) after completion of leadership assessments, assigned readings and presented lecture material. Further research should be conducted examining the other domains of Fink’s taxonomy.

Another finding from this study was that students have the ability to think critically (AAC&U, 2018) about their strengths. Some students made connections with numerous strengths when only asked to explain one. Students realized how their strengths could make excelling in a specific leadership practice challenging. Further research should be conducted about how students think critically about the relationship between their strengths and leadership practices.

Another benefit of this study includes leadership educators better understanding how students think about their strengths, leadership practices and application to their lives. By students reflecting on past experiences and explaining their strengths and leadership practices in their own words, leadership educators have a better understanding of student’s perspectives. This practice
could allow leadership educators to help their students better understand their natural talents through past students’ points of view.
References


Abstract
Leaders and administrators in academia are being urged to make more data-driven decisions. Coupled with stagnant or decreasing budgets, colleges are being asked to cut or leverage costly campus-wide surveys and the data set produced. Poster will address how a leadership department at a mid-sized institution spearheaded the distribution and follow-up of the 2018 Multi Institutional Study of Leadership. Presenters convened a cross-campus committee of faculty, student affairs administrators, and institutional researchers. Together, the group discussed the survey instrument, the produced data, and submitted a culminating report to executive staff including actionable goals. Tips for making the most of cross-campus surveys will be shared.

Introduction
Large scale, national research surveys provide a wealth of information to higher education institutions. Not only do they reach large quantities of students, they provide benchmark data that can be used to compare one’s institution to other peer institutions. However, the data sets gathered from these surveys rely on the average score of students, even when there is no such thing as the “average student” (Blaich & Wise, 2017). This suggests a significant limitation to data utilization. It is important to consider strategies to decrease these limitations; one such strategy is cross-campus collaboration and conversations.

Collaboration and cross-functional dialogue are important principles for making the most of these campus-wide research studies. Kezar (2003) posits that seamless learning requires increased collaboration amongst campus partners, especially enhanced communication of learning activities. Assessment is common ground between faculty and student affairs professionals, providing a promising opportunity for collaboration. Blaich and Wise (2017), when discussing big data’s use on college campuses, point to “talking with one another to form a consensus identifying and interpreting events of other information to pave the way for action” (p. 27). Conversations like these decrease the distance from the dataset, helping institutions and faculty and staff members to not think of the non-existent “average student,” but rather the students of the institution. Association for Institutional Research (AIR) et al. (2019) mentions that each institution’s culture, mission, and analytics determines next steps for data utilization. In other words, conversations begins to connect the data from the national survey to institutional customs, culture, and programs and then to actionable goals.

This poster will highlight the efforts of a leadership department at a mid-sized institution who spearheaded the distribution and follow-up of the 2018 Multi Institutional Study of Leadership. Based on the Social Change Model of Leadership, the MSL utilizes several scales and sub-scales to explore student outcomes in many areas, including scales specifically focused on the 7 Cs and other leadership constructs like leadership efficacy and resilience.

Presenters convened a cross-campus committee of faculty, student affairs administrators, and institutional researchers weekly for six weeks to discuss and understand the data set. Participants self-selected into participation, with additional outreach targeted toward campus partners whose programs suggested impact on the leadership outcomes of students. The collective proposed
areas for further analysis, and how the data could inform practices and policies already in place. At the end of the summer, committee members collaboratively wrote a synthesized report, executive summary, and action items informed by discussions, which was submitted to campus leadership. Outcomes of the group included anticipated outcomes of understanding and a final report, as well as unanticipated outcomes include further developed campus partnerships and increased campus buy-in for leadership within already existing programs and structures.

This poster will contribute further to the conversation about campus assessment. A better framework for building campus culture, analysis and adoption around the MSL and other large studies of similar nature will lead to better use of custom questions, tailored to give universities high-quality data from a trusted instrument. As higher education institutions are at the edge of changing trends, it is important that leadership educators be at the forefront and a convener of groups to make sense of large data. Exploring data analysis as a cross-campus collaboration will only increase leadership educator’s stake in and prestige at higher education institutions. Importantly, this poster and topic is timely. AIR et al. (2019) paints a jarring picture, positing that the time to act is now:

For every semester we don’t do everything we can to ensure student success—including using analytics to increase student progress and completion—students leave our campuses without graduating, discouraged and more in debt than when they entered. For every year we fail to use data effectively to improve operations or to make better financial and business decisions, we threaten the financial sustainability of our institutions (p.5).

Leadership educators in academia can lead at the edge in furthering campus conversations about data, which can only further ensure the vitality of higher education institutions and better student outcomes well into the future.

**Description of Program/Methodology**

In the summer of 2019, presenters convened a cross-campus committee of faculty, student affairs administrators, and institutional researchers weekly for six weeks to discuss and understand the data set garnered from the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. Participants self-selected into participation, with additional outreach targeted toward campus partners whose programs suggested impact on the leadership outcomes of students. The collective proposed areas for further analysis, and how the data could inform practices and policies already in place. At the end of the summer, committee members collaboratively wrote a synthesized report, executive summary, and action items informed by discussions, which was submitted to campus leadership.

Because of the pioneering committee-based work on the MSL data, the process is being used as a guideline for other campus-wide surveys. Particularly in 2020, the campus is undertaking a campus climate survey of faculty, staff, and students. Leaders of the survey are beginning to formulate a follow-up group to engage in a similar process to what was completed in summer 2019. The outcome of a report takes the data a step further to conceptualize results to the campus, which combats concerns of assessment for assessments sake without informed meaningful changes.
Current Results
Results for the 2019 follow-up conversations have been completed. Shared on the poster will be a timeline of outreach efforts, meeting efforts, and report writing efforts. Additionally, the poster will include statements from participants regarding the importance of the conversation, and results that occurred in the semesters following the conversations.

Conclusions/Recommendations
Recommendations to those who engage in campus-wide survey instruments include:
- Developing partnerships across campus
- Engaging in meaningful conversations
- Setting agendas
- Using reports and reporting structures to create positive change on campuses.

References


Volunteer Retention at Two CASA Programs: A Comparative Case Study

Abstract
Maintaining volunteers for an extended period of time can be challenging. According to Independent Sector (n.d.), National CASA (Court Appointed Special Advocates) lost approximately $39 million dollars due to volunteer attrition. This proposal examines volunteer retention at two CASA programs, nonprofit organizations whose mission is to provide a voice for abused and neglected children so they can thrive in safe, permanent homes. Using a qualitative comparative case study, I seek to identify the reasons long-term volunteers continue to serve to develop a set of clear and comprehensive recommendations aimed at improving the rate of volunteer retention at the agencies. I explore volunteers’ motivations which may influence their decision to stay or leave using an approach structured by Ostrom’s Institutional Analysis and Development framework.

Introduction
This proposal will explore the factors that influence volunteer retention at two CASA programs in the Midwest. Both CASA programs seek to retain their volunteers for as long as possible in order to ensure that the abused and neglected children in foster care are provided with tenacious advocacy. The study will be conducted among long-term volunteers, and I will gather data through the use of a comparative case study employing semi-structured interviews. Ultimately, the goal is to provide the organizations with a comprehensive set of recommendations that will inform volunteer retention strategies.

Nonprofit organizations rely heavily on the use of volunteers. The United States Department of Labor (2015) reported that 62.6 million Americans volunteered at least one time between 2014 and 2015. However, many nonprofit organizations benefit from volunteers who are not one-time participants and prefer those individuals who can repeat their service while re-using their institutional knowledge and training (Karl et al., 2008). Karl et al. (2008) noted that it costs nonprofit organizations five times more to recruit and train a new volunteer rather than to retain one. When volunteers leave an organization more time must be spent on recruiting thereby increasing the already heavy burden on the staff members of nonprofits. Further, the loss of volunteers can lead to a drop in agency morale (McBey et al., 2017) Therefore, it is cost- and time-effective to keep volunteers as long as they remain useful to an organization.

Bright et al. (2016) reported that GAL/CASA programs, such as Court Appointed Special Advocates (CASA) Program #1, and CASA Program #2 have long demonstrated their efficacy. Children in foster care who are appointed community volunteer advocates often receive permanency more quickly, have fewer placement changes and receive more services than children who are not appointed an advocate. Being an advocate for a child in the foster care system can be demanding, emotionally draining, and frustrating due to organizational challenges. These feelings can lead to burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) as well as advocates leaving the organization before their two-year commitment has ended. National CASA reported that of 24,000 volunteers trained in 2018, 16,000 volunteers ceased their service that same year (CASA for Children, 2019).
Background

Research Question(s) and Hypotheses
The following research question guided this qualitative study: Research question #1: How do long-term volunteers describe the reasons they continue service at CASA Program #1 in and CASA Program #2? The following sub-question will be used: How do long-term volunteers perceive the organizational support of CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2?

Aim of the Study
The aim of this study is to develop a comprehensive set of recommendations with the goal of retaining volunteers at CASA for Program #1 and CASA Program #2. These recommendations will inform recruitment, training, and advocate supervisor practices.

As defined by Haivas et al. (2013), volunteering is defined as “a freely chosen and deliberate helping activity that extends over time, one engages without expecting financial rewards nor any other compensation, often organized through formal organizations, and performed on behalf of causes or individuals who desire assistance” (p. 1869). Volunteerism is a significant industry in the United States. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), 62.6 million people volunteered in their communities in 2015, and those volunteers averaged 52 hours spent doing volunteer work. Yet national volunteer rates are declining (Eisner et al., 2009). According to Dwiggins-Beeler et al. (2011), researchers have not fully uncovered what makes volunteers stay at an organization for an extended period of time. Volunteer retention at nonprofit agencies is a crucial and highly nuanced topic, particularly so at Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA) programs where the stakes are high: giving a voice to children who are in foster care. Bright et al. (2016) noted that CASA programs vary widely and that it would be difficult to make inferences about volunteer retention organization-wide. Nonetheless, the subject is a matter of great financial, operational, and fiscal importance, not only to CASA programs across the country but specifically to CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2. Bright et al. (2016) reported that increased attrition rates in CASA programs could lead to compromised care for children in foster care.

Previous research has indicated that volunteer retention is predicated upon a number of factors to include: role mastery, autonomy, confidence, having a voice in the agency’s operations which can lead to an internalization of the organization’s mission. This internalization helps to bind the volunteer the agency (Alfes et al., 2017). Along these lines, Englert and Helmis (2018) noted a positive correlation between volunteer retention, intention to stay, and volunteer performance, indicating volunteers who stay are often skilled in making and maintaining long-term relationships that benefit the organization, whether that be with other volunteers, staff, or community members.

Description of Methodology

This research project is a qualitative comparative case study, which will utilize Ostrom’s (2005) Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD) framework to guide the inquiry and to assist with theming and coding the study’s results. I choose to examine a topic with practical, leadership-oriented implications.
Participants
Approximately 120 individuals combined from both sites meet these criteria at this time (Executive Director #2, personal communication, July 17, 2019; Executive Director #1, personal communication, July 8, 2019). I will be conducting a purposive sample, which, according to Yin (2016), is a sampling method whose goal is to obtain the most information-rich data, but is not necessarily representative. More specifically, I will utilize a maximum variation sampling, which is to obtain a wide variety of participants with possibly contradictory views. After obtaining a list of participants who meet study criteria, I will, with the assistance of the CASA staff, identify the possible participants’ length of service at CASA, their identified gender, as well as their employment-type (to include full-time, part-time, retired, and student). This will allow me the opportunity to have volunteers with variable durations of tenure, a mix of men and women, and a variety of employment types. Ultimately, I hope that maximum variation sampling will give me a diverse set of data.

The participants will be given the choice to have the interviews conducted at the offices of CASA Program #1 or CASA Program #2, a neutral location like a coffee shop, or their home. Allowing the participants to choose the interview location can put them at ease and begin to build rapport (Herzog, 2005). Interviewing participants via Zoom is another possibility.

Participants in this study will be recruited from CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2. The participants will be current volunteers in good standing who have served as an advocate for at least two years. CASA Manager, CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2’s data management system, tracks volunteer demographic information and is able to generate a report of the names of the active volunteers who have served at CASA for at least two years who are in good standing. I will obtain this information from CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2’s staff members.

Procedures
Data will be collected via the use of a qualitative interview protocol. The interviews will begin with an introductory statement thanking the subjects for participating in the interview, the purpose of the study, as well as anonymity and confidentiality. The subjects will be told that they can ask any questions, take a break, or end the interview at any time. Also, participants will be asked to complete the Maslach MBI Human Services Survey to assess for burnout.

Data Analytic Techniques
I will be using MAXQDA to assist with coding and SPSS to assist in the data analysis of the results from the Maslach MBI Human Services Survey. The IAD framework can be utilized to explore the process of human decision making as well as understanding why individuals behave differently in situations (Ostrom, 2005). The exogenous variables include the biophysical and material conditions, the attributes of the community, and the rules. The biophysical and material conditions are the outside factors which can influence how decisions are made. These factors are outside the control of the participants. Examples relevant to this study include the CASA offices and the software management system that volunteer advocates are required to use. The attributes of the community are comprised of the characteristics of the participants, in this case, the CASA volunteers. Lastly, the rules are the directives and norms that govern the participants' behaviors.
The interview questions for the dissertation were largely based on the CASA-specific exogenous variables and CASA-specific rules and norms, and the responses to these questions will help to gain a greater understanding of the volunteer experience at the two CASA programs. The action arena is comprised of the interaction between action situations (activities that happen at the office and the actors (CASA staff and volunteers), and I will observe these interactions in the offices of CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2. From those interactions, outcomes are based on what happens in the action arena, and the evaluative criteria is the lens through which the action arena is viewed. This process will be used to understand volunteer retention at CASA Program #1 and CASA Program #2. I am using Ostrom’s IAD framework to guide the inquiry in an exploratory and deductive manner. A deductive process begins with general premises - for example, motivation influences volunteer retention, leading to specific conclusions - for example, volunteer retention may be influenced by the intrinsic motivation of altruism (Babbie, 2017).

![Diagram of institutional analysis framework]

*Figure 1. A framework for institutional analysis, E. Ostrom, 2005, Understanding Institutional Diversity, p. 15*

**Current Results**

As of February 13, 2020, the results from this study are incomplete. I have completed interviews at CASA Program #2 and am preparing to complete the participant interviews at CASA Program #1. I have completed an initial review of the data, and have prepared a preliminary codebook in order to organize the data. I hope to finish all interviews by March 2020 and have all data analyzed by April 2020.

**Conclusions/Recommendations**

Without having completed all interviews and data analysis, any conclusions or recommendations would be premature. I plan to have completed this project by July 2020 and thus will be prepared to discuss all implications, limitations, and future directions in practice/research at that time.
References


Community-Engaged Leadership as Design: An Emerging Framework for Social Change Leaders in Nigeria

Abstract
This presentation uses the case of a Leading Change Institute in Lagos, Nigeria to illustrate an engaged developmental approach and introduce an emerging leadership framework that not only supports leadership for the greater good, but helps to create conditions for more dynamic and thriving civil societies and communities. The Community-Engaged Leadership as Design framework integrates principles and practices of community-engaged scholarship, design thinking, adaptive leadership, and social change leadership.

Introduction
The leadership crisis facing Africa is well documented (Iheriohanma & Oguoma, 2010). The talent, innovation, and abundant resources within Africa are often overshadowed by tales of corruption and incompetence epitomized by high rates of poverty, famine, and wars. In Nigeria, scholars have identified corruption and lack of leadership as root causes contributing to the country’s socio-economic and political problems (Egbegbulem, 2012). Author 1 is a Nigerian non-profit founder and leadership scholar who has witnessed first-hand the leadership challenges facing the nation. Kempster, Guthey, and Uhl-Bien (2017) argue that “the nature of the grand challenges facing humanity require our attention in the context of leadership development practice” (p. 253). They forward the need for leadership development models and processes that engage and mobilize diverse stakeholders to innovate strategies that address pressing social and organizational challenges (Kempster, et al., 2017). Priest and Kliwer (2017) propose that community-engaged scholarship offers a pedagogy of practice that embodies and develops critical approaches of leadership necessary to make progress on the toughest challenges confronting our communities. This practice poster illustrates a developmental approach (the Leading Change Institute) and introduces an emerging leadership model (Community-Engaged Leadership as Design) that not only supports leadership for the greater good, but also helps to create conditions for more dynamic and thriving civil societies and communities.

Background
Community-Engaged Scholarship (CES)
Democratic civic engagement focuses on not only activity and place, but also on purpose and process (Saltmasch, Hartley & Clayton, 2009). Community-based participatory research frameworks create the conditions for collaboration between academic and community partners across all stages of the research process (research done with, versus done for the public). At the heart of community-engaged research approaches are community-driven priorities, shared and equitable decision making, co-creation of knowledge, and a purpose of social or cultural change (Jacquez, Ward, & Goguen, 2016). Community-engaged scholarship shifts the role of community members from knowledge consumers to knowledge producers (Post et al., 2016).

Design Thinking
Design thinking is a human-centric five-step iterative process used by innovators to better understand users and create alternative solutions that better serve the users of the products they design (Matthews & Wrigley, 2017; see also IDEO, n. d., IDF, n. d.). While variations exist, the
five stages are: (1) Empathize, (2) Define, (3) Ideate, (4) Prototype, (5) Test. Design thinking processes have been integrated into personal development, life planning and work-life (e.g., Burnett & Evans, 2016) as well as personal leadership development (e.g., Middlebrooks, Allen, McNutt, & Morrison, 2018).

Adaptive Leadership
According to Heifetz and Laurie (1997), the greatest leadership challenge is the ability to distinguish between technical and adaptive leadership, with leaders often addressing adaptive challenges with technical solutions. Adaptive work requires leadership practices that enable adaptive work. Central to adaptive work is diagnosing an issue from multiple perspectives, and engaging and mobilizing stakeholders to find common solutions. Specific practices (e.g., getting on the balcony, raising the heat, working across factions, enabling adaptive space) are supported by research and practice (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linskey, 2009; O’Malley & Cebula, 2015; Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017).

Social Change Leadership
Crosby and Bryson’s (2005) leadership for the common good framework emphasizes creating the conditions for power-sharing practices to engage in ethical public problem-solving. Raelin (2011) suggests that the leadership-as-practice framework lends itself to democratic practice through leaderful practice that privileges the co-creation of social organizations. Pares, Ospina, and Subirats (2017) advance a model of social innovation and democratic leadership pursues and fosters social change, challenges hegemony, and co-emerges new frameworks and solutions. They emphasize practices of equality, inclusiveness, and transformation. Ospina et al.’s (2012) model of social change leadership highlights three important leadership practices that individuals within organizations adopt to develop capacity for collective leadership: reframing discourse, bridging differences and unleashing human energies.

Description of Practice
Leading Change Institute
Leading Change Institutes are a unique and powerful series of programs offered by the Staley School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University. The format features short gatherings where practitioners and thought leaders focus time and energy on a significant issue, identify goals, and develop goals and strategies around a common theme. The intent of the Leading Change Institutes is to create space for the conversations that will yield clear and tangible impacts. Through engagement and dialogue, participants develop and harness new thinking, generate connection, and seed collaboration as a collective. In January 2020, the Staley School hosted a Leading Change Institute in Nigeria, bringing together 33 young leaders of non-profits and social change organizations serving youth, women, education, health, and other advocacy and empowerment efforts. Participants were selected from over 270 applicants. The participants’ experience in non-profit work ranged from 1-10 years, with nearly half having 1-6 years of experience. Program objectives were to: (1) build a learning community; (2) Explore perspectives and practices to exercise leadership for change, and (3) Develop tangible strategies to engage others and mobilize change with your own communities.
**Table 1**

*Program Overview*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day 1</th>
<th>Day 2</th>
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| ● Journey maps: Exploring our own stories of leadership  
● Re-defining leadership  
● The leadership “gap” - identifying adaptive challenges  
● Distinguishing between technical and adaptive work  
● Exploring multiple interpretations  
● Engaging unusual voices; working across factions  
● Speak to loss and reframing the discourse | ● Introduction to community engagement  
● Overview of Community Engaged Leadership as Design  
● Group work - developing projects around shared interests  
● Group presentations  
● Group discussion on next steps/reflection/debrief  
● Celebration |

**Community-Engaged Leadership as Design**

Drawing from the principles and practices of the previously mentioned approaches to inquiry and leadership, we developed the CELD as a framework to guide the work of social change leaders with community members to create resilient interventions that meet community needs. CELD involves six stages: (1) Empathy - placing yourself in the shoes of the community members to reflect on how the identified challenge might be impacting their lives; (2) Diagnose the situation - Understanding the leadership challenge by distinguishing between its adaptive and technical components, identifying stakeholders, and exploring multiple interpretations; (3) Ideate - Collaborative brainstorming on how to make progress on the leadership challenge(s); (4) Intervention - Design a real, tangible intervention program built on empathy and collaboration with community members using the various strategies identified in the previous stage, (5) Test - Try out the intervention, learn from it, make adjustments; (6) Implement - Empowering community members to deploy interventions at a larger scale, focusing on continuous learning and sustainability.

**Current Results**

We gathered data through the learning activities and a post-event evaluation survey. The group design process resulted in eight project plans, addressing the following issues:

- Getting kids off streets and back in school; policy change
- Girl empowerment: Engagement plan for international women’s day 2020
- Addressing ethnic internalism through training youth, arts fellowships, and awareness campaign
- Social media partnerships to tell stories/advocate for causes
- Maternal mental health improvement; stakeholder engagement
- Improving youth participation in government
- Reducing number of primary school drop-outs through innovative payment options
- Development of essential skills for the future of work

The following is a sample of participants’ descriptions of their learning:
Leadership is a journey and not a destination. It is okay not to have all the answers as a leader. A clearer understanding of the adaptive and technical concepts.

The need to be more intentional about our stakeholder mapping and especially to consider those stakeholders with low influence, but high stake. The need to not underestimate the extent of problem surrounding an issue; making sure to properly think through defining the problem, to adequately ascertain what kind of challenge (whether it be technical or adaptive) exists before determining what sort of leadership is also required to solve the problem.

Community Engagement practices. Knowing that it is not really about you but them and creating the change that is needed.

Some ways participants plan to apply their learning from this event is:

- I’ve decided to go back to my community and implement the DATA WITH US strategy by making sure that all the relevant stakeholders are involve both in the planning and execution stage of our next line of action towards achieving sustainable development.
- First, I will be organizing a step down training for my team and we together work towards implementing the new approach of gathering data with our target community and together creating sustainable solution. I plan to carefully follow every step I learned at the LCI.
- Transfer the new knowledge gained to [Organization] staff and students through a train-the-trainer model; Apply the knowledge in my Leadership Journey.

We are conducting on-going research with participants to learn how they are experimenting with these approaches within their own communities. Recognizing this is an emerging model, we invite feedback and discussion with session attendees on their own experiences with design-informed approaches and/or social change leadership practices.

**Conclusions & Recommendations**

In our case, the LCI was an opportunity to advance our land-grant university mission, supporting the common good through capacity building, engaged research, and civic leadership development locally and globally. While this program and framework is being developed with social change leaders in Nigeria, we believe the format and objectives of a Leading Change Institute, and the principles and practices of the CELD framework can inform leadership development for social change in multiple contexts. We invite leadership educators and developers to partner with community stakeholders to consider the question, “What kind of leadership is required to make progress on the challenges facing our campus, community, or country?” Community-engaged methods of development and inquiry offer opportunities for advancing our understanding of culturally situated leadership and development of collective, relational, and socially just leadership practice.
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Leadership and Analytics: 
Becoming Data Literate Decision Makers

Roundtable Discussion

Abstract

Leaders today require a strong grasp of analytic and data science skills. As the volume of information grows, so does the gap in leaders with the ability to manage, understand and make decisions using data. While most leadership programs graze the subject of descriptive analytics, deeper understanding and ability are required across organizations that leverage prescriptive and predictive modeling. Understanding data modeling and its outcomes is key to leadership and organizational success when results are transformed into decision making. Methods for educating data literate leaders must be cultivated.

Key Words (English): business analytics, data science, education, leadership development

Introduction

It is known that analytics provides fact based decision-making. Data supporting decision making to increase competitive advantage is a reliable way to increase the bottom line (Davenport, 2013). This roundtable will encourage participants to share perspectives on the importance of addressing the business analytic and decision science talent gap by promoting a shift in business analytic education for leaders beyond descriptive analytic emphasis to the prowess of data science rooted in predictive and prescriptive analytic modeling.

Background

The volume of data available today can be empowering or paralyzing depending on an organization’s capacity to leverage it in decision-making. That capacity is highly reliant on talent. In their Analytics Trends 2016 -The Next Evolution, Deloitte (2016) reports that “Forty percent of respondents to a 2015 MIT Sloan Management Review survey say they have difficulty hiring analytical talent”. Analytics is becoming a ubiquitous and highly sought competency affecting businesses of all sizes, enterprise wide, both domestically and globally, making it as fundamental in higher education and business today as reading and math. It has been estimated that by 2020 data will grow at the zettabyte level to over 40 times the amount of data that was available in 2009.
Organizations worldwide continue to increase their demand for and emphasis on such business analytic resources to pursue IoT (internet of things) strategies, machine learning (cognitive computing) and prescriptive (automated decision making) and real time analytics. Back in 2011, McKinsey Global Institute’s *Big data: The next frontier for innovation, competition, and productivity* (2011) estimated that by 2018, “the United States alone could face a shortage of 140,000 to 190,000 people with deep analytical skills as well as 1.5 million managers and analysts with the know-how to use the analysis of big data to make effective decisions.”

**Implications**

If leaders are to attract and cultivate analytic based decision makers, it is imperative that they themselves exemplify this type of decision making (Davenport, 2013). The discussion will focus on the importance of addressing a talent gap and the need to begin shifting business analytic education beyond a descriptive analytic emphasis to the prowess of data science rooted in predictive and prescriptive analytic modeling. Examples from retail, healthcare, transportation, to apply analytics to decision making for both student education and faculty pedagogical use.

**REFERENCES**

Personalized Learning in Graduate Educational Leadership Preparation

Introduction

Professors developed a personalized learning model for graduate education to provide adult learners with opportunities chosen by them and their mentors to improve personal leadership capacity and impact school outcomes. Flores and Sprake (n.d.) cited that adult learners engaged if there was a shared responsibility for learning. Although professors established the learning outcomes of the program curriculum, they defined and implemented personalization as the selection of means to address specified learning outcomes and assess results. Candidates and school-based mentors made strategic decisions related to researching, planning, implementing and assessing results.

Professors teaching this program found no research on the effectiveness of personalization in educational leadership preparation. The general growth of online programs provided an opportunity for educational leadership preparation program professors to scale up ability to attract full-time school administrators to a preparation program; however, professors in this program asked whether these administrators needed to use their work experiences applied to their schools as opportunities to build consensus, build relationships, and establish trust in a new teaching and learning organization. Overall, adult learners engaged when they could apply relevant learning and practical knowledge to their work (Pappas, 2013, para. 2).

Moldoveanu and Narayandas (2019, para. 4) concluded that a necessary change from traditional leadership preparation included contextualized learning involving locus of learning and locus of application. Professors in this program used personalized learning to contextualize the locus of learning to the job setting. Candidates used personalized learning for application in real time on the job.

Candidates and professors in this program implemented unique roles that differed from roles in traditional face-to-face graduate education. The role of candidates in personalized learning was fourfold. First, candidates demonstrated initiative and responsibility to determine their individual questions on what they needed to research to address each learning outcome. Second, they implemented their plan with the assistance of their mentor or their performance coach and assessed their own performance. Third, they collaborated with others as they expanded their capacity to lead. The optimal setting was a collaborative school culture (Gruenert and Whitaker, 2017, p. 50). Fourth, candidates reflected on their work and performances individually and collectively. Professors developed handbooks for the master’s level and for the specialist level to implement these personalized strategies.

Candidates developed fully functional personalized learning from their application of continuous improvement for personal mastery (Senge, 2006, p. 153.) and continuous improvement for dispositions or habits of mind associated with personalization (Kallick and Zmuda, 2017). Candidates assessed their development on 16 dispositions, facilitated by their mentor and/or coach, for personalization of their work each semester. Professors compiled essential data on characteristics of ownership and personalized learning in addition to proficiency on specific
professional learning outcomes. Researchers needed to examine strength of relationships between dispositions and performance.

Participant Objectives

Objectives for participants included the following: define personalization for the program; articulate support team roles of candidate, professor, coach and mentor; review curriculum assignment components for addressing learning outcomes in personalized leadership preparation; explore candidate and mentor role in initial assessment of performance; and, examine the function of personalized residency experience.

Background

Professors found an unsettled landscape of research on personalized learning. They identified no research to establish the effectiveness of personalization strategies for educational leadership preparation. During 2016, Hareld (Implementation Studies, para. 6) concluded for K-12 settings that “overall, though, the state of research around real-world implementations of personalized-learning models remains muddled and contentious.” Murray (2017, A New Approach: ‘Student-of-One,” para. 6) noted that research on personalized learning in higher education was lacking. The author concluded that innovation was needed but that research and assessment would add to the body of knowledge of clarifying personalization strategies (Murray, 2017, A New Approach: ‘Student-of-One,” para. 6).

Professors did not identify any research on the preparation component of equity using personalization in educational leadership. Mathewson (2018, para. 3) identified frameworks using personalization strategies to address equity in K-12 schools. Professors emphasized in the preparation program the importance of personalization strategies to address equity in the school through candidate leadership opportunities. Extending the component of equity for leadership preparation, all aspiring leadership candidates did not have access to the same high level of district support for research in the school setting. Because of this inequity in preparation opportunity, professors used personalization strategies to customize research and provide consultative feedback to expand candidate options.

Experts agreed that there was a skill transfer gap for leaders from education to job application in traditional adult preparation programs due to the two factors of location and time in defining loci. The farther removed the locus of learning (acquisition) from the locus of application (job), the larger the gap of transfer (Moldoveanu and Narayandas, 2019, para. 4). Tomlinson (2017, p. 12.) observed that no one model of personalization was effective for all ages and content areas. Hareld (2016, para. 4, 5) cited that personalized learning in K-12 settings was hard to define because application was highly contextualized based on the setting with differing ideas on definition and strategies as well as inadequate research on comprehensive programs.

Senge (2006) used systems thinking in describing how to strengthen the relationships among the parts of a system. Professors applied systems thinking on the skills transfer gap, multiple age group application and lack of a definition to determine that implementers of personalization needed to adjust and strengthen their programs within the context of the curriculum, delivery,
learner and learning environment. Instructional models were dependent upon the setting and the time lag in application.

Support existed for using personalization to promote engagement of the adult learner in authentic work. Feriazzo noted that engagement was about relevance and helping the learner “... find their spark and make their own fire (2017, pp. 31-32).” Gallagher, Director of Northeastern University’s Center for the Future of Higher Education and Talent Strategy stated that ‘working adults are self-directed, bring experience into the classroom and prefer learning that is practical and problem-centered (2020, Integrating Learning and Work in Service of Adult Learners, para. 1).”

Preparation programs in higher education needed more to demonstrate application of personalization than the creation of online courses and programs. Murray (2017, para. 3) called for programs to develop highly individualized learning sequences. He added that acceleration and expansion of personalization in higher education was needed particularly for career pathways for adult learners (Murray, 2017, para. 3).

Other researchers cited the concept of personalized learning in leadership preparation. Moldoveanu and Narayandas (2019, para 9) identified a trend using personalized learning as “the rise of customizable learning environments, through platforms and applications that personalize content according to learners’ roles and their organizations’ needs.”

Professors developed the objective to change instructional delivery to a personalized model. Monitoring personalization included assessment of continuous application and improvement of specific habits of mind/dispositions. Implementers of a personalized learning model with research-based dispositions/habits of mind needed further research to document program effectiveness.

Primary Means for Interaction

Primary means for interaction included the following: apply elements of a professional teaching and learning community including group focus and member contributions; identify and relate program to background and experience of each participant as appropriate; determine specific issues on application of personalization; provide handout of slide deck to anchor the main themes of the presentation for each participant; provide handout of program handbook; promote participant contributions through their experiences, insights, and feedback as appropriate; and, establish informal network of interested participants as appropriate.

Implications

Presenters will record and apply insights and feedback from the presentation participants to improve their conceptual base, expand research and apply personalized learning to graduate educational leadership preparation.
References


Advancing Leadership Studies: Using Focus Groups in Leadership Education and Development Program Review

Abstract

Leadership education and development programs have proliferated in higher education institutions across the country over the past two decades (Greenleaf, Kastle, Arensdorf, Whitaker, & Sramek, 2017; Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, Arensdorf, 2006), and they continue to expand worldwide. With the increase in leadership programs, it is integral that faculty and administrators develop and regularly carry out robust program review that includes carefully collected data from all stakeholders. One aspect of data collection that can yield especially rich qualitative data in academic program review includes the use of focus groups. This roundtable will discuss all aspects of using focus groups when conducting comprehensive program review, including their efficacy, logistics, pros/cons, and whether or to what extent data gathered from focus groups can and should be used to make programmatic decisions in curricular and cocurricular leadership education and development programs in higher education.

Introduction

Leadership education and development programs have a great degree of variance in program characteristics, including overall objectives, goals, specific learning outcomes, and delivery modality (Whitaker & Arensdorf, 2018). If leadership studies is to continue coalescing into a sustainable academic discipline, and if leadership education programs are to grow and remain relevant, comprehensive internal program review and self-study should regularly be performed (Riggio, 2013). Broadly, best practices in higher education program review should:

- Bring about lasting and ongoing impact that is appropriately aligned with the University’s strategic vision;
- Focus on continuously improving teaching and learning;
- Build on existing and ongoing self-evaluation processes, e.g. annual departmental reports and learning outcomes assessment plans;
- Be a joint effort of all internal and external stakeholders – faculty, students, staff, alumni, community partners, employers, Regents (if applicable) and others contributing to the program;
- Include periodic peer benchmarking and environmental scanning in enrollment management, emerging technologies, best practices in pedagogy, and discipline-specific academic content;
- Result in specific short- and long-term recommendations prioritized by identified strengths and weaknesses.

The best practice most relevant to this proposed roundtable at the Association of Leadership Educators conference is the fourth in the list: gathering input and feedback from internal and external stakeholders. Leadershio education usually intersects with many other areas of a college or university, both curricular and cocurricular (Komives, et. al., 2013). This means that the stakeholders of such programs are usually larger and more dispersed than for other discipline areas, which in turn means a well-planned data collection strategy is imperative.
Background

Meaningful sense-making about the efficacy and quality of leadership education and development programs cannot occur absent a comprehensive and strategic program review process that acknowledges both the reality of current conditions and the necessity for adaptability to new circumstances (Mintzberg, 1994).

The literature about effective program review in higher education is vast. Popular models include Dickeson’s Prioritization Model (1999), Collins’ “Good to Great” approach (2005), Kirkpatrick’s four levels (Kurt, 2016), the Massy Model (2003) and the QPC Model (Comstock & Booker, 2009). While these models, among many others, differ in their approach and perspective, collectively the literature agrees to the necessity of a robust process that begins with needs assessment and ends in the development of a comprehensive framework requiring multiple areas of evaluation that must include multiple stakeholders. Additionally, while assessment of learning is clearly a major component of overall program review, and while some leadership education and development programs have made great strides in learning outcomes assessment over the past decade, the literature also supports that student learning is only one area to consider when conducting program review. Other areas particularly important in higher education include advising and enrollment management; pedagogy and effective teaching; human, technology and financial resource allocation; alumni and employer engagement; learning communities, student government and other shared governance committees; and strategic plan alignment at all levels (Sowcik & Rosch, 2013). To accomplish this effectively, evaluators must conduct a variety of quantitative and qualitative data collection from a variety of stakeholders.

Focus group interviews are one possible qualitative research method that can be used to evaluate leadership education programs (Krueger, 1988). They consist of a carefully designed “discussion” which allows people to express diverse points of view in a group and often elicit opinions, thoughts, new discoveries, and feelings not easily obtained from more traditional quantitative survey data or other types of qualitative inquiry. Greenbaum (1993) argues that focus groups are most productive when used to determine a program’s strengths and weaknesses or its efficacy and success. Miller (2000) found many advantages of focus group interviews, including flexibility of questioning and free exchange of ideas and dialogue. Mintzberg (1994) posits that focus groups offer a powerful opportunity for introducing intuition, opinion, and emergent thinking during the information-gathering. Focus groups also provide educators and administrators an opportunity to explore tacit knowledge - a resource which often goes under leveraged (Alfred, et. al., 2006).

Means for Discussion/Interaction (with Handouts)

Participants in this roundtable discussion will have the opportunity to explore their program review and evaluation efforts from a conceptual and operational perspective. They will also be provided with a compilation of focus group tools, and discuss the use of focus groups in data collection, particularly with external audiences like community partners, advisory boards, employers, and those who provide internship and service-learning opportunities for students. The discussion questions will be as follows:
1. What are some of the frameworks/templates available to program evaluators of leadership education and development programs in higher education?

2. How do we define who our stakeholders are, and what types of information we want to gather from each stakeholder group?

3. Under what conditions and with which stakeholder groups should we consider the use of focus groups as a methodology? What are the advantages/disadvantages?

4. How do we prepare evaluators and stakeholders to participate in focus groups?

5. When conducting program review, what are “best practices” when using focus group interviews?

6. What questions are we asking our stakeholders? What questions should we ask?

7. How are we using stakeholder data? How should we be using that data?

8. What are we missing? What have we not asked about focus groups that we should consider when comprehensively evaluating leadership education and development programs?

**Foreseeable Implications of Discussion**

This roundtable could lead to greater understanding of program review in general, and the use of focus groups in particular. This will hopefully increase the chances of cross-institutional collaborative research in leadership education, as well as more intentional conversations around advancing leadership studies as a discipline, using comprehensive program review to establish credibility and act as an anchor. If we are all intentional and thoughtful about defining our program objectives and stakeholder groups using at least some standardized discipline-specific questions and accepted high quality research methodologies, not only will individual leadership education program objectives more likely be realized, so too will we establish the necessary credibility to advance leadership studies as a sustainable discipline (Greenleaf Kastle, Sramek & Brungardt, 2018).
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Leadership Educators in Student Affairs: A discussion of challenges and best practice

Working outline

Abstract

Inspired by a session at last year’s Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) conference, the purpose of this round table discussion is to continue the conversation about leadership educator identity and practice in the field of higher education student affairs. From this discussion, participants will share their experiences and best practices to create transformational change for a diverse population of students in our colleges and universities.

Introduction

Leadership education is one of the many responsibilities that often fall under the purview of student affairs professionals. In fact, more students are involved in co-curricular leadership development than curricular leadership development (Dunn et al., 2019). As a result, there has been much conversation and research surrounding leadership educator identity within student affairs (Dunn et al., 2019; Rocco & Pelletier, 2019; Seemiller & Priest, 2017).

This roundtable discussion was inspired by a July 2019 ALE conference session that outlined research about perceptions of student affairs practitioners and preparatory faculty members with regard to perceived leadership educator identity. Throughout the rest of the conference, informal conversations continued as participants discussed the challenges and opportunities of student affairs leadership educators. Further conversation is warranted as leader educator identity and professional preparation research continues to develop within the student affairs field.

Professional organizations, such as ALE, are poised to provide a venue for these conversations to continue. The purpose of this round table discussion is to create intentional space to discuss current research and explore the challenges and opportunities of leadership educator preparation and practice in co-curricular settings, as well as provide ideas for future implementation. The following proposal provides a brief explanation of current research, the discussion format to be used, and future implications to inform practice.

Background

Universities need committed, well-trained student affairs professionals to develop the next generation of college students. The landscape of higher education institutions is changing with a more diverse student population who come from different socio-economic backgrounds, ethnicities, and abilities (Whitt & Shuh, 2015). With a diverse student population comes a need for creative and inclusive programming and learning opportunities, justifying the need for highly trained student affairs professionals (Herdlein et al., 2013).

However, new professionals are often expected to learn by doing and are not given adequate orientation and training for their responsibilities (Dinise-Halter, 2017). This can be particularly dangerous when new professionals are expected to be leadership educators and do not have the experience or knowledge to follow through from activity to reflection to growth. Dugan and
Osteen (2016) expressed concern that often graduate education and practice often does not provide access to formal leadership theory and training. As a result, how might student affairs professionals identify as leadership educators?

“Understanding leadership educator professional identity has benefits for leadership educators, their students, and the field of leadership education” (Seemiller & Priest, 2017, p.19). Intentional conversations between leadership educators provides opportunities for lessons learned and paves the way for future education and development for student affairs professionals who work with students in a variety of leadership development capacities. Rocco and Pelletier (2019) created such a conversation among five other student affairs professionals to explore leadership identity. They learned that the nature of leadership education is varied and that the participants work in curricular and co-curricular settings. Formal preparation programs help validate leadership education as a legitimate work within student affairs. However, there is a disconnect between student affairs professionals and how senior level university administrators when defining leadership, thus creating tension and frustration when student affairs professionals try to implement co-curricular programming (Rocco & Pelletier, 2019).

Difference of opinion in definition and practice of leadership education also exists between those who manage and those who teach pre-professionals. Dunn et al. (2019) expressed concern about the discrepancies they discovered in leadership educator identity definitions and practice among student affairs managers and preparatory faculty. Preparatory faculty believed that leadership educators were specialists within student affairs, where as student affairs managers believed that anyone actively including leadership development practices into their work were leadership educators. Among their recommendations to bridge this gap included the creation of intentional conversations between those who supervise new professionals and those who have taught pre-professionals, as well as discuss expectations with graduate students from both perspectives.

The research indicates an interest in leadership educator identity and exposes some discrepancies and obstacles that need to be discussed. This round table discussion will provide a professional setting for leadership educators to continue the conversations created through research to better understand the practice of leadership educator identity and practice specifically in student affairs environments.

Discussion Format

In this roundtable we will open each session with a brief overview of the relevant literature about how leadership educators develop their identity. Once this has been established by the facilitators, they will engage participants with a dialogue of inquiry based learning around the barriers participants have experienced in their development of leadership educator identity and their current understanding of that identity. Facilitators will take detailed notes during the discussion, and provide a half sheet form for participants to share written ideas with the facilitators related to their experiences.

Discussion Outline:
1. Discussion of how leaders and participants identify as leadership educators
2. Quick overview of the current literature
3. Use the following questions to guide conversation:
   a. How do we become leadership educators?
b. What are the challenges that we face uniquely as practitioners in leadership education?
   i. Are these challenges unique to us as individuals, or to us as student affairs leadership educators?

c. How can we create opportunities for others to persevere through these common challenges to identifying as student affairs leadership educators?

d. Change focus to positive outlook and opportunities for growth

e. What is our potential and our opportunity as student affairs leadership educators?

f. How do we begin the conversation of building a stronger leadership educator certification, credentials, guidelines, etc. within student affairs?

Future Implications

Our intention with this roundtable discussion is to gather experiences and perspectives of self identified leadership educators in student affairs and their obstacles/barriers to owning that identity. This information may be used in sparking future research as well as develop best practices to help others develop their identity as leadership educators within the field of student affairs. As we continue to grow in our understanding of how leadership educator identity is formed, and understand the hurdles professionals must overcome to achieve this identity, we can begin to structure intentional learning opportunities to advance the field of leadership education.

References


Co-creating Autonomous Learning Environments through Project-Based Education

Abstract

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to explore the idea of creating autonomous learning environments through the implementation of project-based leadership education. Many leadership programs offer courses in both theory and practice; however, project-based education primarily focuses on leadership practice. Students are evaluated based on what behaviors they demonstrate, and evaluation instruments are negotiated and co-created with students prior to engaging in the class. Guided questions will be provided to help participants explore the topic and think critically about the application of such an approach.

Introduction

One approach to helping students apply their leadership knowledge is through student-centered, project-based learning. Projects provide students with an avenue to apply the knowledge, skills, and abilities they learn in their leadership classes. While there are a variety of ways in which to approach project-based learning experiences, there are essential elements to the process, including: student and instructor support, student choice, and autonomy throughout the process (Kokotsaki, Menzies, & Wiggins, 2016). The objectives of this roundtable are to:

- provide insights into the process of project-based learning and the nature of autonomous learning environments,
- explore tools and techniques for engaging in project-based learning, and
- collaborate on ways to improve and enhance project-based learning.

Background

Student-centered learning, self-regulated learning, and autonomous learning. What do these learning approaches have in common? All approach learning from the student perspective, allowing students to assume an increased level of control of their own learning process, through the setting of their own goals and navigating their own path to achievement either individually or in a group setting (Lee & Hannafin, 2016; Hannafin, Hill, Land, & Lee, 2014; Stefanou, Stolk, Prince, Chen, & Lord, 2013; Vandiver & Walsh, 2010). To promote an autonomous learning environment in the leadership classroom, instructors can implement project-based learning, in which students work autonomously on a large-scale project for an extended amount of time (Lucas & Goodman, 2015). Instructors, then, assume the role of the facilitator, guiding students to connect their foundation of knowledge and skills to their project as it progresses (2015).

Among the literature, student-centered and project-based learning has been utilized in a variety of disciplines, including leadership education. Instructors have applied these methods when teaching concepts such as adaptive leadership (Haber-Curran & Tillapaugh, 2013, 2015), teamwork (Walters & Sirotiak, 2011), complex problem solving (English & Kitsantas, 2013),
research methods (Vandiver & Walsh, 2010), and organizational behaviors (Lucas & Goodman, 2015).

To assess the effectiveness of project-based learning, scholars have taken a variety of approaches. Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh (2015) utilized student reflection papers through which they discerned what students “were learning about themselves and leadership” (p. 71). Kokotsaki, Menzies, and Wiggins (2016) suggest facilitating peer review using guided questions and rubrics, and Andrade, Huff, and Brooke (2012) recommend incorporating self-assessments, rubrics, portfolios, and exhibitions to evaluate student-centered learning methods. Regardless of how one assesses student development from project-based learning, research has shown student-centered and project-based methods improve the student learning experience in multiple ways.

First, project-based learning helps students improve their acquisition of interdisciplinary knowledge (Lee, Blackwell, Drake, & Moran, 2014). Further, because project-based learning is a student-centered approach, it focuses on individual student needs and capacities, and students are generally more engaged in their learning and more motivated to excel as a result (2014).

Effective project-based and student-centered learning, however, is not achieved without proper support and motivation from quality facilitators (Hannafin, Hill, Land, & Lee, 2014; Kokotsaki, Menzies, & Wiggins, 2016). Grossman, Pupik Dean, Kavanagh, and Herrman (2019) posit project-based learning requires instructors to spend extended amounts of time providing feedback and guiding reflection activities, which allow students to improve continuously throughout the learning experience. Becoming more of a facilitator, however, is a role a traditional instructor may find difficult to assume; subsequently, this roundtable discussion seeks to discuss the challenges and opportunities of utilizing student-centered and project-based learning in the leadership classroom, in order to improve the facilitation of such methods.

**Means for Discussion/Interaction**

- What types of project-based learning do you implement in your leadership courses?
  - Individual vs. Group?
- How do you set the stage for the students in these classes?
- What is the best way to balance student autonomy and instructor facilitation?
- What challenges do you encounter when facilitating this type of learning?
  - How can we overcome these challenges?
- How do you evaluate, or assess, project-based learning in your courses?

**Foreseeable Implications**

This roundtable discussion will create an opportunity for leadership educators to learn about, share, and design pedagogical practices related to project-based learning. This discussion has implications for any educator interested in implementing, improving, or expanding their work with project-based learning. Participants interested in learning more about the pedagogy will
gain access to ideas and make connections to individuals with experience who they can use as a resource in experimenting with this approach. Those who have tried this approach in the past with mixed success would have an opportunity to see different perspectives and find ways to enhance future attempts. Even those participants who have a history of success with project-based learning would have access to new perspectives and opportunities to mentor others who might be interested in the process. By encouraging dialogue about project-based learning we will have the opportunity to strengthen efforts to improve teaching and learning as it relates to leadership education.
References


Graduate Student Leadership Development: What May Be Working?

Abstract
Today’s graduate education should provide students with technical specialization and professional skills to holistically prepare them as genuine leaders. Inclusion of professional development complements their technical specialty by providing opportunities to develop authentic leadership within their fields. The use of Authentic Leadership in graduate school has increased in popularity and has shown value in the workplace (Chao et al., 2018; O'Brien, 2016). One way to develop these skills is through an interdisciplinary, online leadership development course. This roundtable will facilitate a discussion of graduate student leadership development by sharing the results from a recent evaluation of an interdisciplinary graduate-level, online leadership program and guide a conversation about the future of best practices for leadership development in graduate school.

Introduction
Graduate school can be a challenging time of balancing learning, research, teaching, and preparing for the workforce. There is growing awareness that graduate schools generally focus on technical proficiencies and specializations, at times excluding the development of critical professional skills (Denecke, Feaster, & Stone, 2017). Professional skills such as leadership, effective communication, teamwork, and critical thinking are often assumed competencies and not fully developed in today’s graduate student (Barnett, 2005; Denecke, et al., 2017; Kovac & Sirkovic, 2016). Graduate schools play a significant role in supporting professional development for students (Deneck et al., 2017) and do not serve their students to the utmost capacity if they do not include meaningful training in transferable skills. Transferable skills can be developed at the graduate-level through intentional leadership programming that emphasizes authentic leadership.

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to have a conversation about the need for, methods of, and future best practices for leadership training for graduate students. The results of a study about an online leadership program for graduate students will be presented, followed by a discussion on strategies and practices for graduate student leadership training. This roundtable may be of particular interest to participants currently teaching or interested in teaching online graduate student leadership development courses or programs.

Background
Transferable professional skills such as leadership, effective communication, and teamwork can be developed at the graduate-level through intentional leadership programming that emphasizes authentic leadership. Authentic Leadership (AL) is a values-based leadership theory that promotes awareness within the leader of who they are and how they are perceived by others (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011) and has shown significant value in the workplace. Authentic leaders encourage integrity, practice self-awareness and transparency, promote trust among followers, and encourage positive self-development (Avolio & Walumbwa, 2014; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Therefore, the creation of AL development opportunities within graduate school could have significant benefits for students’ professional lives (Fallatah & Laschinger, 2016).
The use of AL in leadership development and graduate training is a growing trend with increasing popularity of graduate courses and accompanying AL research (Chao et al., 2018; O’Brien, 2016). Many graduate programs have developed leadership curricula including modules, classes, and required internships or residencies related to the development of AL (i.e., John Hopkins University; Xavier University; George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development).

Considering the efforts made to develop AL in graduate school, a graduate-level course was developed and offered to promote AL skills and prepare students for success within and beyond graduate school. This program is an interdisciplinary leadership development course offered online for graduate students from any program. This program is theoretically grounded in Acceptance and Commitment Training (ACT, Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson, 2012) and infused with evidence-based approaches such as social belonging and growth mindset (Yeager & Dweck, 2012; Yeager & Walton, 2011) to provide students with opportunities to acquire transferable skills essential for success in the work place. The primary objectives of this course include 1) exploring self-authoring an extraordinary career and embracing action steps toward achieving that vision; 2) acquiring strategies and approaches for navigating challenging conversations with courage; 3) building connections with peers, mentors and role models with demonstrated excellence in leadership and relationship building; and 4) developing effective life skills that expand effectiveness as a leader.

It is imperative that evidence-based programming be at the forefront of developing AL in graduate school, thus a measures-based evaluation was conducted in this course. The evaluation consisted of two part; 1) administration of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) before and upon completion of the course and 2) an artifact analysis of student reflections to provide further insight on AL constructs.

Conducted over five semesters and with a sample of 38 students representing thirty-three different disciplines, the results showed that upon completion of the course there was statistically significant change in students’ AL scores on overall AL, the self-awareness subscale and the transparency sub-scale (See Table below). Further examination of the self-awareness and transparency sub-scales through the article analysis provided insight on which course material and activities may have contributed to these changes.

The format and structure of the course may have also contributed to the significant changes and self-awareness and transparency. Authenticity requires heightened levels of self-awareness through ongoing self-reflection (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) and this course provided critical time to reflect through the asynchronous timing built within the online delivery. Transparency is then practiced through the presentation of their authentic selves to their peers which builds trust (Datta, 2015; Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Interdisciplinary online programs, such as this one, are essential for allowing diverse perspectives to be heard and to further genuine discussions and actions. The purposeful delivery of this course allowed for opportunities for transparent conversations. The online space also provided students with a peer community for discussion, a useful alternative to their lab or discipline groups.
Changes in Authentic Leadership higher-order and subscale scores from pre-test to post-test, averaged across graduate student cohorts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th></th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Effect size (d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authentic Leadership</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Awareness</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational Transparency</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced Processing</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalized Moral Perspective</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall Authentic Leadership is the average score across three subscales of the Authentic Leadership scale (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Means for Discussion/Primary Objectives

This roundtable discussion will provide participants an opportunity to learn about one graduate-level online leadership program, share about other graduate-level leadership training, and discuss the possible future directions of graduate-level leadership development. Specifically, the roundtable will:

1. Briefly describe one graduate-level online leadership development program and the corresponding evaluation data. (5 minutes)
2. Provide opportunity for discussion, guided by the following questions (10 minutes):
   a. What types of graduate-level leadership development are currently being used? Both in and outside of the leadership field?
   b. What is our experience with online leadership development programs specifically? What seems to be working in this arena? What is not working?
   c. How might we move towards best practices for graduate-level online leadership development?
   d. How is graduate-level leadership development currently being evaluated or measured?

Foreseeable Implications

Leadership is a critical transferable skill for graduate students to develop for success in the workplace; a skill that many students are lacking upon completion of their education (Denecke et al., 2017). Authentic leadership has shown promise in the workplace and with the increase in AL instruction within graduate programs (O’Brien, 2016), programs that are accessible to graduate students from all disciplines and any college, show promise in filling this gap in graduate student professional preparation. To expand the use of and effectiveness of online graduate-level leadership development programs, it is important that best practices be developed and shared within the leadership field.
References


Introduction to Leadership Concepts and Special Olympics Community Leadership Experience (CLE).

Introduction

The fundamental objective of this roundtable will be to afford participants an opportunity to learn about how to work with community and students through Community Leadership Experience (CLE). This was a project in an introductory leadership course that had 40 students and 2 co-instructors teaching concepts of leadership competencies, values, inclusivity and diversity. This roundtable will share ideas and strategies for collaborative efforts between university and community on ideas of inclusive leadership and engaged citizenship. We will also share the lessons we learned as instructors as well as some of the highlights from our students and the Special Olympics director and kids who were our partners in this case.

Background

During the fall of 2019, we connected with Special Olympics director to collaborate on a project that would create learning and fun for children participating in the local Special Olympics program alongside the leadership students. This community leadership experience (CLE) was a required assignment for the class and students received credit for participating as well as reflecting on their experience about their learning and leadership development. The students worked as a team and decided how to go about making things work and practice exercising leadership.

As instructors, we participated in the activities with our students and the Special Olympics children. The activities consisted of various games and sports related activities and helped build connections between everyone (instructors, students, and Special Olympic children, parents, and staff). We experienced excitement and fun throughout the weekends. The students had to organize themselves in groups and find their way to the school and later on reflect on the
experience through a critical reflection paper. Connecting their experience to concepts and ideas discussed in class was a focus of the reflections. The concepts exercised included leadership without a position, inclusive leadership, building connections with a diverse community, connecting with community, the Social Change Model of leadership, and various other leadership concepts.

One goal of this semester-long project was to build relationships between our students and the Special Olympics community. Relationships are core and central to Asset-based work with communities (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). Our class spent roughly six total hours in activities around this project. However, each student only spent roughly 2-3 hours connecting with the Special Olympic community. This was a limitation of project.

We approached this partnership from a collaborative perspective, which recognizes bringing change not for but with people. We were also attending to the idea of connecting with others which resonated with one of the co-instructor who is from South Africa. The concept of a connection to others in South Africa is similar to the concept of Ubuntu or Botho, loosely translated to humanity and the philosophy that I am because of you or the concept that our lives are intertwined (Komives & Wagner, 2016). This idea was relevant to the course and Special Olympics community learning experience. It connected to values, which are also an important component of the leadership course. As instructors, we wanted our students to know and learn that, regardless of people’s abilities, they deserve to appreciate and they deserve be treated equally with respect and love.

In this exercise we were introducing the students to being reflective and also as instructors to engage on reflexivity. The students had to write a reflection for credits reflecting on their actions and connecting it to concepts and ideas discussed in class. This was the practice of moving from theory to practice and then from practice back to theory. This is what is called scholarship of engagement which is about action research because it is applicable and can generate change to an extent (Schon, 1995). The concept which were introduced in class were in practice at the Special Olympics events and also the students were then able to reflect on the experience (Boyer, 1996). The community and university partnership was an embodiment of community-engaged scholarship, which involves community service learning such as the one we have carried out.
with the students and Special Olympics group to create awareness about inclusivity in society (Shultz & Kajner, 2013).

**How the discussion will unfold:**

We will share ideas with those who are new to community-engaged scholarship (CES) on how to organize and implement a project for service learning for a class they are teaching as well as share relevant examples beyond what we have done as instructors. We will also answer any questions from participants. For those who are new to the topic of CES, we will create a participant handout defining CES and offering several examples/types of CES projects. In addition, we will provide links to relevant websites, articles, and other developmental resources. Our conversation will largely be centered on what is 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 and CLE.

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 our current example, past 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

Historically, the community leadership experience has yielded to strong connections that lead to some of the students maintaining a connection to the Special Olympic community. The idea is to create conditions for relationships to develop and promote an asset-based approach in working with community. During this CLE, some connections were made between students and our community partners. The students and instructors practiced reflecting on their actions and making meaning of processes and activities. This practice is useful beyond the CLE and can be extended to life beyond school.

References


Kretzmann, J. P., & McKnight, J. L. (1993). Building communities from the inside out: A path toward finding and mobilizing a community’s assets. Chicago: ACTA Publications


Equine Experiential Education: Straight From the Horse’s Mouth

Abstract

Horses are authentic and congruent by instinct; what better co-facilitator could one ask for? In this presentation roundtable, participants will get a glimpse of what experiential leadership education looks like from the round-pen. Explore why horses, as co-facilitators of learning, provide an experiential learning experience with value and benefits unlike any other learning experience. With limitless options of applicable leadership theory, leadership educators are sure to find this up and coming field intriguing and innovative. Come hear straight from the horse’s mouth (sadly there will not be an actual horse present) about how you can incorporate this innovative method into your leadership activities. The facilitator is an Equine Experiential Education Certified Practitioner with more than 150 hours of training and more than 25 years of horse experience.

Introduction

The field of equine-assisted activities has progressed far beyond horsemanship and into the realm of human development through facilitated experiences with horses. Equine experiential education goes by many names including but not limited to: equine-assisted learning, equine-assisted activities, equine-guided education, and equine-assisted leadership training. Experiential learning, in itself, is not a new concept but when facilitators add a living, breathing, prey animal to the mix, it becomes a completely different learning experience. Participants of equine experiential education take part in an extremely unique and very powerful learning experience based on “learning by doing.” Participants are actively involved in the process and facilitators focus on the action when it comes to debriefing. Instead of getting wrapped up in themselves, participants are encouraged to think about “why” things happened the way they did and how that connects to their daily lives.

For this roundtable, learner objectives include: understanding the unique power horses bring to the experiential learning process, develop basic insight and awareness of horse behavior and how facilitators can incorporate that into the debriefing experience, and to learn the different ways educators can, safely, use this method in their programs.

Background

The Equine Experiential Education model was formed around Kolb’s theory of experiential learning (1984) and the Pfeiffer and Jones five stages of learning model (1985). Kolb defined experiential learning as “a process linking education, work, and personal development” (Smith & Rosser, 2007; Stedman, Rutherford, & Roberts, 2006). “Experiential learning offers the foundation for an approach to education and learning as a lifelong process that is soundly based in intellectual traditions of social psychology, philosophy, and cognitive psychology,” (Kolb, 1984, p. 20). When this theory is paired with the Pfeiffer and Jones model as a guide for reflection, facilitators can create a space for participants to experience, reflect, and integrate on
their time with the horse (Equine Experiential Education Association, 2013). Equine experiential education practitioners are trained to use the give question model for debriefing.

When paired with a leadership theory, the possibilities are endless. The leadership educator takes on the role of facilitator or coach and can craft a program for virtually any leadership theory of choice. The presenter’s theory of choice is mostly authentic leadership theory as told by Bill George but the special part of equine experiential education is that it is what you make it.

Means for Discussion

Using horses as co-facilitators is intriguing and innovative. Most of the magic happens when the facilitator is able to tie horse behavior to human behavior. Some background about horses is necessary here. The leader of a horse herd is called the alpha. He or she, which is normally the case with horses, is responsible for the safety and survival of the entire herd. Most horses do not want, and are ill-equipped, to be the alpha. (Grandin & Johnson, 2005) Horses have to earn this position and they require the same of the humans in their “herd”. This means that when participants are in the arena, if they are not showing strong leadership skills, the horses will either ignore them or try to be their alpha. It is with this knowledge, that facilitators can glean information from the horse regarding the participants and thus instill the leadership learning.

Horse behavior and its correlation to the human behavior in the arena is the main discussion point. Another discussion will be how to incorporate equine experiential education into new or existing programs. Equine experiential education should be tailored to reach the objectives of the program or workshop. The practitioner chooses activities intentionally to convey the learning objectives for the group. With this being said, the horses will inform the practitioner to what the underlying needs of the group truly are. As with any experiential learning, the participants are going to experience the work in a unique way to them, the horses help accentuate that by the way in which they “participate” in the activities. The debriefing portion of the workshop is easily the most important part of equine-assisted leadership training. Being able to tie what the horse and participant experienced back to the objectives for the day are vital. Instilling the idea of the horse as a metaphor for something in the participant’s life is the primary objective and allows the experience to mean something different for each individual.

Foreseeable Implications

The goal of this roundtable is to explain the workings behind incorporating horses into leadership programs. It is easy to get bogged down in explaining away the experience when trying to explain equine-assisted anything and how it “works.” The truth is, the participants’ relationship and experience with the horse combined with the proper debriefing of the activities, is where the learning occurs. Just like with any other experiential methodology or adventure-type leadership training, the outcomes cannot be predetermined. The participants’ experience is what needs to be considered from beginning to end and an effective practitioner should be able to draw the link between the experience and the learning outcomes.

In short, equine experiential education can be a beneficial modality for leadership educators looking for new ways to approach leadership development. With the correct training, planning,
and follow-through, participants can gain an amazing amount of leadership skills while also having fun with horses!
References


Meet Them Where They Are: Adapting Face-to-Face Teaching Strategies for Online Graduate Learners

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Candace Bloomquist
James Martin
Debra Ford

Creighton University

Abstract
This roundtable discussion session is designed for those interested in discussing effective and innovative teaching strategies in online, graduate-level leadership courses. Between 2016 and 2019 demand for doctoral-level leadership professionals in the United States increased by over 100% (Murdock & Conway, 2019) and the number of graduate online leadership programs has subsequently increased to meet this need. Educating online, lifelong learners requires a different approach than the traditional face-to-face classroom environment. Although there has been considerable research and writing about best practices in online teaching and learning, fewer studies about how specific instructional strategies encourage graduate, online student achievement have been published. This conversation provides an opportunity to discuss how effective instructional strategies common in face-to-face graduate settings might translate to the online environment.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Stoic Lessons on Leadership

Introduction

We live in a volatile and uncertain world burdened with complex, adaptive and wicked problems with no easy solutions (Kisinger & Walch, 2012; Satterwhite, McIntyre Miller & Sheridan, 2015). A common response to these complex problems has been to look to the past for wisdom and direction on how to live, often turning to lessons from religious, political, or philosophical figures. Some of these lessons have laid the basic framework for our understanding of leadership. However, as these historic lessons are examined for their inherent wisdom, there is a risk of taking the ideas out of context and misrepresenting the intended meaning. Stoicism, the ancient Hellenistic school of philosophy that guides a way of life, may have been one of those lessons that lost its intended meaning throughout the years.

Stoicism, which is often referenced in articles addressing emotional intelligence, is defined as expressing no emotion, the act of being emotionless (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Furnham (2003) claims it is the suppression of both positive and negative emotions. And at the heart of modern Stoicism is the denial and suppression of emotion (Furnham, 1992). A brief review of recent literature reveals generalizations made about the philosophy, claiming that the philosophy of stoicism endorses the notion that emotions are too irrational and unpredictable to be used for rational thought (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). The Oxford Dictionary cites, “austerity, repression of feeling and fortitude” (Sellars, 2014, p. 1). In addition to this generalization, the practice of stoicism can be seen as an individual gaining the ability to endure pain without complaint (Grewal & Salovey, 2005, Gaitniece-Putane, A., 2006). This numbing of emotion in response to adversity is a common theme and misinterpretation of the intention of the philosophy over the past two centuries. This has paved the way for current scholars to continue this misrepresentation of stoicism into current research and writing. For example, Wagstaff and Rowledge (1995, p. 29) defined Stoicism as “emotional non-involvement and lack of emotional expressivity,” alongside Furnham (1992) who claims it to be the denial and rejection of emotion; Gaitniece-Putane (2006) herself cites these authors while simultaneously stating the minimal examination of the philosophy.

While difficulty surfaces due to the lack of original work remaining from the first three hundred years of Stoicism, there is much to be gained from a philosophy that provided comfort to ancient Romans at a time when so much was going wrong (Sandbach, 1989). This paper reexamines the ancient philosophy of Stoicism and provides insight into the lessons that lie within the original practice that offer wisdom to address the complex problems leaders face every day.

Review of Literature

Stoicism Background

Much like the original philosophies that focused on providing a foundation for the best possible human life, Stoicism was born of the Hellenistic period that gave way to philosophical sects that an individual could accept as a whole and were designed to explain the world in its totality (Aurelius, 2002). Stoicism offers a comprehensive outlook on the world in the pursuit of long-lasting happiness and serenity. Stoicism’s unique appeal is its practicality; beyond academic
or technical application it offers a detailed specification of an approach to life with respect to nature and human beings (Long, 2002). A re-examination of the ancient philosophy has the potential to guide leadership behavior today and into the future.

Throughout history, Stoicism offered a guide to living life, a practice grounded in theory rather than simply a theory, allowing students of the philosophy to adapt the practice and apply it to their own life (Long, 2002). The process of examining classical Stoicism to expound upon this mindset is not without its challenges given it originated in 300BC. The practical approach of the philosophy meant those who practiced it were often more concerned with living rather than teaching. One of the more influential Roman Stoics, Epictetus himself did not participate in any writing of his teachings. His teachings are only preserved today thanks to Arrian, his dedicated student who was committed to documenting his master’s work (Long, 2002).

Compounding this problem is the broad scope of interpretations and practices that have been labeled as Stoicism over time. Many of which may not be entirely in line with the original philosophy. The 500 years that followed those first days in Athens when Zeno brought Stoicism to life on the steps of the Stoa, the philosophy was carried throughout Greece and Rome on the lips of practitioners, taking on new identities according to its messenger (Sellars, 2014). Any recording of stoic doctrine and practice during these times was therefore a portrayal of that current teacher’s thoughts and viewpoints. Stoicism was shared through the lens of the speaker. Thus, a chronological attempt to conceptualize the development of Stoicism will lead a researcher astray. In the early years of Stoicism more than one practitioner could be teaching their own interpretation of the philosophy at any given time. It wasn’t until enough texts had been recorded and distributed that a truly cohesive perspective of Stoicism was formed. Still today the ancient philosophy is open to interpretations because of the origination methodology. No one early practitioner of Stoicism was more stoic than another, therefore all ideologies must be considered when forming a perspective today. Starting in 128 BC as Panaetius, the head of the Stoa at the time, traveled to Greece delivering lectures, followed by Posidonius, a well-known Stoic, and later Cicero, a Roman statesman who in 78 BC attended Posidonius’ lectures in Rhodes, Greece (Sellars, 2014). In combination with lack of texts, this brief glimpse into simultaneous teachings within 100 years of history shows the complexity faced by those who chose to study the philosophy.

Phases of Stoicism

Alternative to a chronological study explaining the philosophy, scholars have developed Early Stoicism, Middle Stoicism and Late Stoicism to distinguish between the different philosophical thoughts on the subject (Long, 2002). Since the individuals most influential in developing the underpinnings of Stoicism did so at different time periods, with different views, this categorization is critical to fully comprehend the philosophy. Early Stoicism is defined by its hard-edged doctrine and debate focused primarily on logic. Chrysippus and Zeno were the only two principle representatives building the doctrine at that time due to the philosophy’s infancy and geographical restriction. No persons had learnt and traveled to share the philosophy in this phase. Zeno, was a young man who was influenced by the readings of Socrates and encouraged to study under Crate the Cynic (Sandbach, 1989, p. 20). Opting out of the traditional school format, Zeno found a place beneath the painted columns in central Athens, also known as the Stoa, or porch, and there share his views with anyone who would listen. Those who listen to the teaching of Zeno were first called “Zenonians” and later became the “Stoics” (Sandbach, 1989,
Sellars, 2014). Zeno was greatly influenced by those years studying with Crate and other Cynics who were famous for living “life in accordance with nature” and disregard to cultural conventions, rules or regulations (Sellars, 2014, p. 4). This influence transpired as a key characteristic of the Stoics being that all objects, including people, are connected, observable, and a part of nature, existing as parts of one bigger, gigantic organism (Aurelius, 2002, Long, 2002).

The second influential philosopher of Early Stoicism was Chrysippus. It was said that “if there had been no Chrysippus, there would have been no Stoa” (Sandbach, 1989, p. 15). Chrysippus followed the death of Zeno and was one of the more prolific authors who laid the foundation for systematic Stoicism by the time of his own death in 207 BC. While he reformulated some of Zeno’s doctrines, many of his works were largely lost and the only surviving fragments are quoted by later authors and second-hand accounts, or in texts by Plutarch and Galen who criticize his work (Aurelius, 2002; Sellars 2014). Chrysippus is attributed with the success of Stoicism defending attacks from academic philosophers and collecting the ideas of his predecessors. Chrysippus is credited with providing a philosophical system as the basis for Stoic orthodoxy, which includes dividing Stoic doctrine into three categories: logic, physics, and ethics (Sellars, 2014). These three categories were concerned with “the nature of knowledge, the structure of the physical world and the role of human beings in that world” (Aurelius, 2002, p. 15). Early Stoics teachings were considered Orthodox, speculative and theoretical (Long, 2002). This is in contrast to the later forms of Stoicism which become much narrower in focus, particularly on logic and ethics (Aurelius, 2002).

The Middle Stoics begin to draw on philosophies outside of Stoicism, showing “no reluctance to borrow aphorisms, anecdotes, and argumentative strategies from non-Stoic sources” (Aurelius, 2002, p. 16), including Plato’s dialogue the Timaeus (Baltzly, 2019; Sellars, 2012). The philosophy started to cross borders, traversing to Ancient Rome on the mouths of Panaetius and Posidonius who were heads of the Stoa at that time. They expanded much of the doctrine through their teachings to students who would later be influential in Late Stoicism. Panaetius was a practical philosopher pushing Stoicism to become a guide for the social interactions of daily life and available to an average person on the street (Devine, 1970, Sellars, 2012). He defined justice as the “tendency to strengthen the social bond” (p. 330) and judged governments on their form of justice, stressing the importance of rules that focus on the affection and attachment of people as a means to combat tyranny (Devine, 1970). The ultimate form of government was a mixed and balanced government just like that of the Roman Republic. Roman influence is present with Posidonius as well, who believes that the best member of the group was the leader, a role reserved for the most intelligent (Sandbach, 1989). Posidonius also believed that misery comes from irrational thought and that men should live in contemplation of the truth, co-operating with nature as opposed to being led by the psyche (Sandbach, 1989).

Late Stoicism is characterized by the increase in popularity and practice within the Roman Empire emphasized practicality versus speculation and theory. This approach provided the most relevant lens for modern day leaders due to the direct behavioral application. While varied in their philosophy the works of later Stoics primarily stem from Rome, are the best documented, and display an absence of significant innovation (Sandbach, 1989; Long, 2002, Sellars, 2012). Of the three phases Late Stoicism had the smallest degree of departure from the original teachings, potentially from the increase in well-documented doctrines. Thought leaders of this period were able to reflect upon these texts, fact-checking their own interpretations. The names most familiar from this time period are Seneca the Younger, a wealthy Roman senator,
Epicurus, a freed slave and student of Seneca, and Marcus Aurelius the benevolent statesman, Roman Emperor and author of *Meditations*, one of the most widely studied works of Stoicism (Sandbach, 1989; Sellars, 2012). The focus of Late Stoicism lessened the emphasis on logic and physics and was more concerned with practical ethics. “The Stoicism we know best from the Roman period was preserved precisely because it was perceived to have great educational and ethical value” (Long, 2002 p. 15). Although, many other Stoics were still writing at the time, they were doing so in a more detached and scholarly vein (Long, 2002).

**Stoic Doctrines**

For Stoic expert John Sellars (2006), “Stoic philosophy is not merely a series of philosophical claims about the nature of the world or what we can know or what is right or wrong; it is above all an attitude or way of life” (p. 2). This perspective is not unlike other philosophies that are concerned with the best possible human life but is unique due to the emphasis on the nature of the world and all things. Stoics believe that all living beings are interconnected, and a part of a cosmic order implemented by Zeus, God, reason, mind or fate. The name is not as important as the idea that all beings are part of a larger, divine plan which explain the nature of things that is nature itself, and everything that happens is ultimately an expression of that plan (Long, 2002). This order supports that the world is organized and directed by a pervading force which Stoics named *logos* and manifests itself within individuals as the faculty of reason as well as the organization of the universe and is synonymous with nature (Aurelius, 2002). Associating it with the English translation is questionable; Logos, the Stoics believe, exists in all things and as a process is in part responsible for the creation of earth, originating from God and permeating all things throughout growth and change (Horowitz, 1974). Stoicism acts upon this notion by expressing that man is to act in accordance with nature, playing their individual role and understanding one’s place within the greater system.

Immediate criticism comes from believers of free-will. As individuals, we are equipped with minds that grasp the dual aspect of things being both pre-determined and open to influence, therefore we have reason not to only accept the inevitable but choose to play our role and participate in the greater plan. Moments are opportunities for individuals to discover our role and play our part. Negative circumstances or misfortunes should be welcomed as chances to prove our humanity and participation in the logos (Long, 2002). The Stoics do not argue that one should simply give up if what will be will be, but encourages one to discover where they fit within the cosmic order and to work together to build a community of persons who cooperate and respect one another “as rational participants in the scheme of things” (Long, 2002, p.16). By grasping one’s place within the universe, the mind is opened to moments of reflection and creates confident, conscious contributors to every situation encountered. This self-awareness creates clarity on life events and the making of evaluations on those which we can and cannot control. It provides the resolve to make peace with that which is not in our control knowing that it is a part of the logos.

Stoics claimed that virtue alone is sufficient for happiness and that external goods and circumstances are irrelevant. Stoicism “throughout its history was a systematic plan of life that would, ideally, assure purposefulness, serenity, dignity, and social utility at every waking moment, irrespective of external circumstances” (Long, 2002, p. 3). The Stoics' rationale for this bold project was founded on the understanding of the physical reality of nature in general. Human beings are born of nature alongside all other living creatures yet hold a dignified status as
rational beings. Born as natural creatures, there is an innate capacity for goodness. Humans live in the pursuit of a good life and rationally perceive the irrelevance of external goods and circumstances not born of nature in that pursuit (Long, 2002, Sandbach, 1989). They argued that our negative emotions are merely the product of mistaken judgements and can be eradicated by practiced response management. The key was reminding oneself that the desire for things out of our control are not in-sync with the plan (Gass, 2000, Sellars, 2012). Epictetus stressed that humans are in control of their own actions including opinions, desires, and aversions and by continually monitoring what is and is not up to us, is the key to happiness (Sellars, 2012).

Distractions about what happens to man in the afterlife and concerns with death are discouraged since Stoicism denies “the Platonic doctrine of the immortality of the soul” (Sellars, 2012, p. 9). Eliminating any concerns about what the fate of one may be and when allows individuals to be focused on the current day, including their own actions and character.

A practical guide to carry out the aforementioned philosophy in pursuit of a happy life was best captured by Epictetus. It includes following the three Stoic disciplines, 1) Discipline of desire, 2) Discipline of action, and 3) Discipline of assent (Sesson, 2006). These disciplines are practices connected to the impressions of the human mind created by any of the six senses, generating a perception (Aurelius, 2002, Sesson, 2006). An impression is the effect an occurrence or moment has on the human brain - they are immediate and a direct result of an experience. The importance of the impression relies on the individual’s perception and acts as a moment of choice an individual has to either accept or reject the impression as to be true. The following act is determining for oneself if that experience was good or bad. An impression moment occurs between the experience and responsive action taken by the individual, dependent upon perception and morality. These two decision points are key in acting in accordance with the Stoic way, first interpreting the experience and then evaluating it to be good or bad in order to take a supportive or corrective action (Sesson, 2006).

These guiding principles are often cited in modern day works as a means to live the Stoic way – having a proper perspective of self in relation to the world and understanding what you can and cannot control (Holiday 2016, Pigliucci & Lopez, 2019). In modern day texts the discipline of desire and assent have periodically been replaced respectively with perception and will. For the purpose of this project the former titles will be referenced as they are the original descriptors and most often cited in academic texts (Holiday 2016, Pigliucci & Lopez, 2019, Aurelius, 2002, Sesson, 2006). The three disciplines draw attention to the concept of impressions and provide a succinct approach for leaders to apply the ancient philosophical doctrines to everyday life. According to the Stoics, anyone is capable of practicing these exercises since we are in control of our own thoughts (Sesson, 2006).

The discipline of desire addresses monitoring that which is desired by an individual so the appropriate course of action can be determined. Our passions, when well exercised, have wisdom; they guide our thinking, our values, our survival. But they can easily go awry and do so all too often. As Aristotle saw, the problem is not with emotionality, but with the appropriateness of emotion and its expression (Goleman, 2006). Humans are born of nature with all other living beings and share survival as our primary concern. What differentiates us from other creatures is our rational minds and cognitive abilities. The use of our rational thought allows us to make decisions. Applying the discipline of desire, we can make the appropriate choice of action in response to things that are in our control, or not in our control. The Stoics claim it is unwise to act on that which is out of your control and to stay focused on one’s own actions and character. It is key to see things as they are so that judgements about goals and
expenditure of resources can properly be made (Aurelius, 2002, Pigliucci & Lopez, 2019). Epictetus refers to desires as passion and things capable of causing “sorrow, lamentation and envy” rendering us “envious and jealous, and thus incapable of listening to reason” (Sesson, 2006, p. 15). If man allows his desires to attach to that which is out of our control, he is no longer living in accordance with nature and making waste of his time in pursuit of those things. The negative emotions experienced are products of being denied one’s desires which they have no control over and are useless to individuals who are striving for excellence, happiness and a good life. The solution is not to forego desires, but to practice awareness of those things that which we rely upon to achieve our desires, specifically ones that are in or out of our control. To desire something that is out of our power is to place our fate and emotional state at the hands of others. Instead, according to Stoicism, the focus should be on that which we can control, our own dispositions and moral character (Sesson, 2006).

As interconnected beings who play an active role in nature, the discipline of action calls attention to what we do in order to successfully fulfill those roles. This action is the participation in the logos while striving for excellence, and living virtuously (Aurelius, 2002, Sesson, 2006). The only thing that can be controlled are our own actions, so it is key to stay focused on those actions themselves. For example, goal setting is an acceptable and intentional practice if done with the acceptance and understanding that achievement of said goal is open to outside influences, beyond our control. Motivation for active participation in life is inspired by a social influence. “Men are naturally social human beings; they love one another and endure one another” (Sandbach, 1989, Sesson, 2006). In addition to the jointly held roles as social beings living in accordance with nature, man is meant to live with moral character and concern for others. “Our nature is fundamentally unselfish” (Aurelius, 2002, p. 28). In the instance where man is wronged by another, the associated emotion may be negative, but Stoic thought reminds us to focus on that which is in our control. Under these circumstances only our own actions are under our control therefore man is empowered to move past the instance continuing to concentrate on his own behaviors and moral character.

Finally, the discipline of assent comes from the Greek verb meaning to approve, agree, or go along. As we assent to our impressions, we are committing to take a moment to examine the impression and ask ourselves “is this what it really is” and “what does it have to do with me” (Sesson, 2006). In Epictetus’ Discourses, he states “Just as Socrates used to say that we are not to lead an unexamined life, so neither are we to accept an unexamined impression, but to say, ‘Stop, let me see what you are, and where you come from’” (Sesson, 2006, p. 18). This moment of evaluation frees us from deception. With respect to the first two disciplines, the first being our inability to see things as they are and the second by taking an inappropriate action, adding the third discipline prevents us from making rash judgements. By properly evaluating experiences with moral perspective, those things that which we can control, we can act upon through the discipline of action, while those that we cannot, we assent to by realizing they have no ability to harm us and are what they are (Aurelius, 2002).

Significance of Stoicism in Leadership Development & Education

An in-depth analysis of the philosophy is essential in building the foundation that presents Stoicism for a practical approach for today’s leaders. By examining the original doctrines leadership scholars learn of the philosophy’s expansiveness beyond the typical
repression of emotion it’s known for today. An appropriate first step is to address the current emotionally repressive association of Stoicism within leadership; however, the practicality of looking to a philosophy for wisdom must be explained.

In the same way that Cronin (1995) states so much of leadership is intangible and impossible to define all the parts, Stoicism is also a complex concept. The philosophy serves as a way of life and composed of various mindsets that manifest themselves in a variety of ways dependent upon current circumstance. The principles are used to guide one’s behavior in response to any experience. Because of the vast potential experiences encountered by individuals within given environments it is relatively impossible to exclusively prescribe set responses to virtually unknown instances. What can be achieved are teaching perspectives and approaches which can be used to guide responses to individual circumstances. In the same way that leadership is “highly situational and contextual” (p. 30) so too is Stoicism meaning one has to adopt the approach to life in order to properly execute its doctrines (Cronin, 1995). Therefore, applying Stoic doctrine to the field of leadership is beneficial when done in part rather than as an entire mentality under which all actions and decisions should be made. Doing so allows leadership educators to draw from the philosophy particular insight on specific leadership characteristics such as emotional intelligence and followership. It is important to recognize that while adopting Stoic doctrines in one’s leadership style is an independent practice, it does affect external environments and others. What follows this section is an examination of Stoicism’s possible impacts on others and the environment in addition to the self.

Stoicism in Leadership Philosophy

As a guiding principle, Stoicism supports the ancient leadership doctrines put forth by Lao-tzu, Mohandas Gandhi, and Plato who promotes the Philosopher King, and all of whom were tasked with advising great leaders of their time and continue to influence leadership scholars today (Wren, 1995). Tao Te Ching by Lao-tzu from six-century BC implores political leaders to be unbiased, clear, and down-to-earth by remaining “open and receptive, no matter what issues arise” (p. 70), which is similar to the Stoic perspective of seeing things for what they are and practicing assent before responding to experiences (Lao-tzu, 1995, Sesson, 2006). Taking a moment to consider one’s impressions and avoid being carried away by misinterpretations or unconfounded perspectives, leaders can eliminate the possibility of taking things personally, reducing any prejudice and practicing humility when addressing whatever issue comes their way (Sesson, 2006). This control over one’s mind as a beneficial leadership quality is supported by Ghandi (1995) who claims that “control over the mind is along necessary and when it is attained, man is free like the king of the forest and his very glance withers the enemy” (p. 73).

Leaders who practice a philosophy display signs of appreciation for knowledge and equal love amongst all beings are the best form of leaders (Plato, 1995). There is much to be learned from moments of pause and methods of inquiry; Greenleaf (1995) shares that “it is seekers, then, who make prophets” (p. 19). Adopting a philosophical doctrine creates a well-rounded leader necessary for a peaceful world. “Until philosophers are kings, or the kings and princes of this world have the spirit and power of philosophy, and political greatness and wisdom meet in one… cities will never have rest from their evils” (Plato, 1995, p. 63). Therefore, the importance of well-proportioned and gracious minds that move toward the true being of everything can be supported by Stoicism, which asks individuals to act in accordance with nature, playing their particular role.
Accessibility of Stoicism and Leadership

It can be argued that leadership and Stoicism are both “available to the average person on the street” (Sellars, 2012, p. 9). Kouzes and Posner (2006) have determined leadership to be an observable, learnable set of practices and those with the desire and persistence to lead can substantially improve their abilities to do so. Leadership theories like citizen leadership and servant leadership align particularly well with the Stoic Panaetius as he shifted the focus of Stoicism to a wider audience (Carson, 1995). By practicing Stoic doctrines, the average person can increase their skills within a citizen leadership role and play a part in responding to the leadership crisis of today (Couto, 1995, Greenleaf, 1995, Mabey, 1995).

Specifically, the Stoic disciplines reminds each of us of the role we play and enhances the ability to “remember who we are, and by what name we are called, and must try to direct our acts [kathêkonta] to fit each situation and its possibilities” (Sesson, 2006, p. 17). By adopting Stoic perspectives, individuals have a basis for understanding the role they play and how to respond to adverse situations, which they may otherwise lack the skills to navigate. The idea of being a part of nature, a piece of the process of logos and actively participating in a role for the good of others provides a source of strength, fortitude, and resilience which we can see in exemplary leaders like Dr. Martin Luther King (Aurelius, 2002, Sandbach, 1989, Carson 1995). While he was not a Stoic, Dr. King was a man who despite his own self-doubts, and awareness of his personal limitations and weaknesses, “was able to carry on only after acquiring an enduring understanding of his dependence on a personal God who promised never to leave him alone (Carson, 1995, p. 320). This indestructible and infinite power source is similar to Stoicism and available to anyone who chooses to access it.

Emotional Intelligence

Great leadership works through emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002). Considering suppressing emotion is Stoicism’s current standing in leadership doctrine, it seems fitting to address this distinction head on. First it is valuable to remind ourselves the value emotional intelligence holds for leadership. Much like Stoicism is accessible to all, emotional intelligence is also virtually all learned (O’Neil, 2006). Kramer, Page, and Klemic (2019) remind us that even today our leaders need the ability to apply emotional intelligence in a variety of situations (individual, dyad, team, etc.), and in an ever-widening array of cultural and environmental settings. Goleman (2006) determined both academic ability and social and emotional skills are critical for professional success.

With emotional intelligence securely established as a desired characteristic of leaders, the next step follows how can we teach this trait. In a 2006 interview with John O’Neil, Daniel Goleman urged education to step up and teach students how to handle anger, manage conflict and develop empathy. In his own text 10 years after the original publication date, Goleman (2006) directly asks the question to his readers of Emotional Intelligence how we can bring awareness into our emotions. The above explanation of Stoic doctrines provides an approach to this challenge as explained by the use of impressions, self-awareness, and the discipline of assent. Within the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) we know that Emotional Intelligence is the capacity for: recognizing our own feelings and those of others, motivating ourselves, and managing emotions effectively in ourselves and others (Boyatzis & Goleman,
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2007). The discipline of desire directly addresses a mentality to recognize one’s own emotions. Secondly, self-motivation is a product of one’s interconnectedness of all things and our own desire for self-preservation from our primitive behavior as a member of nature (Sellars, 2006, Sesson, 2006). Finally, managing emotions effectively is best explained through the discipline of assent when a decision is made upon agreeing with one’s interpretations of their emotions.

Followership

Stoic behaviors encourage resilience, creativity and trust by demonstrating self-awareness, humility and focus. Research has shown that self-knowledge and self-consistency have a positive impact on followers’ satisfaction with leaders, organizational commitment, and perceived team effectiveness (Peus et al., 2012; Leroy et al., 2015). We know that “followers must be earned” (Gardner, 1995, p. 186) and a “loyal constituency is won when people consciously or unconsciously judge the leader to be capable of solving problem and meeting their needs” (Gardner, 1995, p. 188). While the purpose of Stoicism is not to gain followers but to live a good life with good character, “men are naturally social human beings; they love one another and endure one another” (Sandbach, 1989, p. 168). Therefore, a natural response to the demonstration of Stoic behaviors could draw followers who may then begin to implement some on their own – finding more opportunities for creativity, teamwork, and limiting their distractions in unimportant tasks or issues they see they cannot change. This ability to see both the forest and the trees is a sign of effective followers (Kelley, 1988). As a result of this realization of the self in the greater context of all things, we also see followers taking on leadership behaviors such as decision making and productivity, embodying alternative roles as Rost suggests is possible (1995, pg. 189).

Leadership Education Impact

The Inter-association of Leadership Education Collaborative (ILEC) challenges leadership educators to reconsider the thinking, attitudes, and behaviors of our field with a disciplinary revolution (Association of Leadership Educators, 2016). As members of the ILEC, the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) has the potential to explore interdisciplinary work within the ancient body of philosophy that is Stoicism. Through the initial examination of Stoicism connections to current leadership areas such as emotional intelligence, followership, risk-taking, and critical thinking and decision-making skills are suggested. Given the Association of Leadership Educators mission is to “strengthen and sustain the expertise of professional leadership educators”, a continued examination of the philosophy is valuable in offering the field a fresh body of content and inspiration (2019). By starting a discussion to revisit the current opinion within leadership that being “stoic” means emotionlessness (Vorster, 2017), leadership education not only opens itself to a number of new research inquiries, it expresses the community’s willingness to revisit designations of old with a new perspective.

Teaching leadership requires making a link between theory and practice (Association of Leadership Educators, 2019). Stoicism was founded as an approach to life and has been used by many individuals – from Roman Emperor Marcus Aurelius to Silicon Valley tech giants - as a guide for behaviors and actions in turbulent times (Irvine, 2019). Stoic doctrines offer leadership educators a resource to explain leadership behaviors and a potential guide to the process of
leadership. The philosophy serves to compliment current research, offering an additional and diverse inquiry for leadership practice over thousands of years. As leadership educators who are committed to collaboration, diversity, and integration, the ancient philosophy poses a strong addition to current research.
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How (in)visible are queer youth in leadership?

Abstract

Youth today will be leaders of tomorrow which means that leadership training is necessary to develop positive individuals (Conner & Strobel, 2007). Queer theorists posit that there needs to be open and meaningful conversations surrounding invisibility of LGBTQ youth in all settings. However, this invisibility must absolutely be addressed in leadership settings with the aim of finding resolutions for non-inclusivity. Participants will explore connections between the critical lens of queer theory and youth leadership programs. The hope is to identify factors contributing to queer visibility, or lack thereof, in youth leadership programs. Discussion questions will guide how programming can advance queer youth leadership opportunities.

Introduction

The perception that youth today will be the leaders of tomorrow gives youth professionals evidence that prioritizing youth leadership training is necessary to provide for the future of leadership (Conner & Strobel, 2007). Youth participate in various extracurricular activities and leadership opportunities through local organizations, recreational programs, and school-related clubs or sports (Brennan et al., 2007). Youth development professionals struggle to reduce challenges of youth engagement when fostering leadership skill development (Kress, 2006). Youth become overwhelmed when challenges place more responsibility on their own leadership path.

The psychosocial impacts of social minoritization and exclusion of “lesbian,” “gay,” “bisexual,” “trans” (including transgender, gender queer, and other gender non-conforming people) and “queer” (LGBTQ) youth are well documented (Asakura, 2017). Over the last decade, research in resilience shows progress in LGBTQ youth experiences. Sexual and gender minority youth and allies acknowledge their own self-examination of being “out” or being “known,” who they can be themselves with, and factors maintaining their own versions of privacy (Mayo, 2017). There is a need to have open and meaningful conversations surrounding the visibility of LGBTQ youth leadership. Resolution to queer invisibility in leadership is necessary to demonstrate that there is a place for queer youth to contribute in leadership roles.

Background

In order for youth to benefit from youth leadership programs, they must be mentally engaged in its activities and interactions (Dawes & Larson, 2011). Individual identity development correlates with functional objectives in skill building, managing demanding life experiences, and
self-understanding (Parkhill, Deans, & Chapin, 2018). Research validates youth engagement in community leadership programs through developmental leadership skills and youth’s well-being.

Difficulties in youth sexual and gender identification persists within queer identities (Mayo, 2017). Mayo (2017) shared that foundational research examines identity norms and extends conversations that guide queer youth in arranging their own positions and needs as they move into social groups, structured spaces, and diverse spaces of existence. In Renn’s (2007) work, she questioned LGBT identity, leadership identity, and the LGBT student leaders’ individual identity correlation. Researchers examined these as separate but related identities (Renn & Ozaki, 2005) in other identity-based settings and the melding of identities into one, “gay leader” (Renn, 2007). Renn’s work focused on understanding "gay leader" as a self-concept being useful in designing leadership education programs for LGBT leaders.

Queer theory is viewed as an anti-normative approach (Mayo, 2017) that explores the transformation of social norms where sex and gender hold higher power (Sullivan, 2003) and accepts fluidity and binary analysis as a collective and extreme opportunity (Callis, 2009). It challenges heteronormativity and advocates denaturalization of gender interactions with the perception of sex, gender, sexuality, and sociality (Mikdashi & Puar, 2016). Scholars argue that queer theory pushes interpretations, limits, and normalcy. By destabilizing and challenging sexual orientation and gender identity-related interactions, it provides contextual differences to shape new iterations of non-normative identities (Mayo, 2017). Understanding the relational meanings of subjectivity complicates how people think and how they represent their variations of identification and association.

The difficulties surrounding self-representation, community building, leadership, and advocacy are essential undertakings for LGBTQIA youth spaces (Mayo, 2017). Recently, youth have been fashioning their own spaces of inquiry by asking questions in live and online spaces about negotiating non-binary gender, pansexual desires, and other queer topics. Queer theories and youth frustrations propose a critical lens by which researchers examine categorial limitations of subjectivity and the critical play in power to make sense of identity categories.

**Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation**

The aim for this roundtable is to open discussion about the visibility or invisibility of queer youth in leadership. Because there is limited research on the topic of queer youth leadership, the group will be focus on the following questions for discussion.

**Questions for Discussion**

1. What ways can youth leadership programs examine factors of visibility for queer identities?
2. How do youth leadership programs provide unbiased inclusivity for all LGBTQ identities?
3. How can queer visibility ignite a paradigm shift in how youth leadership programs operate in today’s society?
4. What crucial conversations and actions need to take place for more queer visibility in youth leadership?

**Foreseeable Implications**

Through this discussion, the hope is to gain insight on the topic of visibility in queer youth leadership development programs. As a group, participants will formulate strategies to break down challenges in youth leadership and queer identity visibility. While the focus will be on the visibility of LGBTQ identities, the strategies generated could be broadly applied to more defined identities across educational contexts for further examination.

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Debrief and Leadership Education: Tuning into Suggested Practices

Abstract

Debrief as a pedagogical strategy significantly impacts students’ reflection, meaning-making, and ability to draw connections; yet, it is often overlooked. During this Roundtable, three leadership educators in higher education, two who are faculty members and an administrator who develops student leadership training for a large academic community, will share best practices from the literature on implementing effective debrief in curricular and co-curricular leadership education setting, as well as their own experiences. The discussion will elicit innovative practices and techniques for using debrief in leadership education.

Introduction

Debrief as a pedagogical strategy encourages learners to process and discuss their reactions to a classroom activity (Dreifuerst, 2009). Debrief is often overlooked (Crookall, 2010) in response to time and programmatic constraints, despite empirical findings and observations pointing to the significant impact of debriefing on students’ reflection, meaning-making, and ability to draw connections (Earnest, 2003; Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018; Stuhr & Sutherland, 2013). As the field of Leadership Education seeks to “build human capacity” (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 3), emphasizing the debrief process is critical to ensure that leadership educators, in curricular and co-curricular settings, are fulfilling their desired purpose.

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to allow facilitators and participants to share best practices for utilizing debrief in leadership education. Specifically, the facilitators believe their experiences will be useful to other scholars and practitioners who are using debrief as a pedagogical strategy or would like to enhance their use of debrief. Furthermore, the facilitators hope to learn techniques and innovative strategies to maximize the debrief experience for learners in curricular and co-curricular situations. While this roundtable discussion may be of particular relevance to those who engage in teaching, it also serves to benefit educators and practitioners who are interested in facilitating leadership learning experiences and conversations in co-curricular programs. There are three learner/participant objectives. First, to assess the use of debrief in a broad leadership climate assessment, participants will share their personal experiences with debrief as a pedagogical approach. Next, participants will be able to share and explain suggested practices for utilizing debrief in leadership education. Lastly, participants will be able to implement debrief in curricular and co-curricular leadership education settings.

Background

Instructors and program facilitators have traditionally understood the benefits of leading students through experiences/problems/issues through the use of methodologies like simulation exercises, games, and other forms of experiential learning (Pavlov, Saeed, & Robinson, 2015). While the activity fosters learning through the act of “doing,” the debrief leads students through initial learned processing in the moment and toward future practical application (Lederman, 1984). It is the debrief that allows educators the opportunity to create and capitalize on teachable moments that introduce students to new levels of thinking and understanding (Earnest, 2003).
A number of leadership educators have pointed to debriefing as facilitating participants’ ability to draw connections and make meaning from their experiences, in addition to enhancing their capacity for problem-solving and critical thinking (Bullington & Alford, 2019, Katsioloudes & Cannonier, 2019; Visone, 2018). Effective debriefing facilitates meaningful introspection and allows individuals to formulate/make meaning of the events in order to form their own view and promote individual personal and leader development (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018).

Given the critical role debriefing plays in student learning, it is important to consider the various forms of application. Gillespie (1973) recommends a debriefing process that features three steps: (a) summarize the experience, (b) apply knowledge, and (c) integration of the experience. Discussion and journal writing are the most common formats of debriefing as they allow students to process information in different capacities (Pavlov, et al., 2015; Petranek, 2000). Whitaker & Greenleaf (2017) note the importance of asking quality questions by suggesting debrief be organized beginning with lower-order questions, (e.g., “What leadership behaviors were seen?”) followed by higher-order questions (e.g., “How might you use that behavior in a current position?”). Utilizing a variety of formats for debriefing encourages leadership educators to match their format to the unique needs and preferences of their learners or program participants.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

This roundtable discussion will begin with the facilitators giving a two-minute explanation of the past research on debrief and its utilization in higher education, such as enhancing critical thinking. In addition, the group will spend the remaining time discussing strategies to engage in effective debrief in both curricular and co-curricular leadership educational settings. These strategies include discussion centered on the role of debrief in the leadership education experience, participant-sourcing examples of debrief questions they have had success with, in addition to other crucial considerations that must accompany a leadership educator using debrief questions in curricular and co-curricular program.

The discussion will be guided by the following questions:

Primary Question: What are the goals and objectives of using debrief in your leadership instruction or programming?

Additional Questions:

1. What questions create the most meaningful debrief? (4 minutes)
2. Is there a difference between the debrief questions used in curricular instruction versus how debrief is used in co-curricular programming? (2 minutes)
3. What is specific content that requires the use of or the optimization of debrief? (2 minutes)
4. What are your challenges in using debrief in your instruction/facilitation? (2 minutes)
5. What must leadership educators be aware of in regard to using debrief? Are there things to consider outside of the questions being used to lead the discussion? (3 minutes)
Foreseeable Implications

While the benefits of debriefing on participant learning have been documented in applied health settings (Ha, 2014; Webb, 2010; Dreifuerst, 2009), debriefing has historically been given an undersized role in education (Crookall, 2010). Therefore, further empirical investigations that elicit the outcomes of effective debriefing are critical to the field of leadership education. Potential areas of investigation include outcomes associated with student belonging, self-authorship, and emotional intelligence. In addition, the development of a series of debrief questions to be used within leadership education is needed work for the field from a pedagogical perspective. In addition, an establishment of best and suggested practices for the use of debrief would help make leadership educators more aware of their instruction and development of critical life experiences for learners and program participants. This research, coupled with an elevated status in the field of leadership education, will help ensure that learners, educators, and student affairs practitioners use the debrief pedagogy to build upon human connections, purpose, and a more rounded understanding of leadership content and experiences.
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What is Agricultural Leadership?: Fine-Tuning the Discipline with a Harmony of Agriculture and Leadership Education

Abstract

Agricultural leadership plays a vital role in the history, development, research, and enrichment of leadership education. Agricultural leadership educators support and lead a unique niche in leadership education across the country. These programs are traditionally housed within departments that join agricultural communications and agricultural education, yet agricultural leadership is the only interdisciplinary program of this triad that has not created or agreed upon a working definition detailing the work and role across society. This roundtable presentation will highlight agricultural leadership and evoke discussion related to the future and significant contributions of the discipline to leadership education.

Introduction

The term “agricultural leadership” is used in colleges and universities across the United States, mainly within the realms of the agricultural industry, colleges of agriculture, and agricultural education departments. Leadership education has a long history of existing in the realms of agriculture and can be traced back to the early 1900s as advisors were prepared to lead youth organizations (Fritz et al., 2003). The National Leadership Education Research Agenda 2013-2018 recognizes leadership courses taught in the context of agriculture, as this segment of the leadership field is active and engaged in research pursuits related to several agenda items from an agricultural perspective (Andenero et al., 2013).

Yet, agricultural leadership is riddled with question and intrigue surrounding its meaning, intent, and validity as a discipline. Many of these questions are repeated and shared in the personal experiences of leadership scholars who are engaged in the agricultural field. The purpose of this roundtable is to call attention to the lack of an agricultural leadership definition, establish the role of leadership education in the agricultural context, and to promote the critical need for clarification of agricultural leadership educators and their role in leadership programs, leadership development, and leadership education in communities and spaces of agriculture.

Background

Agricultural leadership has a storied history in leadership centered around agricultural education. An early study into agricultural leadership discussed its niche in leadership education and maintained its existence within departments of agricultural education (Fritz et al., 2003). The origins of agricultural leadership began with training agricultural educators and youth organization participants (i.e., FFA and 4-H). These leaders have played an integral role in agricultural education initiatives since the passage of the Morrill Act of 1862 (National 4-H, 2000), which established land-grant institutions. Fritz et al. (2003) sought to provide a description of leadership courses available in departments of agricultural education and proposed the possibility of enhancing leadership education in undergraduate and graduate courses in agricultural education programs. Since then, Alexander et al. (2016) has established that 52% of 1862 land-grant institutions house an agricultural leadership program.
Agricultural leadership programs are traditionally housed in combination with agricultural education and agricultural communications programs. Postsecondary agricultural education programs aim to develop well-rounded professionals in agriculture, food, and natural resources sectors through social science training in education, communications, and leadership (American Association for Agricultural Education [AAAE], 2020; Barrick, 1989; National Association of Agricultural Educators [NAAE], 2020). Agricultural communications has been considered a discipline since the earliest forms of agrarian societies (Talg & Irani, 2012). The agricultural communications field today includes those who “provide the news as well as those who advocate, publicize, and promote on behalf of agriculture and natural resources organizations in the private and public sectors” (Irani & Doerfert, 2013, p. 6).

Agricultural leadership professionals collectively provide cutting edge educational programming and coursework (Roberts, Harder, & Brashear, 2016). The field is recognized through several research agendas; for example, the Association of Public and Land-Grant Institutions (APLU) calls for leadership in their exploration of international agriculture programs, the role of transforming rural areas into resilient communities, and across the research agendas of agriculture and natural resources (APLU, 2020). Similarly, the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) calls for leadership in its initiatives focused on rural communities and the agricultural sector in general (USDA Strategic Plan FY 2018-2022, 2020). The American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE) National Research Agenda 2016-2020 names leadership educators as being a crucial and integral part of the agriculture education process (Roberts, Harder, & Brashears, 2016).

Though agricultural leadership is often housed within interdisciplinary agricultural education programs, there is not a working definition of agricultural leadership, leaving the discipline without a defined professional identity. The concept of identity development is a byproduct of leadership education (Priest & Middleton, 2016). Shoulders and Myers (2011) call for agricultural educators to contribute to the development of their professional identity and that of their students. Likewise, the agricultural leadership discipline needs to explore its own professional identity as it continues to expand in agricultural education programs nationwide.

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

This roundtable presentation will outline the current state of agricultural leadership research and incorporate discussion centered on the experiences and reactions of leadership educators with an interest in agriculture. Participants who attend this roundtable will contribute to the discussion and provide key information focused on the agricultural leadership discipline in postsecondary education. Specifically, this roundtable will address:

1. the history of agricultural leadership programs and evidence of the discipline in national research agendas (4 minutes);
2. the need for a definition of agricultural leadership (3 minutes);
3. the role of agriculture as a context within leadership education, rural, and community development (4 minutes); and,
4. the need for future development of agricultural leadership scholarship and the professional identity of the discipline (4 minutes).
Questions will be posed for means of discussion and collecting data to inform future study into the role and definition of agricultural leadership as a distinct discipline within agricultural education. Questions include:

1. Discuss the existence or non-existence of a working definition of agricultural leadership. What are the needs of this specialized group of leadership educators?
2. How can agricultural leadership educators contribute to the national research agendas in a manner that promotes the agricultural sectors and allows for the greater representation of agricultural leadership scholarship?
3. How can agricultural leadership position the agricultural field for the future and justify reason and purpose in agricultural social sciences? Is there a need for leadership educators to claim all things leadership within agriculture colleges and departments around the United States?

**Foreseeable Implications**

Current research agendas in agricultural sectors demand increased leadership knowledge by agricultural and extension educators. Yet, the lack of professional identity for agricultural leadership programs and leadership educators specialized in agricultural contexts perhaps contributes to the under-utilization of such expertise by our agricultural colleagues. A well-tuned instrument produces the best quality music: Just as other social science disciplines within agriculture have established definitions or increased exploration of their field, agricultural leadership is ready to fine-tune our instrument. By having these initial conversations, agricultural leadership educators will produce a more refined harmony among partners in the agriculture industry and social sciences and magnify the impact the discipline can have in communities, industry partnerships, college classrooms, online spaces, and beyond.
References


Sociomateriality: An Emerging Lens for Leadership Education Research and Practice

Abstract

In this discussion roundtable, we invite participants to consider how emerging scholarship of sociomateriality, embodiment, space, and place offers a new lens for understanding people and processes of leadership, leadership education, and development.

Introduction

An emerging body of literature brings the role of bodies and materialities, space and place into discussions of leadership experience and activity. This vein of scholarship explores the embodiment and materialities of leading, following, and leadership as practice. A key assumption is that leadership cannot exist without bodies and materialities (artifacts, technology, workspaces, etc.).

In this roundtable, we bring questions to the table, inviting participants to consider the ways that sociomateriality already plays into their leadership education practice and scholarship, as well as how new perspectives offer a fresh lens by which to consider research interests, questions, and context, and provide insight into more critical and inclusive practices of leadership education and development. Specifically, participants will:

1. Introduce and discuss concepts of sociomateriality, embodiment, space and place as a lens for leadership and leadership development;
2. Share examples of application within leadership education scholarship and practice; and
3. Identify future questions for research and practice.

Background

Contemporary perspectives of leadership reflect a shift from a leader-centric focus on individual traits to leadership as relational, socially constructed, and practice-based (Caroll et al., 2008). Leadership is shared, distributed and plural. This form of leadership demands collective effort to achieve its collective goal (Mailhot et al., 2016). Sertgi (2016) argues that there is a need to include materiality in theoretical and practical investigations of leadership. Drawing from leadership-as-practice (Raelin, 2016), leadership involves a collective of people, material and embodied practices enacted in context. All actions involve materials; in leadership, a focus on materiality explores how ideas, people and artifacts influence each other to advance a particular goal or purpose (Sergi, 2016).

My (Author 1) research involves activities of young people leveraging on technological devices and their applications such as WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter to mobilize each other as well as to organize processes of meaning-making. Technology and the new media played a role in a
2016 South African social movement #FeesMustFall, and continues to play a role in how students connect on projects and access other opportunities (e.g., access to university resources).

Ropo et al., (2013) suggest that spaces and places construct and perform leadership. This view assumes that leadership is an activity (not a person), is socially constructed, and is “an aesthetic, embodied phenomenon and sensuous experience” (p.378). Senses, feelings, memories, as well as intuition and mental representations are embodied ways of knowing and involve performative processes between people and space (Ropo & Salovaara, 2018). Place is “objective” in that it can be perceived as having matter, mass, color, etc., while “space” is subjectively experienced (Ropo et al., 2013). Pöyhönén (2018) argues that the design and experience in dominant organizational spaces “participates in the sociomaterial construction” of a type of leadership reflective of the dominant social structure of the organization (p. 586). This structure may reinforce hierarchy or hegemonic norms and practices, or promote community through democracy, equity, and collective leadership. If dominant spaces reproduces formal or oppressive structures, then “liminal” spaces become places for “anti-structural thinking and behavior” (p. 586). The implications of this for leadership education is important as we consider how the design (and interactions with objects, tools, technology within) programs, classrooms, offices, or even service experiences socially construct students’ perceptions of leadership and enhance or limit their experiences of belonging, leader identity formation, and engagement in leadership practice.

Space is relevant for my (Author 1) research, as I am also interested in inclusivity and diversity, creating safe space in organizations that offer support for students coming from poor and working-class conditions in institutions of higher learning in South Africa. Institutions of higher learning as a place may be a cultural shock to some students, who find the environment very different from their own communities or contexts. In many institutions or organizations, places are structurally excluding people with disabilities. This can reinforce existing social structures in society (Poyhene, 2018).

In the context of my research in the 21st century post-apartheid South Africa technology is playing a significant role in advancing society, in particular education and leadership processes of facilitating access, retention, success and completion in higher education. The internet and technology are evolving to be the most important things in human experiences because they are controlling a lot of activities in the human experience. Socio-materiality offers a lens to critically reflect on leadership education practices and explore research questions that advance leadership processes in this context.

To understand processes of meaning-making which includes songs, activities and speeches, I can use videos to capture the processes. Singing is part and parcel of the culture that organizations use to narrate their stories and make meaning. Capturing a video will be useful to the organization’s archives while I also use it for research. This is a decolonized way of doing research and embracing indigenous people way of knowing. Using images to invite participants to narrate stories about their own stories is empowering and inclusive (Liebenberg et al., 2019).
Means for Discussion/Interaction

For participants who are new to the topic of sociomateriality, we will create a handout with some basic tenets and examples. Additionally, we will provide links to relevant research articles and book chapters for further exploration. The following process will guide our conversation:

I. Table introductions
   A. Participants will introduce themselves and their interest/experience with the topic

II. What is socio-materiality?
   A. Overview of emerging ideas from leadership literature
   B. Sharing of initial impressions and insights of the concepts - what are we missing or taking for granted without this lens?
   C. Explore how sociomateriality extends/integrates into current leadership/education frameworks

III. Sharing from our practice
   A. Facilitators will offer examples of how these concepts apply to and inform their leadership education practice within diverse cultural contexts (e.g., in South African higher education, in U.S. higher education)
   B. Participants are invited to generate their own examples of sociomateriality in practice

IV. Advancing research and practice
   A. Generating questions to guide future scholarship (research and practice)
   B. Exploring potential for collaborations

Implications of this Session

The Inter-Association Leadership Education Collaborative (ILEC) has identified several priorities for advancing the field, including “building inclusive leadership learning communities” (2019, p. 6). Within this priority are recommendations regarding learning design, capacity creation and critical considerations. These include: utilization of in-class technology, facilitation of cross-cultural and global competencies across multiple technological platforms, development of innovative resources, cultivating collective capacities for change, confronting bias and privileges … all of these involve interactions with not only people but material things in spaces and places of learning, work, and life. It is essential for leadership educators to consider sociomateriality in all areas of professional development and practice. And, consider how the inclusion of sociomateriality as a leadership construct can inform curriculum, enhancing our students knowledge and skill as leaders now and in the future.
References


Inter-association Leadership Education Collaborative. (2019). *Collaborative priorities and critical considerations for leadership education*.


Mentoring Student Leadership Self-Efficacy in a Clinical Psychology Graduate Program

Abstract

Effective mentoring that fits the developmental needs of mentees is vital in the development of future professional leaders. Our aim is to implement a developmental model of mentoring leadership self-efficacy in a clinical psychology graduate program that serves primarily an underserved student population. Our current student population in the master’s program includes primarily first generation graduate students with diverse ethnic backgrounds. The model of mentorship utilized in this study incorporates past research evidence that indicates the importance of leader self-efficacy in leader development and how it can be effectively developed in the mentor–mentee relationship (Lester et al., 2011). In addition, this model of mentoring examines the role of attachment and trust in mentoring relationships, building on studies that point to their importance in helping the mentees development (Reitz et al., 2017). Initial outcome data of the success of mentoring program will be discussed and feedback from other faculty members working with underserved student populations will be explored.

Introduction

For graduate students, mentoring goes beyond academic advisement and includes development of confidence, commitment, and professional integrity, as well as leadership skills and leader self-efficacy (Kois, King, LaDuke, & Cook, 2016). This becomes even more needed when training an underserved student population, as is the case at our university. The purpose of this roundtable is to present and discuss a developmental model of mentoring that we are implementing in the master’s program in clinical psychology at our university. We will present initial outcome data on the success of the mentoring program. Since we are still developing our program, we hope to receive feedback from roundtable participants from other institutions who have also implemented leadership mentoring.

Background

Van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, and Hogg (2004) proposed that leader self-efficacy, defined as the leader’s belief in his or her ability to lead, is central in the development of leadership skills and performance. Leader self-efficacy can be effectively developed in the mentor–mentee relationship (Lester et al., 2011). Building on this notion, we aim to develop leadership efficacy in our graduate clinical psychology program through faculty mentoring.

Lester et al. (2011) also considered the role of trust in the relationship between the mentor and mentee. In a field experiment, they found that a mentee’s level of trust in the mentor predicted the mentee’s leadership efficacy, suggesting that trust can facilitate leadership development, perhaps through mentees’ openness to receiving critical feedback.

Related to trust is attachment. Originally developed by Bowlby (1982), attachment refers to relationships that provide individuals with support and feelings of security that assist them in coping with stress and facing life’s challenges. Reitz, Mitchell, and Keel (2017) published a conceptual paper considering ways that attachment can play a role in mentoring relationships. In
particular, these authors point to the role of attachment relationships as providing mentees with a secure base and safe haven. A secure base refers to a person whom one can rely on for support and encouragement in exploration and risk-taking (e.g., as in professional career development). A safe haven refers to a person whom one can turn to for help in coping with stress and difficult experiences. Mentors can serve as a secure base and safe haven; they facilitate secure attachment by interacting with the mentee in an open, non-judgmental way, attending closely to the mentee’s verbal and nonverbal communication, and providing the mentee with the experience of being fully heard and understood. The result of such attachment-based mentoring is expected to help mentees to trust, grow, explore, which in turn may help them develop leadership skills (Reitz et al., 2017).

We assess the outcomes and success of our leadership mentoring program as follows. To assess mentees’ trust, we use a version of the Mayer and Davis (1995) trust scale modified to be appropriate for the mentorship relationship. To assess mentees’ leadership efficacy, we use the leader self-efficacy measure (Lester et al., 2011). To assess mentee’s experiences of attachment in the mentoring relationship, we use existing self-report adult attachment questionnaires modified to measure attachment security within the mentoring relationship (Fraley, Heffernen, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2011), as well as the safe haven and secure base attachment functions of the mentoring relationship (Sim & Loh, 2003). In addition, students and faculty involved in the mentor program will respond to open-ended questions concerning their experiences within the mentoring relationship.

**Means for Discussion/Interaction**

The basis for discussion will be the mentorship model we have developed and implemented at our university with clinical psychology graduate students. We will begin the roundtable by presenting data on the mentees’ pre-test and post-test scores on trust, leadership self-efficacy, and attachment within the mentoring relationship. Furthermore, we will present qualitative results from open-ended questions answered by both mentees and faculty mentors. Roundtable participants will be asked for feedback about the project, our initial data, and their own experience in implementing mentoring programs. The primary objectives of the discussion are to use feedback to further refine our mentoring program and to contribute to literature on the developmental mentoring leadership model.

**Foreseeable Implications of Session**

Our hope is to use the feedback received at the roundtable to further develop our mentoring program. We hope to learn more about how trust building and establishing a secure attachment base for students can allow for greater capacity to receive difficult feedback and develop leadership self-efficacy. Specifically, the data and feedback from the roundtable will inform how we reformulate our model and implement our program. It is also our hope that we contribute to the development of mentoring programs of other participants.
References


Roundtable Presentation Proposal

Preparing Leaders in Special Education to Advocate for Students with Disabilities

Abstract

A national study of state credentialing requirements for administrators of special education in 2010 found that 27 states require licensure/certification/endorsement as an administrator of special education (Boscardin, et al., 2010). Preparing ethical and well-trained special education leaders requires preparation programs that emphasize standards and ethics of the profession as well as advocacy for individuals with disabilities. The professional ethics and advocacy expected of the special education administrator and the responsibility to their local school districts, by whom they are employed, are sometimes in conflict. This round table presentation will present ethical dilemmas sometimes faced by special education administrators with the intent to spark discussion of how to prepare ethical special education leaders who advocate for children with disabilities while still upholding their responsibilities to their school districts.

Introduction

The Individuals with Disability Education and Improvement Act (2004) is a federal law that ensures all children with disabilities affecting their educational achievement be provided with a free and appropriate public education, or FAPE. (IDEA, 2004). State and local school districts across the country receive partial funding to implement the IDEIA’s mandates to educate students with disabilities. School districts employ school leaders/administrators who have experience, expertise, and training in special education to coordinate the programs and comply with the intent of the federal law through state regulations. Educational administration and leadership programs often house these programs to train special education administrators. A Special Education administrator, or director/Coordinator as they are often called, is considered an educational leader and some state regulations reflect this in that they group special education administrators under their guidelines and requirements of certification with principals, superintendents, pupil personnel directors, and other district level administrative certifications.

The purpose of this round table presentation is to share strategies for preparing special education leaders/administrators for this, sometimes, conflicting role of representing their school district’s interests while still upholding the ethics and standards of their profession. By the end of the round table presentation, participants will be familiar with professional ethics and standards required of this unique educational leader, as well as have some strategies to educate their future special education leaders on how to problem-solve these conflicts that are often part of the process to educate students with disabilities (Visone, 2018).

Background
The Council of Administrators of Special Education (CASE) is a division of the Council for Exceptional Children and has a mission to, “provide leadership and support to members by shaping policies and practices that impact the quality of education.” (CASE, 2018 Strategic Plan 2018-2020). Related to this round table presentation in particular is the CASE belief that, “Local administrators are critical change agents who affect the quality and future of special education and the education of students with exceptionalities.”

CASE’s preamble in their statement of ethics states, “Each Special Education Administrator entering the profession inherits a measure of that responsibility and trust and the obligation to adhere to the profession’s code of ethical conduct.” Standards for these special education leaders are that the Special Education Administrator:

- Makes serving and supporting exceptional children and their parents the primary responsibility.
- Strives to be proficient in current professional practice;
- Supports study and research guided by the conventions of scholarly inquiry;
- Respects the privacy of students and parents and holds as confidential information in accordance with State/Provincial and Federal Laws;
- Regards colleagues, parents, and students with respect, courtesy, fairness, and good faith;
- Upholds and advances the values, ethics knowledge and mission of the profession;
- Fosters and supports maximum self-determination and independence on the part of exceptional children
- Utilizes impartial professional judgment in evaluating the needs of exceptional children and their parents;
- Accepts the responsibility to provide meaningful training experiences to colleagues, general educators, and the public;
- Promotes the general welfare of exceptional children.

Given that we, as leadership educators, want to prepare our future leaders to be ethical and skilled leaders, what can we do to ensure that standards are upheld in the likely event that our students must also represent the interests of their employing local school district when the standards and the interests of the districts are in opposition?

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives

This round table presentation will outline strategies for upholding ethics and standards while still being able to represent the local education agency’s interests. Participants who attend this roundtable will discuss suggested strategies, share their own strategies and experiences and leave knowing that both sides of the table can leave multi-disciplinary team meetings satisfied that they have all worked together to meet the unique needs of the child as is required by IDEIA, 2004. Specifically, the round table will present:

1. An overview of ethics and standards widely accepted for special education administrators. (2 min.)
2. The importance of advocacy for special educators. (3 min.)
3. Competing perspectives that occur between school districts and parents during multi-disciplinary team meetings (Zaretsky, 2004). (5 min.)
4. Strategies for the special education leader to advocate for the students’ needs as well as upholding their responsibility to their school district. (5 min.)

**Foreseeable Implications**

Leadership educators in educational leadership programs educate those who are seeking positions as special education administrators. While standards and ethics are common in educational leadership programs, those who will be special education administrators are in the unique position to experience conflicting loyalties and competing perspectives between the children they have pledged to advocate for and their employing school district. By sharing experiences and strategies to allow future special education leaders to fulfill their responsibilities to serve both the child and the employing school districts, participants and leadership scholars taking part in this round table discussion may alleviate this conflict for their students.

**References**


Council for Administrators of Special Education (n.d.) retrieved from [https://www.casecec.org/](https://www.casecec.org/)


Anchor Institutions: Fostering Informed, Engaged, and Responsible Citizens

Abstract

Institutions of higher education are rooted in place. For many years, they were the “anchor” in various communities in which they were imbedded. Given the magnitude of their investments (land, buildings, etc.), it is not likely the university will just leave. Their relocation is unimaginable (Maurrasse, 2007). 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 (Steele, 2018). Therefore, it is in the self-interest of these “anchor institutions” that they utilize their greatest commodity, that of faculty and students, to deliver a pedagogy that takes the learning outside of the walls of the classroom and into communities for the understanding of community problems and the development of solutions.

Introduction

Since the founding of Colleges and Universities, they have existed to educate and prepare students for service to others. Astin and Astin (2000) expounded on this notion to include leadership in communities for the betterment of society as part of the purpose. Leadership education does not have to end in the classroom. Faculty can extend their theory based curriculum to a curriculum of practice that prepares students to experience greater gains in leadership, tolerance for difference, an increased knowledge of people of different cultures, an understanding of social issues and the development of solutions. These partnerships in community expound on the notion of the university as anchor institution, a way of thinking about the role that place-based institutions can play in addressing societal problems and in building a more democratic and just and equitable society (Taylor and Luter, 2013).

The purpose of this roundtable presentation and discussion it to think about and share ways to develop partnerships in and with community in meaningful ways that enhance the curriculum. Additionally, the workshop will give evidence of the ways in which a small, private liberal arts college in Tennessee has used its “place” to create value for the surrounding community while also advancing faculty research and student learning. Through knowledge generation and sharing, participants of the discussion can potentially come away with ways to transform scholarship, practice, and outcomes for their own students, faculty members and community stakeholders.

Background

Many of the answers to societal ills lie in the scholarly expertise and resources of institutions of higher education (Boyer, 1996). Universities as anchor institutions 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 (Steele, 2018). 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 term “anchor institution” is an increasingly popular way of thinking about the role of societal institutions in the development of communities, cities, towns and villages (Task Force, 2009). However, the phenomenon is not new. The public service mission of higher education has extensive historic grounding. In 1862, the United States Congress enacted the Morrill Act, creating standards for a different set of universities to come into existence. Known as the Land-Grant Act, this sweeping piece of legislation brought into existence a cadre of institutions whose meaning was to provide access to higher education for common folk, and to produce research that could help America develop as a nation (Wilson, n.d.). This social-purpose credo of higher education intensified in the 1950’s and 60’s, calling for the development of urban experiment stations modeled after the work of agricultural land grant institutions. Following in the 1960’s, Robert C. Wood planned for the establishment of urban observatories (Hackney, 1986) where theorists became practitioners or in other words got proximate with the issues in the urban community. Additionally, the US Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the Ford Foundation provided millions of dollars to universities to develop projects with and for their cities and communities. When Secretary of HUD Henry Cisneros created the Office of University Partnerships in 1994, he explicitly stated that universities were a crucial resource for improving America’s cities and that the university would significantly benefit from serious engagement with the problems of their host communities (Cisneros, 1995).

Fast forward to the 90’s, we see the rise of service learning which is the operationalization of community engagement in scholarship. Boyer (1996) researched the application of academic knowledge, a more complex view of the dynamic two-way relationship between campuses and communities for public problem solving. He advocated the recognition and rewarding of scholarly expertise to pressing civic, social, economic and moral problems (1996, p. 14). William Damon (1998) pointed out in his research that for students to “participate constructively in civil society” they needed not only “intellectual abilities” and “moral traits” but also practical experience in community organizations, from which young people can learn how to work within groups, in structured settings (p. B5). Hence, since the establishment of the college and university, there has been a compelling intellectual case for university engagement in communities. However, despite all of the calls to action of preceding decades of research, community engagement by institutions of higher learning has not become the defining characteristic of higher education’s mission nor has it been embraced across disciplines and institutions (Brukardt et al, 2004). For that to happen, there needs to be a greater clarity of purpose for anchor institutions to indeed foster informed, engaged and responsible citizens.

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives

Anchor Institutions have the capacity to work with communities to bring needed resources and knowledge through faculty and students for the betterment of society. The outcomes can be mutually beneficial to the community, the student, faculty and university. Participants that attend this round table will learn about successful initiatives offered at a small, private, Christian liberal arts university in the south. They will discuss and share ideas with each other of their own initiatives as well as discuss ways to continue partnerships that are mutually beneficial to all stakeholders. Specifically, the roundtable will answer the following questions:
1. What are some of the key features of successful university-community partnerships?
2. What are lessons learned in successful University-Community Partnerships?
3. How important these partnerships are in helping institutions carry out their missions.

**Foreseeable Implications of Session**

Colleges and Universities were founded to prepare and educate students for service to others (Astin, 1996). As practitioners, the roundtable discussion will benefit educators and administrators interested in applying the mission of the university to the communities in which they are placed for the development of their students as leaders. The discussion will provide new ideas for implementation for those that wish to realize university-community partnerships as well as to build on existing ideas through shared knowledge.

**References**


Tuning in to Leadership Development by Utilizing Experiential Learning

Abstract

Leadership skills are important capabilities for college students to develop. University faculty are constantly adjusting curriculum to meet industry’s demand for leadership skills in new hires, such as teamwork, problem-solving, work ethic, and communication skills. One way to develop these skills is through experiential learning. This type of learning consists of hands-on opportunities including service-learning activities, internships, student research, and study abroad trips. This roundtable session will discuss types of experiential learning, evaluate the benefits and costs of experiential learning, and explore new ways of incorporating experiential learning into the classroom.

Introduction

Educators spend many hours evaluating curriculum to determine the best teaching methods to use to teach needed workplace skills. It is imperative that educational institutions provide the required skills and knowledge needed in the workplace. Employers have workforce needs and they look to their employees to fulfill those needs. University faculty members must do their part to ensure the curriculum being used meets the needs of employers. This is not an easy feat. Employers are often looking for specific skills to meet the demands of the industry. However, there does seem to be some consensus on a few skills that are in constant demand in the workplace. These skills include communication skills, the ability to work with others, a strong work ethic, and the ability to problem-solve (Hora, 2017). These skills can all be developed and refined within a leadership course.

Background

A commonly referenced model of experiential learning was developed by David Kolb. Kolb explained experiential learning as a process of bringing education, work, and individual development together (Kolb, 1984). For educators, finding course assignments that combine important educational theories, real-life work experience, and individual development together can be a challenge. This is where experiential learning becomes valuable because there are few assignments that can promote the level of learning and development that occurs with experiential learning.

Experiential learning can consist of various activities including internships, study abroad trips, research, and service-learning projects (Wagner & Pigza, 2016). Internships provide students real-life work experience in the industry in which they would like to be employed. Study abroad opportunities provide students with cultural experiences and self-development. Research opportunities give students the chance to conduct research with faculty in an area of interest. Lastly, service learning allows students to engage in structured activities that combine the student’s abilities with community needs (Jacoby, 1996).

Experiential learning allows students to take classroom information, such as theories and methods, and apply them in a real-life setting (Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009). This is where
skills such as communication, teamwork, work ethic, and problem-solving can be put into motion. These leadership skills can be developed in the classroom and then reinforced through experiential learning. For instance, service learning encourages leadership development because it requires concrete experiences and opportunities for reflection (Billig & Eyler, 2003).

By the 1990’s, there was a shift in the leadership literature. The perception of leadership was starting to switch from a bureaucratic context to a knowledge-based mindset (Wagner & Pigza, 2016). This new view saw leadership as a collaborative relationship with others based on trust rather than authority (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007).

Due to the shift in leadership context, new ways of teaching leadership can be incorporated into the classroom. This is where experiential learning can be extremely beneficial. Problem-solving, teamwork, work ethic, and communication skills will all be needed to collaborate with others to create a trusting relationship to accomplish successful experiential learning activities.

**Means for Discussion/Interaction**

This roundtable discussion will highlight the types of experiential learning, along with the benefits of experiential learning. An important benefit of experiential learning for students is the development of capabilities needed to become a leader. This roundtable discussion will discuss experiential activities that can be incorporated into a leadership course. The specific objectives of this roundtable discussion are as follows:

1. Participants will analyze and discuss various experiential learning methods.
2. Participants will list and evaluate benefits and costs of experiential learning.
3. Participants will develop ways of incorporating experiential learning into their classroom.

The roundtable presentation will begin with an overview by the facilitator of what experiential learning consists of and how these types of activities can be incorporated into a leadership course. (3 minutes.) The facilitator will then discuss the benefits and costs of utilizing experiential learning into a leadership course. (2 minutes). Time will then be given to allow for participants to share the types of experiential learning they have used in their own courses. (6 minutes). The roundtable discussion will conclude with participants sharing some ideas of how they can incorporate experiential learning into their leadership courses in the future. (4 minutes).

**Foreseeable Implications**

Experiential learning encompasses many valuable activities that teach students real life skills that can be applied to their personal and professional lives. The skills students can develop and improve upon range from communication, teamwork, initiative, problem-solving and many, others that help develop the whole person. Not only does the student benefit, but the university, the future organizations the students will be employed at, and the communities the students will live in will all benefit from the lessons learned from experiential learning.

**References**


WORKSHOPS

Numbers correspond with proposal numbers assigned upon submission.

20. **Blending Human Systems for Leadership: Embracing Generational Diversity**
    Donna Haeger, Cornell University

24. **An Introduction to Social Network Analysis (SAN)**
    James Martin, Creighton University

73. **The Power of Holding Environments and Facilitation Skills to Promote Psychological Safety in Leadership Education**
    Joe Lasley, University of San Diego
    Daniel Jenkins, University of Southern Maine

88. **Qualitative Inquiry: Advancing Methodological Best Practices for Leadership Education**
    (Conference Award: Distinguished Workshop)
    Kate McCain, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
    Kerry Priest, Kansas State University
    Gina Matkin, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

95. **Student Affairs and Faculty Collaboration: Impacting Team Effectiveness in Group Leadership Projects through Application of Strengths and Shadows**
    Susan Luchey, Blue Hen Leadership Program, University of Delaware
    Steven Mortenson, University of Delaware
    Julie Millisky, University of Delaware

110. **Using (Un)Methods to Navigate Tensions in Community-Based Leadership Research**
    Lori Kniffin, UNC Greensboro

120. **Prometheus Leadership Commons Framework in Practice**
    Thomas Bohinc, The Prometheus Project
    Michael Gothe, CRISP
    Yassal Sundman, CRISP

145. **Teaching Transformative Leadership**
    (Conference Award: Outstanding Workshop)
    Katherine McKee, North Carolina State University
    Jackie Bruce, North Carolina State University

160. **In Tune with Women’s Leadership: Undergraduate Programs to Navigate the Labyrinth**
    (Conference Award: Outstanding Workshop)
    Carol Clyde Gallagher, Cottey College
    Yolanda Caldwell, The College of Saint Rose

*Workshops indicated with an asterisk were accepted to the conference but not presented as part of the core conference schedule. Presenters intend to offer the workshop as an ALE webinar in 2020-2021.
Blending Human Systems for Leadership: Embracing Generational Diversity

Workshop Proposal

ABSTRACT

Relationships with colleagues of different ages is challenging. Embracing generational diversity to determine best ways to promote inclusion and productivity at work is at the forefront of the leadership challenge. This entertaining workshop will allow participants to explore how leaders can better understand themselves and others to experience and cultivate successful interactions at work to improve relationships, productivity, job satisfaction and quality of work life. Insights into reaching shared understanding is the goals of this workshop.

Introduction

This professional development workshop will be an interactive learning experience for participants. Talk and learn about the dynamics associated with leading in a workplace host to five generations. As we move away from the traditional paradigm of work-life balance and enter the era of the fused work environment, there are often misunderstandings between managers, direct reports and coworkers. This is a growing concern for leaders as they strive to promote harmony in the workplace in pursuit of organizational goals. Each group approaches technology differently. We often use the same technology, but to accomplish different tasks. Seeking to understand different perspectives offers a refreshing and fun way to open our hearts and minds and embrace differences and recognize them as strengths as a system of humans at work. Participants will be a part of three breakout sessions with members from different generational cohorts to share and learn perspectives about approaches to workplace situations. The workshop will include interactive discussion around satisfying interactions when we embrace generational diversity.

- Insight into work and life characteristics of three largest generations at work
- Exploration into self as a generational member both categorically and mentally
- Experience interactions in a group of diverse members
- Discussion around issues and different perspectives and approaches to problems

Background

Considering the current multi-generational work context, similarities and differences in technology uses and perceptions provide an environment ripe with leadership challenges related to individual satisfaction levels at work, and conflict from generational behavioral expectations and norms. Some authors claim these struggles are causing stress that affects personal responsibilities and health (Thurston, 2012). As technology and generational diversity continue to gain momentum and challenge how leaders lead, inquiries about how this new state is affecting behaviors, expectations, and the potential for a shift in leadership education should be explored. Haeger and Lingham (2013) found distinct differences in how members of different generations lead and perceive the leadership role.
The literature is recently replete with studies around generational differences in the workplace as well as the impacts technology is having on workplace outcomes (Collins, Hair, & Rocco, 2009; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010; Heskett, 2007; Joshi, Dencker, Franz, & Martocchio, 2010; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Shore, Cleveland, & Goldberg, 2003; Twenge, 2010). Additional reports attempt to contrast how different age groups understand technology (Joshi et al., 2010; Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Pelletier, 2005; Proserio & Gioia, 2007). More difficult to find is research related to how technology use in virtual and physical spaces accommodates or affect career (work) and life management and if a shift is in fact occurring. As technology continues to gain momentum in the fusion of work and life management, leaders need to understand how this new state is affecting behaviors, expectations, and the potential for a paradigm shift in current approaches of career and life management. Findings from Haeger and Lingham (2014) indicate that rather than redraw the boundaries between work and life, it is possible that clear boundary conditions have been subverted and that career and life demands have become fused through technological advancements. With inclusion of flexible work schedules, and the integration of technology into both work and personal life, there seems to be a movement from work-life balance and the search for an equilibrium state to a new paradigm with which people manage the demands of work and life. This suggests that fusion is in fact occurring, and so leaders will need to rethink policies, methods that support employees, and related assistance with meeting demands of career and life simultaneously.

Lesson Plan

All breakout sessions end with a brief large group share.

Introduction 10 minutes
- My Background and Philosophy
- Perceptual Collisions and Generational Diversity

Breakout Session I  Blending Human Systems 20 minutes
- Generational Families – form groups with at least one member from each generation and perform assigned task.

Characteristics 10 minutes
- Lifestyle
- Workplace

Breakout Session II  Workplace Collisions 20 minutes
- Generational Families discuss assigned topic (end with share in large group)

Leadership Styles 10 minutes
- Intention
- Understanding

Breakout Session III  Technology Differences 20 minutes
- Generational Families – discuss and share perform assigned task (share in large group)
- Conclude
Discussion/Outcomes

This format was delivered to several small groups and received stellar feedback related to engagement, interaction and entertainment value while self-reflecting and learning about other perspectives. Differences in technology usage and how we leverage such tools to manage work and life host perceptual collisions between generations. Most do not understand the transition that is taking place and these differences cause frustration at both ends. What is evident is that depending on the age of the worker, different forms of technology are perceived as a help or hindrance to job sat and work life sat. Employers can leverage this information in order to develop work environments that are conducive to all cohorts since our workplace is home to five generations today. The assignment of work and personal life are no longer circumscribed to specific times and places (Golden & Geisler, 2007), but rather we see the use of technology as a medium with which to simultaneously address the demand of both.

Work-Life Balance literature studies individuals seeking equilibrium in their management of work and life issues and organizations seeking to understand activities and needs of employees in order to develop successful policies and programs (Kossek & Lambert, 2008). With our work environment becoming more complex and diverse, creative methods and approaches (such as flexible work hours, maternity/paternity leave, and working at home) emerged to deal with issues that were non-existent in the past. The shift from Work-life Balance to Work-Life Integration became common place and dominant scholars (Schein, 2007) developed Lifestyle as an anchor and significant consideration for career choices. Other not-so-subtle shifts have occurred in our work environment whereby five generations now share the workforce and advancements in technology have swept like a tsunami into the domains of both work and life causing both domains to fuse and further re-landscape the management. We explore how each different generation deals with this fusion and if the generations are transitioning into this new landscape of work particularly since the different generations (namely Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial) may be dealing with this shift in different ways.

Handouts

Participants are given a PDF deck of key elements and take aways from the workshop as they develop through the break out sessions.

References


An Introduction to Social Network Analysis (SNA)

Abstract

Social network analysis (SNA) is used in business, healthcare, and by government agencies across the world. While associated with social media, SNA pre-dates the internet, developed from the principal of “six degrees of separation” or that any one person on the planet is separated from any other by no more than six others. SNA has been integral in understanding the spread of disease – and of ideas – through networks of human beings. Despite their value, there is a lack of SNA work in the field of leadership. This workshop will introduce the concepts of SNA to participants, provide an opportunity to informally explore networks, and to allow a consideration of how SNA might be useful to them.

Introduction

The study of leadership as a paradigm using social science methods is a recent endeavor. Criticisms of leadership theories of various sorts are easily constructed, quite likely because these theories simply haven’t been around long enough to undergo the rigorous peer reviewed scrutiny that theories used in the fields of economics, psychology, and sociology have enjoyed. Theory development is an arduous process requiring in-depth study within the discipline, teasing out the logic and implications of theories to explore their applicability in various circumstances. One might notice the preponderance of qualitative work in leadership studies. Much good work here exists that, among other contributions, allowing for in-depth exploration. Yet theory implies deduction. As such, empirical evidence that supports, or refutes, theories is an important part of the cycle of theory development.

Social Network Analysis, or SNA, allows leadership practitioners to test the implications of theories and to gather evidence that may allow for this process more directly than other quantitative methods. Social network analysis is underpinned by the simple idea that the depth and weight of the personal connections between people have implications for the success or failure of the group or organization. Initially used in public health to explore the spread of disease, they have recently been adopted by governments and business to explore the spread of ideas – and the connections between individuals associated with a brand – or a terrorist ideology. The scholarly concepts of “diffusion of innovations” (Rogers, 2003) and “norm cascades” (Lohmann, 1994) rely heavily on processes inherent in social networks. Popular concepts such as “tipping point” are similarly rooted in SNA.

These concepts and tools are readily transferable to the study of leadership – and have practical implications for educators and practitioners. One could tease out empirical evidence for (or against) theories like Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) or Authentic Leadership using these tools. Alternatively, one could use these tools to help make an office more efficient by identifying and enhancing the connectivity of the most central individuals to various important processes – for instance within admissions offices at universities or in
HR departments. Many applications become quickly apparent when one is familiar with the tools.

This workshop will introduce the concepts and tools of SNA in a fun and non-threatening environment. While not comprehensive (entire degree programs are focused on SNA) participants should emerge with an increased awareness of networks, some practical knowledge of how human interactions may facilitate or degrade the ability of leaders to get things done, and a familiarity with the concepts and tools of social network analysis.

The learning objectives for this workshop are:

1) Participants will learn to identify theories, methods, and applications of Social Network Analysis

2) Participants will apply some SNA concepts to construct an informal network graph.

3) Participants will determine scenarios in which SNA may be useful to them in their positions

**Existing Scholarship on SNA**

The origins of SNA can be found in public health. Perhaps the first published expression of some of these ideas can be found in Snow's nuanced interpretations of his famous 1854 map of cholera deaths around London's Broad Street well (Rogers, 2013). The next published idea arose from a simple parlor game proposed to his friends by Hungarian sociologist Frigyes Karinthy—the now ubiquitous concept of six degrees of separation—five according to Karinthy (1929). This concept floated around for many years without empirical confirmation until psychologist Stanley Milgram tested it in the late 1960s (MacMillan, 2018). Other social scientists developed various tangents over the next few decades. The “weak ties” argument, or the idea that people who are close to us are far less likely to provide us with new ideas or opportunities, is perhaps the most famous (Granovetter 1973). Ostrom’s concept of polycentricity, developed in the 1960s and 70s, that decentralized organizations are more resilient to change, is another (Tarko 2017).

Yet SNA as a practical tool for non-ivory tower types did not emerge until computing power reached a point where the complexity of networks could be captured and analyzed. The turning point seems to have arrived in the mid to late 1990s. Since then, SNA studies have risen dramatically and today, these concepts and tools are used broadly, by academics and practitioners in a range of fields (Tsvetovat & Kouznetsov 2011; Everton 2012; Yang, Keller, & Zheng, 2017). Poplarly, Malcolm Gladwell’s ‘The Tipping Point’ introduced the concepts and implications of SNA to a much broader audience of non-experts (2002) – and much of Amy Edmundson’s work on teams is also built on concepts familiar to SNA practitioners.

The fundamental idea behind social network analysis is that the relationships among groups of people matter – these structure our values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Yang, Keller, & Zheng 2017). This implies that networks affect who we know, the opportunities we may have, and how groups and organizations respond to change,
shocks, and opportunities. Operationalizing these arguments is done by collecting data on individuals and the frequency and nature of these interdependent relationships and analyzing it to detect types of patterns among them. The basic building block terms of SNA are:

- **Nodes** are typically individuals, but can be distinct teams or groups
- **Edges** are the connections between nodes, typically association with the frequency and types of communications
- **Graphs** are maps of nodes and edges and can be directed—one person sends and the other receives or undirected, in which there is a free flow of communications between both people. These can also be weighted to indicate the frequency or length of communications
- A **matrix** or **matrices** are excel-like charts that identify nodes and their connections across columns and rows
- **Centrality**, or the proximity of a node or nodes to the center of the network: in other words, how connected is a node to others in a network?
- **Degree**: the number of connections that any one node has within a network.
- **Density**: the proportion of nodes that have more connections to others in a network vs. those that have fewer connections.
- **Average Path Length**, or how many nodes, on average, does any one person have to go through to talk to anyone else?

(Everton 2012; Yang, Keller, & Zheng, 2012)

The outcomes of SNA work can span the sublime to darkly consequential: these tools are used to combat the spread of infectious disease (Vasylyeva, Friedman, Paraskevis, & Magirkinis 2016) and were almost certainly used to find Osama bin Laden (cite) and to destroy terrorist networks (Everton 2012). They were also used to disrupt social movements opposed to Vladimir Putin and to incite polarization in the United States (Curtis 2016). Yet the value of science is that it is public. Thus, with some work, one can use these tools to identify efficiencies, increase resiliency, and to detect key performers within organizations (Tsvetovat & Koznetsov 2011).

**The Lesson Plan for the Workshop**

This workshop will be guided by three goals outlined in the learning objectives.

- Participants will learn to identify theories, methods, and applications of Social Network Analysis
- Participants will apply SNA concepts to construct an informal network graph
- Participants will determine scenarios in which SNA may be useful to them in their positions
In the first section of the workshop, I intend to provide a relatively brief (30-40 minute) lecture on the history, important theoretical perspectives, and real-world applications of SNA. These topics and concepts will be covered:

- The origins of SNA in social science
- The theoretical assumptions of SNA
  - Structural relations (regularities in the patterns of relations among people exist)
  - Social networks affect (or structure) the perceptions, beliefs and actions of people within them (weak ties strong ties; homophily)
  - Social networks are constantly changing (as people drop out and come in)
- The important concepts in SNA:
  - Networks
  - Graphs (and matrices)
  - Nodes, edges, and paths
  - Directed vs. Undirected edges
  - Centrality (and Degree Centrality)
  - Density and Modularity
  - Clustering Coefficients and Average Path Link
- I will share some brief examinations of graphs from an SNA study
- I will share some brief discussions of free tools of SNA (Gephi & UCINet; R)

In the second section of the workshop, participants will work to create informal matrices (drawings) of their own networks within a specific part of their lives. I will provide supplies for that element of the workshop. About 15 minutes will be devoted to this exercise. In the third and final section of the workshop, we will discuss potential applications for SNA within the participants' professional fields. About 20 minutes will be devoted to this portion of the workshop.

**A Brief Discussion of Some SNA Results**

Last year at the Association of Leadership Educators in Albuquerque, I presented the results of a co-authored study. In the social network phase of our study, we gathered data on the social networks presented in the admissions teams of a private secondary school and a public medical school. We gathered this data through a survey instrument.

This element of the study found patterns suggesting that while neither school was maximizing the connections among those who participated in various phases, the private secondary school displayed two important differences from the public medical school: there were a greater number of people in the center of the graph and that across phases of the admissions process, greater numbers of people, and greater proportions of the individuals, were involved. This suggests that the admissions process in the private secondary school is more transparent to all individuals involved, and that the organization itself may be more resilient to shocks (such as a central individual leaving the school). Other interesting results suggest that face to face communications – both in an informal
and formal sense – was used more often that one might think. During the last section of the workshop, I will briefly discuss the results and show a variety of graphs built from the SNA data from our study. One of these graphs is featured in the appendix of this proposal.

**Implications for Participants**

Participants in this workshop will have the opportunity to learn about SNA from an applied practitioner, to learn about the concepts that underlie it, and finally to see it in action. As a visual, hands on learner, this perspective has certainly been the foundation of my own learning in SNA and I look forward to sharing it with others. SNA is complex – yet seeing it in practice may relieve the anxiety of attendees and provide them with a starting place towards using these tools.

Furthermore, SNA offers a great deal of promise in exploring the slippery topics that leadership scholars and practitioners often grapple with. A few examples: do flattened authority structures within teams really increase communication? What are the empirical organizational outcomes associated with leadership theories such as Transformational Leadership? What are the communication patterns of individuals within complex organizations? Many more applications like this are likely to emerge during the workshop.
References


Appendix

Figure 1. A graph: The recruitment phase of the admissions process at a private secondary school.

Note: we constructed graphs for each phase of the admissions process and a combined graph for the network that spans the entire process. I plan to share several of these during the workshop.
Prompts for Workshop Exercise 1

During this first exercise, I will walk through the exercise first and then will walk around to help participants. I will provide a template (below), paper, and writing utensils.

Think about your own relationships at work, a community group, or any organization or group you participate in.

- Make a list of the **five** most prominent individuals in your network – even if you have never communicated with them.
- Next, give each person a number: 1 – 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bob</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jamina</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roberta</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marge</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Next to these, note whether you believe that each of these individuals know each other. To elaborate, does #1 (Bob) know Jamina? Roberta? James? Marge? You want to end up with a list of relationships like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Node</th>
<th>Has a relationship with:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Finally, make a handmade graph – put the folks who have the most connections in the middle and others on the outside. Then draw lines indicating these relationships. For the one I’ve made, it might look something like this:

Now, think about your graph:

- Who is most central to the network? Who is not as central? Do these insights surprise you?
- How many steps does it take to go from the most connected person to the least connected person? What might this mean when a time sensitive action is needed by the group?
Prompts for Workshop Exercise 2

In the concluding section of the workshop, I will break the participants into small groups. The prompt for these groups:

- Given our discussions today, what applications do you see for SNA within your organization or for your field of practice?

Finally, I will conclude by sharing the following sites that have freeware versions of SNA software and a few sites that offer useful reading on social network analysis:

https://sites.google.com/site/ucinetsoftware/home
https://gephi.org/
The Power of Holding Environments and Facilitation Skills to Promote Psychological Safety in Leadership Education

Abstract

In this Educator Workshop, facilitators will demonstrate the importance of facilitation skills to promote the psychological safety of learners in leadership education learning environments. In doing so, workshop participants will take part in learning activities that provide opportunities to design their own development learning plans related to the knowledge of holding environments in leadership education and build self-awareness around leadership educator identity and human development. Please join us for an interactive session that will offer new understanding of the important role of psychology and human development in leadership learning spaces!

Introduction

The purpose of this session is to provide leadership educator participants new knowledge related to the importance of facilitation skills to promote the psychological safety in leadership learning environments. To meet this purpose, facilitators will lead participants through learning activities where they will design development plans related to the knowledge of Holding Environments (Winnicott, 1960) in leadership education and build self-awareness around leadership educator identity (Seemiller & Priest, 2017) and human development. Accordingly, workshop participants will have opportunities to:

1. Develop their knowledge of holding environments and its relationship to facilitating development in leadership education spaces
2. Design a learning plan for increasing their knowledge of and capacity for psychological holding in leadership development
3. Build self-awareness related to leadership educator identity and human development

Review of Related Scholarship

The role of the leadership educator in facilitating a supportive and challenging learning environment cannot be overstated. Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) stress the importance of the instructor’s influence, beyond the presentation of material, in creating authentic, safe, and positive leadership learning environments that result in particular forms of growth and learning (Morgan, King, Rudd, & Kaufman, 2013). In order to facilitate an effective leadership educational environment, leadership educators must create a learning space that is both supportive and challenging and maintain a balance between individual learners as well as the group of learners who participate in our leadership education programs (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). Depending on various situational factors such as the purpose, content, or stated learning objectives of a particular leadership program, leadership educators may also be asked to take on additional roles or identities to shape their learning environment. For example, leadership educators may be asked to take on the role of social justice educators and facilitate challenging and powerful social or political dialogue (Chunoo, Beatty & Gruver, 2019), facilitate service-learning locally, regionally, or abroad (Seemiller, 2016), or develop the leadership capacity of specific populations such as youth (Chung & Personette, 2019) or doctoral students (Boyd, Getz,
& Guthrie, 2019). Yet, in each and all of these settings, roles, and identities, the key role of leadership educators in transforming leadership learning lies in the skill of facilitating the learning experience and maintaining a leadership learning environment that promotes safety and growth.

The skill of social facilitation for leadership educators requires a focus not only on aspects of individual and group processes as they relate to learning (Chiriac & Granstrom, 2012) but also in intervening skillfully when the need arises (Allen, Miguel, & Martin, 2014; Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). Correspondingly, the developmental influences of environments and group context are important topics to consider in relation to leadership education. In particular, the works of Winnicott (1965), Bion (1959), Vygotsky (1978), Bronfenbrenner (1977) are relevant for exploring developmental group environments. Holding refers to the psychological experience of being held and is a key factor in human development when individuals experience a good enough holding environment (Winnicott, 1965). On the group level, Bion (1959) described a psychological container that holds a groups’ emotions and must similarly be good enough for development. Container building exercises can be used in leadership work to establish developmental learning environments among learners. Fittingly, as leadership is viewed through both developmental and group frameworks, concepts of psychological holding coincide with facilitator and educator development.

The educator’s role in holding is of particular interest due to its association with development. Development is a creative act in which a new understanding of self is formed by experimenting with relatedness to others (Winnicott, 1989). To demonstrate this, Vygotsky (1978) offers a concept of play where individuals enter an imaginary world in which unrealizable desires can be realized. And, while Winnicott’s (1989) model situates the therapist as a guide in facilitating individual development, Vygotsky (1978) suggests a model where a more experienced individual, such as an educator, guides others to engage in self-directed growth through the zone of proximal development. Instructors should facilitate learning and create a good enough environment for leadership development. This framework can be applied to facilitate interactions that foster psychological safety, learning, and development.

**Leadership Educator Facilitators as Guides**

Leadership educators are directly involved in the variations between individuals’ experiences through their use of authority in their leadership roles and identities. Arguably, the transformative potential of leadership education may be associated with various facilitation elements that impact the use and development of authority. Correspondingly, design elements such as facilitation, boundaries, and authority may all play a role in how or to what extent groups engage in developmental activities. The psychological environment, including perceptions of psychological safety, established when engaging in activities may also impact creative experiences similar to how psychological safety has been shown to mediate creativity in workgroups (Yi, Hao, Yang, & Liu, 2017). Additionally, the use of critical reflection in debriefing helps individuals engage in transformational learning and transfer learning, like leadership education (Densten & Gray, 2001; Harvey & Jenkins, 2014), to other life situations (Kolb, 1984; Walker, 2005). These theories about developmental environments and experiential
learning inform educators in their own identity development while approaching leadership education as a particular context for development.

**Lesson Plan Description**

Guthrie and Jenkins (2018), Jenkins and Endersby (2019), and others have emphasized the importance of leadership educator professional development related to the skills of facilitation of learning and its impact on student learning in leadership programs. Accordingly, this workshop will guide participants through learning activities designed to address leadership educators’ facilitation skills as they relate to their knowledge of holding environments and build their self-awareness around leadership educator identity and human development.

Keeping this in mind, this workshop will include the following:

1. **Welcome & Introduction of Key Concepts (10-mins)** -- facilitators will welcome participants and introduce the concepts of holding environments, zone of proximal development, and container building as they relate to psychological safety, leadership educator identity, and facilitation skills.
2. **Case Research (10-mins)** -- Facilitators will connect their experiences as (a) D&D Dungeon Master/leadership coach and (b) Collegiate Leadership Competition student coach, to the concepts introduced in #1 above.
3. **Container Building Learning Activity -- reflect and debrief.**
   a. Permission slips activity (10-mins)
4. **Holding Environments Learning Activity (**-- authority relationships, personal reflection/sharing (45-mins)**
   a. Draw your experience of comfort and growth environments/zones, use color/shape, etc., to express how it feels. And locate others in relation to your zone of proximal development. (share and observe others’ drawings)
   b. Reflect on times when you as an instructor have had meaningful developmental relationships with students/others you were guiding. Reflect. Have had activating/challenging relationships with students. What were the characteristics of those experiences?
   c. How would you based on your perception draw that student’s comfort/zone of proximal development and situate your role as an experienced other. Use this to identify your strengths/natural tendencies/preferences, and potential blind spots as an authority figure that helps others develop. Pair/share.
   d. Create a brainstorm a list of possible areas for your own growth as an instructor/facilitator and steps you might take to learn more. (i.e., get coaching, 360 feedback, professional development, etc.)
5. **Large Group Debrief (10-mins)**
6. **Q&A (5-mins)**

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

To date, our experiences with group environments where the leadership educator must take on the roles of both developmental facilitator and guide come from two specific environments: (a) the Collegiate Leadership Competition (CLC) (see Allen, Schwartz, & Jenkins, 2017) and (b)
Role-playing groups playing Dungeons & Dragons (see Lasley, 2020; Lasley, in press). From this work, we have learned firsthand how knowing more about facilitation and the role of the instructor to manage the psychological environment is advantageous for leadership educators.

**Collegiate Leadership Competition**

The CLC was designed to create a practice field for leadership development (Allen, Schwartz, & Jenkins, 2017). In doing so, students engage in weekly practices that build skills in problem-solving, navigating difficult conversations, and ethical decision making (holding environment/container. At the same time, each team has a formal coach leading the team who serves as a mentor and role model (social facilitation). The competition serves as a “crucible moment” or concrete experience where participants have a chance to put their knowledge and skills into action. After the competition, teams spend time reflecting and making meaning of their experience. Recent research (Rosch et al., unpublished white paper) suggests that the coach plays a critical role in the student experience, from offering individual- and group-level feedback and support to facilitating and debriefing learning activities, and, that the level of coaching support students receive has a significant effect on students’ self-reported leadership capacity at the competition.

Keeping this in mind, the role of the coach on the sustained impact of CLC on leader self-efficacy is also worth exploring. Self-efficacy is essential for behavior change and is predicted most strongly by prior success, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion (Bandura, 1994). While the CLC curriculum encourages teams to celebrate “small wins” which highlight successes, by using specific and individualized feedback the coach can guide the participants to a more accurate and strengths-based view of their performance. Furthermore, by discussing participation in CLC as a developmental opportunity opposed to just a results-focused competition, coaches can frame perceived failures as opportunities to improve or to help participants set challenging goals for themselves which may improve self-efficacy. The challenge for coaches is to balance the desire for success (e.g., high performance at competition) with the long-term developmental needs of participants. Throughout the process, coaches act as role models, facilitating participant development and guiding the team culture. In effect, they represent a container for their students’ leadership learning experience and model acceptable reactions to success and failure. Thus, an exploration of the impact of team culture or learning orientation on self-efficacy developed by the coach may present an interesting avenue of future research.

**Dungeons & Dragons**

Tabletop Role-Playing Games (TRPG) like *Dungeons & Dragons* are unique phenomena within the topics of game-based learning and gamification of leadership development. Games in general are used for both game-based learning (learning from playing games; Svinicki & McKeachie, 2014) and as sources of inspiration for gamification—the application of game design elements in non-game contexts like education. Many potential benefits of playing TRPGs have been observed including transformative experiences linked to collective creativity.
Drawing from a developmental environment framework, a gaming environment can be considered the psychological environment present while playing a TRPG. Lasley (2020) investigated gaming environments in a group playing Dungeons & Dragons 5th edition. Findings integrated notions of psychological holding, group dynamics, and leader-member exchange in a gaming group that reported psychological safety in their experience. The following ideas are instrumental in understanding these findings about gaming environments:

- Frames of experience: human experience is perceived in particular frames of attention and organization; there are multiple frames that make up a role-playing gaming experience (Fine, 1983).
- Holding: the idea that an individual expresses needs and a source of authority provides comfort until the individual can learn to gradually take in difficult emotions themselves (Winnicott, 1960).
- Container: a group acts as a container of emotions and returns them to individuals in a more palatable form (Bion, 1959).
- Group Dynamics: a group is oriented to a group purpose; is organized around boundaries, authority, role, and task; and undergoes parallel task and interpersonal development (Bion, 1959; Tuckman, 1965; Zachary Green & Rene Molenkamp, 2005).
- Leader-Member Exchange: Leadership is exercised through individual relationships with a formal leader and relative to other followers’ relationships with that leader (Smriti et al., 2011).

The gaming environment is a psychologically layered container which depends on the use of authority in leader-member relationships and utilizes framing and storytelling processes for containing emotions. In a gaming environment, the Dungeon Master (DM) uses authority to provide holding for individuals in leader-member relationships, and by adjudicating game mechanics to provide a balance of challenge and support for the players’ experience. As a group led by the DM, each person contributes to a group container using a combination of narrative plot development and game rules systems to contain stress and make palatable meaning of emotions. Displacement into the game is another essential balance in which players merge and switch between frames of experience to effectively process and contain emotions. Value is derived from the experience when storytelling processes and debriefing are used to make meaning and return contained emotions back to the individuals.

**Workshop Implications**

Participants in this workshop will have opportunities to build self-awareness around and explore their leadership educator identity development (Seemiller & Priest, 2015, 2017) within the context of facilitator and design developmental learning plans related to the knowledge of holding environments in leadership education. Accordingly, workshop participants will have opportunities to:

1. Develop their knowledge of holding environments and its relationship to facilitating learning in leadership education spaces
2. Design a learning plan for increasing their capacity to provide holding environments for students in a leadership development context.

3. Build self-awareness related to leadership educator identity and human development

We hope that workshop participants will leave with a heightened sense of the importance of their role in facilitating leadership learning, in architecting the leadership learning environment, and the powerful impact instructors have in maintaining holding environments.

References


Qualitative Inquiry: 
Advancing Methodological Best Practices for Leadership Education

Abstract

As our world becomes more complex and connected, the study of leadership demands questions that need to be addressed in new ways. Answering the call of multiple researchers in our field, this workshop provides a look at how Qualitative Research can help us explore some of these questions. This highly participatory workshop covers some basic elements of qualitative research and traditions, provides examples from the workshop facilitators’ own work, and then engages participants in an active discussion about how they might use qualitative methods in their own research. Participants are encouraged to bring their own ideas, questions, or even current research projects for discussion.

Introduction

Emerging emphasis on the relational and socially constructed nature of leadership (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010) and education (Androetti, 2010) challenges researchers, educators, and practitioners to examine leadership - and leadership education - in new ways. Klenke (2008) describes a call for “alternative paradigms and methods of inquiry … resonating in the leadership research community” (p. 4). In his commentary on advancing the discipline of leadership studies, Riggio (2013) notes, “We are all using established methods, and if you don’t believe that, just try to get a study published in a reputable journal using some unique or rare methodology” (p. 11). Indeed, rigorous research methods are valued in any field. But it can be difficult for emerging researchers - and journal reviewers - to determine what is “sound” when one is working from/within varying paradigms and approaches. There is no distinct set of methods or practices for qualitative research; multiple approaches, methods and techniques can be used to provide important insights and construct new knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). An approach of “it depends” is not easy or lacking in rigor. Rather, in designing a qualitative study researchers must artfully weave philosophy, theory, methodology, analysis, and writing (not to mention other creative forms of representation like art or public performance), all the while remaining reflexive of their positionality and mindful of the relationship between them, their participants, and their data.

A cursory, exploratory search through the Journal of Leadership Education revealed that qualitative inquiry is a growing approach within our field. Priest and Jenkins (2019) suggest that developing capacity for scholarship and creative inquiry is a critical factor in leadership educator professional preparation and development. The Inter-Associational Leadership Collaborative (ILEC) frame critical priorities of the field within the assumption that, “to advance leadership education we must expand traditional paradigms of research and practice, and engage in forms of
scholarly inquiry that promote integrative thinking, transformative experiences, and collective meaning-making” (2019, p. 2). The purpose of this workshop is to advance these calls by supporting the development of qualitative researchers and expanding qualitative research within leadership education. Participants in this session will:

1. Understand when to use qualitative inquiry and develop qualitative questions
2. Explore an overview of various qualitative traditions/approaches
3. Analyze examples of qualitative studies
4. Work through a qualitative study design of a topic of interest/choice

Review of Related Scholarship

Defining Qualitative Research & Paradigms
When defining qualitative research, many often assume it is simply research without the use of numerical data or statistical procedures and refers to an approach that is non-quantitative or non-statistical methods of data collection and analysis. Qualitative data is far more complex than this notion as supported by seminal authors in the field of qualitative research (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln 2018, Creswell, 2014; Klenke, 2016). According to Klenke (2008) qualitative research is, “a process of naturalistic inquiry that seeks in-depth understanding of social phenomena within their natural setting or context” (p. 6).

Creswell (2014) explains researchers’ worldviews (i.e., epistemologies) are general orientations about the nature of research and often lead to embracing qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches to their research. Table one outlines four traditional worldviews, epistemological assumptions, and primary methodology for conducting research. Understanding one’s philosophical orientation is the starting point for a scholar. Klenke (2016) explains in relation to the field of leadership scholarship, qualitative methods are consistent with a social constructivist perspective supporting reality is best explored and understood by studying the ways in which people perceive, experience, and make sense of their lived events. It is possible for qualitative researchers to hold more than one worldview and make justifications for that cause. The outcome of a researcher’s worldview and assumptions ultimately translate into specific methodologies for how phenomena should be studied. Thus, scholars who focus on the “why” rather than the “what” of social phenomena lean toward qualitative research questions and methodologies.
### Table 1
*Examples of Research Worldviews and Epistemological Assumptions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigm/worldview</th>
<th>Epistemology</th>
<th>Research method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructivism/Interpretivism</td>
<td>Knowledge is subjective; meaning and knowledge are constructed through the shared meanings of human experiences</td>
<td>Qualitative Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatism</td>
<td>Knowledge is pluralist; no singular reality; focused on outcomes and the use of multiple methods to answer the research questions</td>
<td>Mixed Methods; Action Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical/Transformative; Feminist theory; Indigenous theory</td>
<td>Knowledge is to understand the nature of oppression, social justice, power structures</td>
<td>Qualitative or Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postpositivist</td>
<td>Knowledge is objective and acquired by examining empirical evidences and applications of scientific method</td>
<td>Quantitative Research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from Burkholder, Cox, Crawford, and Hitchcock (2020), Creswell (2014), and Klenke (2016).

#### Characteristics and Traditions of Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is characterized by distinguishing factors that set it apart from other traditions. First, qualitative research relies heavily on interpretations and is considered subjective in terms of analysis. Second, qualitative research is predominantly inductive and conducted in a natural setting. Qualitative studies tend to collect data where participants experience the issue, problem, or phenomena in question. Third, multiple sources of data are used to explore the phenomena such as interviews, observations, documents, images, and narratives, rather than a single data source. Fourth, the overall process for qualitative design is an emergent process (Creswell, 2014) requiring qualitative designs to be flexible (Klenke, 2016). The research plan is not prescribed and some or all phases may change or shift as the research begins to collect data. Another distinguishing factor of qualitative research is the reflexivity of the researcher, inserting their role and personal experiences of the phenomena in shaping their interpretations and the meaning they ascribe to the data. Finally, qualitative research attempts to provide a holistic account of the problem or issue by being as descriptive and expressive representing the voices of the participants' lived experiences. (See Appendix A for a partial list of resources for qualitative researchers).
Qualitative researchers use various approaches or traditions to the methodological design and structure of qualitative research. Different design approaches offer different ways to explore a research problem. For the purpose of this workshop, we will explore five traditions commonly presented in qualitative research texts: (1) Narrative Research, (2) Phenomenology, (3) Grounded Theory, (4) Ethnography, and (5) Case Study (see Appendix B).

**Challenges of Qualitative Research**

As with all research approaches, qualitative research is not without its challenges. Scholars must be cognizant of the ethical challenges from the emergent nature of the methodological designs. First, the interaction between researchers and participants can pose many challenges. In all stages of a qualitative study, anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, and the researchers’ potential impact on the participants must be taken into ethical consideration. Researchers must employ effective strategies to protect data collection and have the responsibility of protecting all participants from potentially harmful consequences that might affect them as a result of their participation.

In addition to the awareness and sensitivity needed in qualitative research, the subjective nature often calls to questions the validity and transferability of this form of inquiry. Creswell and Poth (2018) identify nine strategies used frequently by qualitative researchers and support researchers engage in at least two validation strategies in any given study. Validation strategies include: peer review, member checking, rich-thick descriptions, triangulation, reflexivity, transferability and maximum variation. (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Schwandt, 2015). Thus, the goal of this workshop is to discuss challenges associated with qualitative research and provide examples and tips for conducting ethical, valid, and transferable empirical research using qualitative methods.

**Lesson Plan Description**

**Learner Objectives:**

By the end of this methods workshop, participants will be able to:

- Define and discuss the goal(s) and purpose of qualitative research
- Identify and describe the five most common traditions of qualitative method designs
- Recognize research questions that align and justify the use of various qualitative designs
- Match research problems to different qualitative designs and identify when to use and when not to use qualitative methods
- Outline/align the process of conducting a qualitative research project
Workshop/Facilitation Outline

I. Introduction & Ice Breaker: (10 minutes)
   A. Presenters will introduce themselves and their experience as a qualitative researcher
   B. Participants will briefly introduce themselves
   C. Introduction/data gathering activity - Tear sheets around the room with three big questions. Participants will respond to questions with sticky notes or markers.
      a. What do you love about qualitative work?
      b. What concerns you or challenges you about qualitative work?
      c. What do you want/need to know about how to do qualitative work?
   D. Debrief/Transition:
      a. What themes do we see?
      b. What did we just do? (data collection)

Transition: As we discussed from ice breaker activity, qualitative is very rewarding when exploring the phenomena and social sciences of leadership studies. However, we also identified some of the key challenges and questions we face as qualitative (or soon to be) scholars. Next, we will provide a brief overview of qualitative research, its most common traditions, and core assumptions to get us all on the same page.

II. Presentation (15 Minutes):
The purpose of the interactive mini-presentation is to briefly describe and define the assumptions of qualitative research and outline common traditions and research questions. This basic overview will provide participants with a common language and shared definitions for the workshop. Specifically focusing on:
   A. What IS qualitative research
   B. When to use and not to use qualitative methods
   C. Overview of common traditions and what kinds of questions they address (See Appendix Appendix B Traditions Handout)
   D. Alignment of process (See Appendix C Alignment Handout)

Processing Questions:
- In your own work, or in working with students, what challenges have you faced in determining if qualitative work is the correct research method for the research problem?
- In doing qualitative work, how do you position yourself within your work? Do you feel this is important? Do you feel supported in your choice of qualitative methodologies?
Transition: Now that we all share a common definition for qualitative work and understand it is critical to identify and justify how research problems/questions are best suited for different types of qualitative traditions, now we will each share examples of our qualitative work and our different approaches.

III. Interactive Discussions (20 minutes):
The purpose of the interactive discussion is to provide three different examples of qualitative projects and research designs used by the presenters. This will provide the participants with different examples of developing qualitative questions and aligning different qualitative traditions. The presenters will each share examples of their research focusing on:

A. Discuss research questions
B. Qualitative design/tradition used and justification
C. Validation strategies

Processing Questions:

- What questions do you have out our design examples?
- Have any of you used similar procedures?

Transition: Now we’ve shared different examples of qualitative work on how we justified our research questions to our design and validation strategies used, we want you to work on and share your projects or ideas you are working on.

V. Activity (35 minutes):
The purpose of the interactive activity is to allow participants to bring current research projects and/or ideas for future projects to work on during the workshop in small groups.

Materials needed:

- Appendix B: Qualitative Traditions Handout
- Appendix C: Planning a Qualitative Study - Alignment Handout

Direction set: In small groups, (a) share/plan projects ideas are you interested in starting, and/or (b) work on current projects that are in process. The examples might be your own work, collaborative projects, or student projects. Using the handout, work in your groups to determine if your research questions align with your qualitative tradition and design process.

A. Starting with a problem or topic or opportunity
   a. Planning a research study - framing the question, aligning methodology and methods of data collection
B. Already collected assessment data or required assignments; retroactive IRB and consent
   a. Identifying research question, aligning framing with the methods collected
Processing Questions:
- Would each group share a current project or future project idea?
- What questions might you have moving forward?

Transition: When considering qualitative studies, what are inherent challenges that should be considered carefully?

VI. Wrap Up (10 minutes)
- Participants will provide workshop feedback using an interactive tool, Mentimeter.
- Provide workshop participants with materials

Discussion of Outcomes/Results from Using the Method

The authors for this workshop all engage in qualitative methods using different design approaches within the field of leadership studies. The presenters also have experience in teaching qualitative methods and working with graduate students on qualitative research projects. With the growing support in qualitative scholarship this workshop provides leadership scholars, educators and practitioners with the foundational information in conducting their own qualitative work.

In addition, this workshop helps address the need for adding to the field of leadership scholarship and breaking down assumptions, fears, and stigmas around using qualitative work. The phenomena and social science of leadership studies is messy, and qualitative paradigms opens space for multiple ways of knowing, forms of inquiry, and interdisciplinary perspectives. Thus, answering “what questions,” provides a lense for complementing and extending quantitative research, de-centering dominant paradigms, providing space for creativity and innovation, and reciprocity and co-creation. Below are citations that document relevant and appropriate experiences with qualitative methods by the authors.


Workshop Implications

This workshop creates an opportunity to identifying colleagues who specialize, or are simply interested in qualitative inquiry. Regardless of our scholarly history, we are all invited to co-create the future of qualitative research in and for leadership education. Through this workshop, we are creating conditions that support the development of qualitative researchers in our field. Whether emerging or experienced scholars, we can all benefit from sound decision making in the design, execution, and presentation of our studies. The practices and resources provided can also help graduate faculty in advising/supporting graduate students’ development. As leadership scholars and educators, our hope is to not only to support the production of stronger empirical outputs, but to also increase the acceptance and publication of qualitative studies in top tier journals. The knowledge and skills gained from this session will help to build participants’ capacity to peer review qualitative research manuscripts.

Our work supports increased public consumption and understanding of the value of qualitative research. Advancing qualitative research in leadership education opens up space for forms of inquiry that center multiple ways of knowing, are inclusive of cultural lenses, and promote democratic, ethical, and just methodologies. Inquiry approaches that add value to people and communities through reciprocal and mutually beneficial co-creation processes are ways of not only studying leadership and leadership education, but also engaging in leadership.
References


Durdella, N. *Qualitative Dissertation Methodology: A guide for research design and methods*


Inter-association Leadership Education Collaborative. (2019). *Collaborative priorities and critical considerations for leadership education.*


Appendix A - Qualitative Inquiry Resources (Sample)

**Journals**
- *Qualitative Inquiry (QI)*
  https://journals.sagepub.com/home/qix
- *The Qualitative Report*
  https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/
- *Qualitative Research in Education*
  https://hipatiapress.com/hpjournals/index.php/qre
- *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research*
  http://www.jeqr.org/

**Books** *(sample, a more comprehensive list will be provided at conference)*
## Comparing Five Research Traditions in Qualitative Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Biography/Narrative</th>
<th>Phenomenology</th>
<th>Grounded Theory</th>
<th>Ethnography</th>
<th>Case Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Exploring the life of an individual</td>
<td>Understanding the essence of experiences</td>
<td>Developing a theory grounded in data from the field</td>
<td>Describing and interpreting a culture-sharing group</td>
<td>Developing an in-depth analysis of a case or multiple cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Problem</td>
<td>Needing to tell stories of individual experiences</td>
<td>Needing to describe the essence of a lived phenomenon</td>
<td>Grounding a theory in the view of participants</td>
<td>Describing and interpreting the shared patterns of culture of a group</td>
<td>Providing an in-depth understanding of a case or cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best Suited for Design</td>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Cultural Anthropology</td>
<td>Political Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>History</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Urban Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td>Primarily interviews and documents</td>
<td>Primarily interviews with individuals. Documents, observations, and even art may also be considered</td>
<td>Primarily interviews with 20-60 individual</td>
<td>Primarily observations and interviews but perhaps collecting other sources during extended time in the field</td>
<td>Multiple sources: documents, archival records, interviews, observations, physical artifacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit of Analysis</td>
<td>One of more individuals</td>
<td>Several individuals who have shared the experience</td>
<td>A process, action, or interaction involving many individuals</td>
<td>A group who shares the same culture</td>
<td>An event, a program, an activity, more than one individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>Stories</td>
<td>Significant Statements</td>
<td>Open coding</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Restorying” stories</td>
<td>Meanings Units</td>
<td>Axial coding</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing themes</td>
<td>Meanings themes</td>
<td>Selective coding</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Assertions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using chronology</td>
<td>Textual and structural description of the essence</td>
<td>Thems about the group</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cross-case themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epiphanies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Historical content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative Form</td>
<td>Developing a narrative about the stories of an individual’s life</td>
<td>Description of the “essence” of the experience</td>
<td>Theory or theoretical model; generating a theory illustrated in a figure</td>
<td>Describing how a culture-sharing group works</td>
<td>Developing a detailed analysis of one or more cases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Alignment – Forward and Backward Process

Our typical way of thinking about research looks something like this:

1. Purpose of the Research
   - How will this work address a gap?

2. Research Questions
   - How will these questions address the purpose?

3. Methods and Tradition
   - How will this methodology and tradition answer your research questions?

4. Data Collected
   - Is this data consistent with your methodology and tradition?

A Backward Check is Critical to Make Sure you are on Track

- Purpose of Study
- Research Questions
- Methods and Tradition
- Data Collected
Learning Objectives

Participants will leave the session with

1. Identification and an understanding of their own personal Strengths and Shadows
2. An understanding of the Personal Shadow, Shadow Projection and the emotional challenges they pose to confronting others in a civil way
3. Knowledge of how to apply these concepts to the Group Lens of the Social Change Model of Leadership (Common Purpose, Collaboration, and Controversy with Civility) using a nationally recognized 4 tiered college leadership program as a model
4. Practical methods for managing challenging emotions related to the Personal Shadow
5. High quality educational materials that allow them to build on what they have learned in the session and to use in their own leadership programs
6. An understanding of how to infuse these concepts into elements of a leadership development program, especially when developing a curriculum focused on team effectiveness, mentoring or project management

Introduction

The cost of destructive leadership in America has never loomed larger than as it does today. We have all watched the destructive tendencies of our leaders put us on the edge of constitutional crises, disrupt and deflate national and international economies, and initiate a spike in both hate speech and human rights abuses (Ikenberry, 2016; Stokes, 2017)

As leadership educators, we have a special obligation to address the destructive sides of leadership as we help young people to step into their authority and potential. Beyond just identifying destructive leadership patterns among people of power and influence – as leadership educators, we strive to help our students to identify and diagnose not only their strengths, but also their own behaviors that may sabotage their success as developing leaders. In teaching students to understand what triggers them to respond in unskillful ways, we also teach them to turn this understanding into positive leadership potential.

The purpose of this educator workshop is to present and explore the concepts of personal shadow and shadow projection in a lively and engaging way, integrating games and exercises used in a tiered, co-curricular leadership development program at a large university. Developed through a partnership between a student affairs professional and faculty member, this curriculum is applicable to leadership programs, athletics, academic programs and corporate teams. Participants in this session will learn to identify their strengths as well as some of their own shadows and the negative projections they may make onto others. Leadership educators will learn how to use these concepts to complement leadership theory, especially as it relates to group or team development. In addition, participants will be introduced to skillful communication strategies to enhance their awareness with behavioral skills. In this way, participants can turn the initial insights they have during the seminar into skills they can use in their personal and
professional lives. Participants will also leave the seminar with high quality educational materials that allow them to build on what they have learned after they leave the seminar.

The benefit of a Strengths and Shadows seminar is three-fold. First, participants are given insight into their personalities in a new and important way; they see how the strengths that they lead with in performance situations also come with shadow sides that potentially undermine their best efforts and block them from their goals. As one past participant tellingly described, “This is helping me connect dots I never even knew I had, until now.” Second, participants are given insight into the specific emotional challenges related to effective confrontation, advice giving, persuasion, holding boundaries, and holding others accountable. Third, Strengths and Shadows presents state of the art communication strategies taken from communication science and education so that participants will not only be in the right place emotionally to manage a challenging situation or person, they’ll know the most effective things to say and do as well.

Each of these insights is of value when considering curriculum for teaching students in a theory based leadership program. While we will focus on the connection to the Social Change Model, we will also reference The Leadership Challenge and Transformational Leadership and their applications. The use of the Strengths and Shadows concepts and cards leads to increased knowledge of self and group, which certainly benefits the community.

**Review of Related Scholarship**

A pervasive and important part of leadership development involves personality testing and reflection. Personality tests like the Myers Briggs, True Colors and Strengths Quest are designed to help emerging leaders explore and talk about significant qualities and differences in their personalities. They are effective tools for helping people understand themselves and appreciate the different talents others bring to teams and projects (Chamorro-Prenuzik, 2016; Cunningham, 2012).

The majority of these tests are based on Carl Jung’s concept of the four psychological functions. These include intuition (the preference for new possibilities and the search for hidden meanings), sensing (the preference for things familiar and concrete data rather than abstract ideas), thinking (the preference to think through things before making a decision), and feeling (the preference to make decisions based on how “right” they feel: Campbell, 1971).

For example, the Myers Briggs Test conceptualizes the four functions as pairs of linked (yet opposing) personality traits; sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling, judging/perceiving, and then introvert/extrovert (this last pair touches upon either an internal or external focus of one’s energy and attention; Myers, 1980). True Colors also utilizes Jung’s typology. Whereas the Myers Briggs presents us with sixteen different personality types, True Colors reduces it down to 4: Orange (sensing/perceiving), Gold (sensing/judging), Green (intuitive/thinking), and Blue (intuitive/feeling; Stone, 2016). Stone, in his internal study at Gallop, also correlated major dimensions of the MBTI with dimensions from Gallop’s Strengths Finder test (Stone, 2016).
Helping people understand how they embody these functions to different degrees opens up a wealth of information for personal reflection and development. Understanding how others embody the functions differently unlocks the mystery of other people and helps us to better understand, appreciate, and work with people different from ourselves.

It’s not enough.

Harvard lecturer and founder of the Center for Public Leadership Barbara Kellerman writes that the leadership industry “has failed over its roughly forty-year history to in any major, meaningful, measurable way improve the human condition,” (Kellerman, 2012, p. 27). She argues that it is not enough to focus on developing good leadership without developing strategies and tactics for stemming or stopping the influence of bad leadership. Similarly, Chomorra-Premuzik (2016) argues that strengths-style leadership and education not only suffers from a lack of scientific research to verify its effectiveness, it can also produce a sense of false confidence, and lead people to over-use certain strengths until they become toxic. Other researchers describe the “too much of a good thing effect” in organizations in which positive traits and strategies are overused until they begin to produce negative organizational effects (Peirce & Aguinis, 2011). Kellerman further argues that the de-evolution of power in contemporary America has changed the dynamics of what counts as effective leadership. She argues that our current culture has emboldened followers to pry into their leaders’ lives and to hold them accountable for what their actions. Leaders now have to earn their followers as leadership becomes less a function of rank and more about effectiveness and ethics.

It is clear that we must both address the destructive potential that is also a part of leadership, and to equip emerging leaders with the best personal influence and communication strategies. While the tests mentioned above are often very effective at indicating a person’s strengths or talents, they do much less to help identify and address a person’s dysfunctional tendencies, and even less to arm leaders with the communication tools to be effective. To be fair, these tests and their attendant literature do discuss some of the challenges that come with one’s strengths and abilities; however, these concepts play a smaller and more muted role in the portrayal of personality. As such, they rarely function as effective tools to help us correct dysfunctional and destructive behavior.

Most assessments help people come to know a bit more about who they are – but give them little to do anything concrete about it. What is needed is a deeper assessment. A deep personality assessment provides a more balanced portrayal of a person’s strengths and challenges as well identifying the connections between them. In this way – we can help individuals begin to recognize their own dysfunctional tendencies and provide practical and accessible strategies they can use in the moment of a challenging situation.

While personality assessments like the Myers Briggs and True Colors have made rich use of Jung’s concept of the psychological functions, they fail to integrate other vital concepts from Jungian thought into leadership education – most notably the psychological shadow, and shadow projection (Campbell, 1971; Jung, 1969). Understanding these two concepts helps young leaders to de-escalate conflicts and handle challenging people and situations with greater mindfulness.
and skill. Blending these concepts into the training of a group of peer mentors in a leadership program has proven to have considerable value in helping the mentors most effectively support their assigned first year mentees. In the same way, adding the Strengths and Shadows activities into a leadership curriculum focused on completing a successful project through effective team work has deepened the sense of accountability teams feel towards one another and has also given them tools to manage conflict with civility and understanding.

**Lesson Plan Description**

1. Introduction of presenters and topic overview
2. Index Card Icebreaker– What attracted you to this session? What do you hope to learn?
3. Introduction to Shadow and Supportive Confrontation
4. Strengths and Shadows – What’s in the Cards?
   
   Participants identify their own Strengths and Shadows and engage in a series interactive games and exercises using a set of cards each participant receives. These activities will increase understanding of Strengths and Shadows. Participants will learn how to facilitate these activities with their students.
5. Application and Discussion of Assessment- Using the ( ) Leadership Program as an example, share how an understanding of Strengths and Shadows has enhanced and deepened the learning around the Group Value of the Social Change Model for students engaged in a year long team-based project
6. Q and A and discussion of application of the Strengths and Shadows curriculum

**Outcomes**

Assessment data shows that students are gaining personal and group insight through the use of the Strengths and Shadows curriculum in their group project work. While we have taught basic concepts around Strengths and Shadows for the past 8 years in this leadership program, the use of the Strengths and Shadows cards and intentional infusion and assessment as part of the curriculum began in fall of 2018. Our initial data shows an increase in self awareness and successful team dynamics. Students are learning how to manage the Conflict with Civility value of the Social Change Model because they understand and openly discuss the underlying dynamics or “shadows” that each group member brings.

Below are some of the results and comments from the 2018-2019 end of year assessment:

81% of students said the curriculum helped them to better understand their team members’ personalities.

87% of students said the curriculum helped them to better understand their team’s collective strengths and challenges

87% of students said the curriculum helped them to see how their team could work more effectively together.
I realized how strongly I identify with the merry maker strength and the rush hound weakness. I constantly want to feel like I am doing something exciting and I hate the feeling of missing out. I always am energetic in social and group settings because I NEVER want to be seen as boring. However, this makes me constantly search for the next exciting thing and I can fall through on commitments. After gaining insight to this shadow, I have been able to note when this shadow comes out and attempt to control it.

I have realized that I take on a lot more than I can do, because I am a hyper achiever. I should not be afraid to say "No" and make time for myself so I don't burn out midway through the semester.

I learned more about how to work on my shadows.

I learned about my strengths and the corresponding shadows and how to manage them. I know that I am a workaholic and need to work on not valuing myself solely on my accomplishments.

Learning my shadows that correspond to my strengths and how to manage my shadow is helpful in my personal problem solving and why I behave the way I do in certain situations.

When I become mad or upset with somebody, I am projecting my shadow of something that I am jealous of onto them.

The seminars helped better my understanding of how shadows/shadow projections work, and to not allow myself to succumb to casting a shadow projection onto someone who is not in the wrong.

The shadows made me more self aware of my weaknesses when working in groups.

That my hesitation to reach out for help is because of my shadow of not wanting to be a burden, my strengths as a helper put into overdrive.

You don't realize how similar you are to your family until you do the activities with the strengths and shadows.
One insight about myself that I have taken from the seminars is that I am SUCH a critic. I don't always express this in my words or actions but there is always a lot of critical talk in my head that I am constantly trying to silence.

One insight I learned about myself is that because I was raised to see the good in everyone, and to be kind to EVERYONE and forgive those who ask for forgiveness, I sometimes put my wants second in order to please those I affiliate myself with. This happens because I want to please everyone because I am scared that if I don't make people happy, they won't like me.

One insight about myself that I have taken from the seminars is that one of my shadows is the need to be liked and the need for other people to always be happy with me.

**Workshop Implications**

Participants in this workshop will leave with an increased sense of self, an outline for infusing Strengths and Shadows into a leadership curriculum focused on team effectiveness, and specific activities and tools to use in implementing concepts from this workshop. The Strengths and Shadows cards are a way to teach these concepts in an engaged, interactive and fun methodology.

**References**


Association of Leadership Educators
2020

Using (Un)Methods to Navigate Tensions in Community-Based Leadership Research

Abstract

Limited research exists on collective leadership development in the civic context. Researching this area requires new ways of thinking and new approaches to inquiry. In this workshop, participants will explore collective paradigms of leadership, community-engaged methodology, and principles of community-based research (CBR). Participants will learn about identifying tensions or ghosts in CBR and how (un)methods can be used to navigate those tensions. The facilitator will draw upon a recent community-engaged research study and invite participants to map their own research projects to identify tensions and think outside traditional methods to better achieve their research goals.

Introduction

Communities continue to face complex public challenges. Crosby and Bryson (2010) claim that public challenges must be addressed through collaboration across disciplines and sectors. Leadership scholars are demonstrating a new paradigm of leadership that better addresses the needs of today’s society in addressing public challenges. Ospina and Foldy (2016) name a shift in leadership theory from leader-centric to collective paradigms of leadership. Frameworks such as shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003), distributed leadership (Spillane, 2005), and adaptive leadership (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009) contribute to this new collective paradigm of leadership. Furthermore, leadership is being conceptualized as a process and not a position that can be exercised by anyone at anytime (O’Malley & Cebula, 2015). And Raelin (2016) describes leadership-as-practice that helps us understand the dynamic emergence of leadership in action. While these theories are still emerging, it is clear that leadership is being understood differently from a theoretical perspective.

What is less clear is how collective paradigms are being developed in civic settings. In a recent review of community leadership programs, my colleague and I found that the majority of community leadership programs still perpetuate a leader-centric paradigm ([author & author], 2019). Subsequently, there is little research about collective leadership development ([author], 2019); and furthermore, there is little research about how collective leadership development impacts the practice of civic leadership ([author], 2019).

This workshop draws from a recent study designed to study the impact of collective leadership development on the practice of civic leadership. As our understanding of leadership shifts to
more collective and emergent paradigms, it is vital that we also shift our methods for understanding this leadership in practice. Therefore, this workshop will focus on the methods used in this recent study to allow participants to examine choice points in leadership research. I will highlight tensions in this research and how both principles of community-based research and (un)methods helped navigate those tensions to gain a better understanding of the research questions.

**Review of Related Scholarship**

In this study, I used a community-engaged methodology drawing upon principles of community-based research (CBR). Participants will explore this methodology and its value for conducting research with communities. Strand, Marullo, Cutforth, Stoecker, and Donohue (2003) describe three central features of CBR:

- (1) CBR is a collaborative enterprise between academic researchers (professors and students) and community members.
- (2) CBR seeks to democratize knowledge by validating multiple sources of knowledge and promoting the use of multiple methods of discovery and dissemination.
- (3) CBR has at its goal social action for the purpose of achieving social change and social justice. (p. 6)

Efforts to enact these features will be shared in the workshop along with their related tensions. An example includes collaborating with community members to develop interview protocols but also understanding at what times collaboration, feedback, or transparency were desired.

To navigate tensions, I also named “ghostly matters” that were present in my study. This was a component of my methodology that helped guide me through the research process. Reynolds and Webber (2004) describe ghosts present in time and encourage us to put ghosts to rest and seek liberation. While the focus of their writing was around curriculum, this concept infiltrated my approach to research and helped me recognize when I was being bound by existing methods that were not liberating enough to study this new paradigm of leadership. Furthermore, Gordon (1997) wrote about the “ghostly matters” of knowledge production:

*Ghostly Matters* was conceived and written, there was an optimism in the humanities and social studies that the older institutional edifices were crumbling, that new knowledge and modes of knowledge production were possible, and that these would be led and crafted by the people who had long been excluded from the citadels of the university. (p. xviii)

Through the nature of community-based research, I was interacting with people who had been excluded from academia. This required me to navigate tensions between university and community organization cultures such as differing perspectives on time and currency of knowledge production. To disrupt traditional academic structures, including research methods, in order to be true to the principles of CBR, I allowed (un)methods to guide my research process.
Gordon (1997) wrote, “perhaps the key to methodological question is not what method have you adopted for this research? But what paths have been disavowed, left behind, covered over and remain unseen?” (p. 41). Given the new paradigms of leadership I was studying and the civic context in which I was studying, this question from Gordon challenged me to step outside traditional methods of leadership research to design a study fitting for my research question, conceptual framework, and participants. Therefore this workshop will focus on community-engaged leadership research while also considering ghosts that exist in that methodology and how (un)methods can help navigate ghosts or tensions.

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results from Using the Method**

Using community-engaged research and (un)methods to guide my research design, I ultimately designed a three phase study. Each phase built off previous work. In phase I, I brought participants together in person for a two-hour meaning making experience using deliberative civic engagement framework (Kliewer & Priest, 2016, 2019). This framework draws from Ganz’s (2010) public narrative for individuals and consists of the Story of Self, the Story of Us, and the Story of Now. The participants were guided through these three story elements to better understand their individual experiences, the group’s experience, and future action. One ghost that was present in the study was how to understand the past, present, and future leadership of the civic organization while also recognizing that data is collected within a limited scope of time. Allowing them to tell stories about the past, name current leadership work, and future leadership goals helped to surface leadership in an emergent sense as Raelin (2016) depicts.

After initial analysis of Phase I, Phase II included an open-ended survey that also drew from a collaborative autoethnography method. A traditional survey method did not match the principles of CBR and the need to democratize knowledge. Therefore, I designed this component of the study to be an interactive process among participants where the data developed would also be available at all times for the whole group.

Phase III included semi-structured interviews to allow a deeper dive into the systems-level of the study. While the original design meant to study the individual, group, and systems levels of the leadership work in the identified civic setting, analysis revealed that these three levels were discussed in all three phases. While at first this became a tension in the research, I was able to name this ghost and to determine a way to seek understanding of the research question while shifting my method of analysis. Ultimately, I coded across all three phases rather than separating the findings from each phase. This allowed me to really listen to knowledge the participants were revealing—which was that these three levels are always operating together.

Lastly, one of the most important outcomes of using community-engaged methodology and (un)methods was the ability to hear the answer to a research question I had not yet formed. I was
particularly interested in how the collective leadership development intervention impacted the practice of civic leadership in a community coalition. More simply, I wanted to know what leadership educators taught the community participants. What surfaced very loudly in the study was a lot of data about what community participants could teach leadership educators about how to better design leadership development interventions. Honoring the knowledge of the community I was able to gain knowledge that would have remained unseen or would have been left behind.

Workshop Implications

This workshop is designed for participants to learn about existing methods such as CBR and to identify opportunities to generate new methods in their own research. Ultimately, participants will:

- understand emerging theories of leadership how these theories may require new ways methods for research;
- learn about community-engaged methodology and principles of community-based research;
- name ghosts or tensions that exist in their own research;
- identify how current methods may leave areas unexplored or unseen; and
- how embracing (un)methods may create opportunities for a more robust approach to knowledge production.

This workshop will benefit participants in seeing new opportunities to get outside traditional methods to innovate methods that can better meet the needs of their research questions. Ultimately, this could help us better understand dynamic practices of leadership that involve complex adaptive systems, multiple layers, and continuous emergence. Through designing studies better suited for this paradigm of leadership, we may be better able to learn from those practicing leadership in ways that help us as leadership educators design more effective leadership development interventions.

Lesson Plan Description

- (5 min) Introductions
- (10 min) Framing of Collective Paradigms of Leadership
  - Contributing theoretical work (collective Leadership, adaptive leadership, shared leadership, distributed leadership, leadership-as-practice)
  - Studies and methods used to study collective leadership (summary of previous literature review)
  - Discussion: How have you seen this theoretical work emerging in your own leadership work? What limitations exist given the current methods of research?
- (30) Exploring Ghosts/Tensions
○ What ghosts must we acknowledge to be able to:
  ■ See differently?
  ■ Hear differently?
  ■ Show up differently?
  ■ Feel differently?
○ Provide an example of a current research identifying ghosts in their own research using excerpts from Dominguez (2019)
○ Use recent study as a case study for identifying ghosts/tensions in community-engaged research
  ■ Discussion of community-engaged research and principles of CBR
  ■ Overview of study
  ■ Share tensions and invite discussion
  ■ Share how un(methods) were used to navigate the tensions
● (30) Identifying Ghosts and Need for Un(methods) in Research
  ○ Individually map an existing research project or partnerships (pull from design-thinking for process)
    ■ Actions
    ■ Emotions
    ■ Tensions/ghosts
  ○ Discuss the map with a partner
  ○ Reflection questions:
    ■ If you were not trying to follow a particular method, what might you do differently to respond to an emotion, tension, or ghost in your research?
    ■ Are there current methods that may guide your innovation of an (un)method to help you better address your research goals?
● (15) Discussion and Questions
  ○ How did the idea of ghosts and un(methods) help generate new thinking around your research?
  ○ What is one thing you are taking away from this session?
  ○ What questions still remain?

References


https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800418809122


Leadership development suffers a plethora of complex problems. One of the missing components can be summarized as the meta challenge for leadership development: How to navigate the complex topics of leading? How can a student, researcher, a middle manager, an L&D specialist or a CLO plot a pathway through such a confusing landscape? The Prometheus Project’s scholar-practitioners have generated a framework to address this meta-problem. This workshop will introduce the Prometheus Leadership Commons framework as a design element as well as a method, as we demonstrate Collective Intelligence’s eye-reading for social IQ, Liberating Structures’ 1 2 4 ALL, and ed-tech Mentimeter collaboration software as learning practices.

Introduction

Educators, practitioners, or sponsors of leadership development want to identify goals and objectives for leadership development that meet the full range of learning domains, including affective, cognitive and psycho-motor or transfer to action objectives. In the broad field of leadership development there is lack of consensus, and even confusion, about what constitutes a full set of objectives, and necessarily even less about the sequencing of them.

Our goal is to demonstrate an effective framework and methodologies for facilitating exploration and consent with a diverse group context around the complex and too often confounding topic of leadership.

The Prometheus Project has a set of initiatives that are designed for structural change in leadership development. The first of these initiatives is a framework for navigating the topics of leadership and leadership development that can be consented to as goals and objectives across any of the stakeholders, contributors or sponsors of leadership development. To achieve this end, a research team with a global footprint, research design expertise, depth in multiple disciplines, diversity of experience/roles was assembled. The structure of the team included a primary workgroup and secondary reference and feedback group.

The workshop will introduce the framework (Appendix A) with 34 components as a method for strategic, operational and tactical planning development from curriculum to lesson design. Further in this workshop we will demonstrate and use methods of Social IQ awareness (Appendix B), Liberating Structures’ 1 2 4 All (Appendix C), and Mentimeter software to enable participant outcomes in two ways. First, introduce the structure and elements of the research’s framework. Second, by the experience of three techniques used for Collective Intelligence, Social eye-Q and Liberating Structures, and the Mentimeter toolset.
Outline of learning objectives includes:

a) Awareness of Prometheus Leadership Commons framework and understand its key elements and potential use as a guideline for development program planning and design.

b) Understanding Collective Intelligence techniques of Social eye-Q, the 1-2-4-ALL Liberating Structures, and Mentimeter ed-tech methodologies for group learning practices.

c) Assimilate by applying the framework categories in practicing the methods. Specifically, eye reading, individual reflection, paired comparisons, and group expression and consent.

d) Creation of a collective whole-group perspective on the framework an ALL reporting method using the Mentimeter software.

e) Identify opportunities for follow up and additional learning.

Review of Related Scholarship

In a 2012 interview (Volkmann, 2012) Barbra Kellerman (2018) summarizes the state of leadership research and practice in direct language; “there is a lot of stuff out there that is less than wonderful” (n. p.). She is not alone in her views.

Veldsman and Johnson (2016) describe the dilemma as: “To the best of our knowledge, no overall, systemic, integrated and holistic view of leadership exists, and few organizations adopt a systemic, integrated approach to leadership” (p. 2).

A CEC report (2017) noted a profound conceptual confusion about what leadership and leadership development is about. Moldoveanu and Narayandas (2016) identify material gaps in both the curriculum topics and the ability of program design to effect transference from the classroom to action. Finally, according to a Harvard Business School survey, only 19% of business line managers believe the (leadership) program experience is relevant to the issues they face. In other words, good intelligent professionals and stakeholders are frustrated, and we are all the lesser for it.

These problems are seen as good examples of adaptive problems, and not technical ones (Heifetz, 1994, Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Fritz, 1989). In other words, more work, effort, and time with conventional resources are not likely to solve the problem and may exacerbate the problem. Rather, a structural shift and an alternative approach are necessary to see systematically different results. To this end, the concept of The Prometheus Project was conceived on a sunny July in Barcelona, 2018.

The framework as a method, and the companion workshop techniques, are designed to show a full cycle of learning is supported by a systemic learning process such as what is represented by Dawson’s VCcLl model (Stein, Dawson, Van Rossum, Rothaizer, & Hill, 2014). For learning the complex capacities and skills involved in leading, program designers would have to have sub
components that were well-enough defined for a clear pedagogical sequencing of skill development, but also for learning-cycle support across the social context.

The designers of the framework leveraged the practice of Collective Intelligence (Woolley, Chabris, Pentland, Hashmi, & Malone, 2010). Subsequently, we have identified this as a learning method for practitioners. This practice is both a learning objective (a capability of leading in a group) as well as a method for group collective learning. An organization called LabintheWild (2020) has created a social intelligence test which we illustrate for awareness and experience; social intelligence being identified as a key enabling factor in collective processes.

One of the obstacles in leading groups is to facilitate strong consensus practices that are inclusive of diverse stakes in the topic of discourse. Liberating structures includes practices that we identify as leading skills, so the 1 2 4 All practice is also an objective of the session and a method for effective group critical thinking and collaboration (Ferguson, et al., 2015). Finally, in the complex real world today, larger groups size, the press of time and remote work teams all create a challenge for this kind of collaboration and we have chosen Mentimeter software as an ed-tech tool. The tool especially enables valuable anonymous feedback which is both practical and developmental (Jacobs, et al., 1974).

Summarizing the results of the research, the leadership framework is intended as a guide for the navigation of complexity by all of the stakeholders and participants in the stages of learning.

Our first hypothesis is that the categories of the framework are effective constructs for development curriculum and learning objectives.

Our second hypothesis is that collaboration and group creative techniques that the researchers applied in their research, are also excellent candidates for learning leadership skills, as they are objectives for that learning.

Briefly, the Prometheus Leadership Commons framework is a five-level model, two of which are ancillary contextual constructs, and three are core content (Appendix A) consisting of:

Level 1 - six meta-systems or domains. Each of these domains informs highest-level goal and objective-setting by the development community, likely at the curriculum level. But also, they are effective constructs for individual learners who are building a learning plan. These are the primary findings of the research.

Level 2 - each of the Level 1 meta systems (above) are divided into four or five subsystems or subdomains for a total of twenty-eight sub-domains across the meta-systems / domains. Each of these inform the learning plans and designs of learners and development community, most likely at the course level.
Level 3 - Level three is defined for further detail elements at the course or lesson level, and these are the subject of further research. Two classes of elements are defined for Level 3, topical and composite elements (or constructs). Topical being made up of single subjects that are seen as first-order constructs used for higher-level abstractions as well as for assembly into composite or higher order constructs) elements. An example of a composite element may be the concept of “grit”, which may be composed of topical elements such as emotional maturity, persistence, goals setting and holding principles.

The researchers assert that they have materially met their goals of a navigational model that is simple, valid and generalizable to all the stakeholders; suitable as constructs for development and sequencing of learning objectives, and with language that is chosen be as unbiased, jargon-free and vernacular as possible.

Lesson Plan Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>• The Prometheus framework background and goals as a navigation method for a complex subject area.</td>
<td>Cognitive: participants acknowledge understanding of the background and goal of the framework by show of hands.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Prometheus framework focus area | • Short presentation introducing 6 domains (out of 34 elements) and the 1 domain that is a focus for this workshop.  
• Clarifying questions  
• Materials - infographic of the framework | Cognitive: participants acknowledge understanding of the background and goal of the framework by show of hands.  
Behavioral: participants indicate comfort reading and interpreting the framework graphic |
| Logistics                 | • Connect each member to the tool, make sure each (most) can submit info | Successful test of the tool |
| Collective Intelligence   | • Short presentation introducing research of Woolley on collective intelligence.  
• Ice-breaker/demonstration on social intelligence - reading the eyes | Cognitive: audience can provide some examples of why collective may be more effective than expert.  
Behavioral: group members practice reading the others expressions |
| 1 2 4 ALL method          | • Small group exercise designed to quickly elicit diverse information from larger groups. | Behavioral: participants can execute the method |
| Framework Content Retrospective | • Comparison of the group observations with the additional detail that was chosen in the initial research: What this group found, what the researchers identified.  
• Brief comments from the audience on the content of the Framework: What went well? What would they recommend?  
• Distribute the full one-page framework. | Cognitive: Deepen the understanding of the framework and its usefulness/application in relation to own experiences. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Follow up options | • Participating options using or exploring the model/research with link to free-trial subscription for attendees.  
• Link for more information on Liberating Structure and Mentimetrics | Behavioral: list is available and completed  
Behavioral: each facilitator share briefly. |
| Closing | • Facilitators share personal appreciation and learning meta-perspectives  
• Thank you |  
| | | |
Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The facilitators have used the conference methodologies of Collective Intelligence and Liberating Structures in both research and workshops, most recently in a workshop in Hong Kong in Dec 2019. The Level 1 structures have been introduced in a program around leadership in Program Management in Sweden in Dec 2019. The Mentimeter tool has been used by over 25 million participants, and in conference we have applied it in the yearly Agile People Sweden Conference (250 participants) for the last couple of years.

The Prometheus framework as a method for organizing leadership development is a new proposal from our research which we present as part of this conference’s proceedings, but which we gain further field experience in this workshop and in a digital community of We Lead Global (www.weleadglobal.info).

Workshop Implications

Our expectation and experience to date is that the framework, with its vernacular and relatively jargon-free language and its consistency with major research sources, can be used to engage leadership development across the stakeholder spectrum from executive sponsor to front-line learner.

We believe that the sound background of research and practice reflected in the Prometheus framework, and the straight-forward business language used, can greatly enhance the understanding and commitment of both executive sponsors and learners.

We point to the experience that many have with communication, from one-one, small groups to larger and cross organization groups. It is very often difficult to know that everyone is having the same conversation. This is especially true in the leadership space where there is such an oversupply of terms and concepts that have not been reconciled. So, an immediate value of the framework is that we have a container and context for communication about complex topics.

Our perspective is that many practitioners and researchers recognize that ‘the whole is more than the sum of its parts’ and that collective problem solving and creative action is a necessary capability. We think that the practices of Collective Intelligence help clarify and legitimize this for the practitioner, and that the methods of Liberating Structures are strong value experiences.

Similarly, we think that many practitioners and researchers recognize that social intelligence is a critical part of communication and collaboration, and that the technique and exercises for eye-reading will be seen as a fresh and useful method. They also make an excellent ice-breaker.
We believe that many facilitators and lesson planners are interested in ed-tech that is affordable and easily supports group facilitation, both in-the-room and especially remotely.

Many practitioners and researchers have strong motivations about leadership and leadership development, we believe that we can open future engagement in the Prometheus initiatives for those who would value contributing to and benefiting from that community of practice.

References


Appendix A
Prometheus Leadership Commons Framework

**PROMETHEUS LEADERSHIP COMMONS**
A SHARED FRAMEWORK TO NAVIGATE LEADING AND LEADER DEVELOPMENT

**Develop Inner Capacities**

**A. CAPACITY TO BE**
Personality and Identity that enables leading
1. **Self Identity** - fundamental construction of me
2. **Self Experience** - instinct, emotion and self-talk
3. **Self Profession** - values, purpose and convictions
4. **Physical Self** - energy, vitality and pathways
5. **Collective Self** - trans-personal identity and values

**B. CAPACITY TO KNOW**
Quality of learning, sense-making, confidence
1. **Learning** - learning to learn
2. **Exploring** - instinct, intuition, semiotics, somatics
3. **Thinking** - bias, discernment, consent
4. **Complexity** - polarity, structure, construction
5. **Domains** - knowing the context we lead in

**C. CAPACITY TO LOVE**
Creative relationship with the outside
1. **Presence** - all ways of listening and connecting
2. **Devotion** - purpose that opens motivation
3. **Service** - enabling others, followership
4. **Openness** - vulnerability and co-influence.

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**Master Adaptive Skills**

**X. ENGAGE PEOPLE**
Skills to lead in diverse organization contexts.
1. **One on One** - between individuals
2. **Groups** - high-performing teams
3. **Complex** - globally, cross-boundaries, scale
4. **Humans** - differences in people, power and culture
5. **Collective** - co-leaders, co-learners, co-influencers

**Y. ENGAGE CHALLENGES**
Skills fit to patterns of work challenge
1. **Crisis** - in high importance and urgency
2. **Discover** - in ideation, innovation & creativity
3. **Change** - in scaling and transitioning
4. **Perform** - incremental continuous improvement
5. **Complex** - globally, cross-boundaries, scale

**Z. LEAD RESULTS**
The essential processes of leading (FIICRA)
1. **Frame** - prepare ahead and in the moment
2. **Intention** - establish vision, goals, or points of inquiry
3. **Consent** - sufficient to commit to act and experiment
4. **Resolve** - design, experiment and realize the intention
5. **Attend** - notice, appreciate and recognize
Appendix B
Social IQ Eye-Read Exercise

**Intended Outcome:**
Participants gain awareness of reading the eyes as a useful SQ/EQ skill, and its relationship to Collective Intelligence.

**Background:**

Emotional/social intelligence (EQ or SQ) is connected to how well we can utilize the collective intelligence of a team (Woolley et al., 2010) and to identify the emotion from another’s eyes is a measure of Social IQ (Labinthewild, 2020)). This exercise demonstrates these concepts.

This exercise has these participant roles: A **READER** *(you interpret the eye expression)*; **EMOTER** *(you hold the emotion so it can be read)*; **SCORER** *(calculates the SQ of the group, illustratively)*

**Steps:**

- **Preparation**
  - The facilitator will form groups and lead a short mindfulness practice
  - Each person quickly chooses 4-6 emotion cards that they will use in the exercise.
  - Take a moment to ‘be with’ each of these

- **Eye Reading Rounds** *(facilitator choice)*
  - EMOTER picks one card and feels the emotion, looking at the READER
  - READER looks in the eyes of the other, and quickly determines what emotion they think they see in their eyes.
  - The READER says “I see (insert)”
  - The EMOTER confirms or corrects if the READER got it right
  - The READER keeps note if they read correctly or not

- **Debrief within the Group of 4**
  - Share your experience.
  - A SCORER in the group calculates what % of the emotions were read correctly.
    (if each person’s count was 2 correct and 1 incorrect, then the group count would be 8 correct and 4 incorrect, and the % correct would be 8 of 12 or 66%)

- **Debrief with ALL the room**
  - What was your group’s % of READ success?
    One person from each group shares the groups sense of the value of this experience

Appendix C
1 2 4 ALL Instruction Sheet

Intended Outcome: Harness the collective intelligence from a group, eliciting engagement and participation.

Background: Most meetings in traditional organizations are often too rigid, with a meeting chair, etc. or they are too loose, with just open discussion. In both cases, the collective intelligence of the group is not utilized. The Book Liberating Structures by Henri Lipmanowicz and the corresponding website http://www.liberatingstructures.com/ address this problem with several practices. 1-2-4-All is one of the more popular. Here follows a summary:

Steps:

1. **Individually (1) reflect** on the question stated. This ensures everyone's opportunity to reflect and time to think before anyone jumps in (and color the continued conversation).

2. **Share with the person next to you (2).** This is a safe way to share and test new ideas rather than speaking up in front of a big group.

3. **In groups of 4** bring your ideas from previous steps and share it with a small group. Collect ideas and record them. Be sure to consider the whole group.

4. **Make a “round” and collect one idea from each group to be shared with (all).** Take one idea at a time and do as many rounds as desired. We will collect the ideas with a software product. So, “cell phone on”!

5. **Collecting ideas using the Mentimeter software.**
   One person in each group goes to https://www.menti.com/ Use the code shown on the screen. As the presenter prompts for a response, enter the groups collective ideas.
Teaching Transformative Leadership

Abstract
In order to meet 21st century challenges, employers and society need transformative leaders – those who are committed to equity, justice, access, and opportunity. The Student Leader Activist Identity Continuum provides a useful framework for the development of learner, ally, advocate, and activist identities through which students can engage in transformative leadership. Participants in this workshop will design lessons and activities to promote the development of these identities and learn to incorporate resources specifically designed for this purpose. Participants may elect to make their activities available to each other in order to further the formation of a community of leadership educators focused on transformative leadership.

Introduction
Transformative leaders are committed to values and outcomes that serve the long-term interests of society (Caldwell, Dixon, Floyd, Chaudoin, Post, and Cheokas, 2012). When one is engaging in transformative leadership, one is working to enhance equity, justice, access, opportunity, democracy, and civic life (Astin & Astin, 2000). At a time when an increasing number of companies participate in the Human Rights Campaign’s Equality Index – a system of rating companies based on their commitment to equity and access – it is imperative that leadership educators are preparing students to engage in transformative leadership as they enter the labor market. Further, leadership students are expressing a desire to confront these issues as well.

In order to articulate the behaviors and identities transformative leaders engage in, Bruce, McKee, Morgan-Fleming, and Warner (2019) proposed a continuum of identities from learner to ally to advocate to activist. Individuals’ identities shift within the continuum, engaging in more or less public identities as they become aware of and passionate about different justice issues (Bruce, et al., 2019). Leadership educators must be armed with tools and resources to promote students’ development of these identities and their ability to shift across the continuum in appropriate ways in different contexts.

Review of Related Scholarship
Transformative leaders critique inequitable practices, ask questions of justice and democracy, address issues of individual and public good and operate out of an overriding commitment to justice and equity (van Oord, 2013; Shields, 2010; Shields, 2016; Shields, Dollarhide & Young, 2018). In order to maintain commitments to values and outcomes that serve long-term societal interests, transformative leaders must examine their sense of self, re-think their assumptions, and be willing to explore new solutions and systems (Caldwell, Dixon, Floyd, Chaudoin, Post, and Cheokas, 2012; Christensen and Raynor, 2003; Pava, 2003; Quinn, 1996). Bruce, et al. (2019) propose that students engage as transformative leaders by developing identities along a Student Leader Activist Identity Continuum (Appendix A). Within this continuum, they examine their sense of self and represent themselves as learners, allies, advocates, and activists.

Learners are self-aware and aware of others, willing to uncover “hidden” biases, able to engage in critical reflection, and are curious to examine their own thinking, control, and cultural domination (Brown, 2006; Dunn, 1987; Senge, 1990). Allies work toward the goal of ending
oppression by personally supporting individuals experiencing oppression (Washington & Evans, 1991). As individuals engage in allyship, they begin to position themselves as agents for change (Trueba, 1999). Advocates communicate calls to action, work to change policy, engage in fundraising, speak or write about causes, and speak on behalf of – or amplify the voices of – impacted people (Ganz, 2009; Bruce, et al., 2019). Activists organize others in calls to action and address injustice through organizing events such as phone banks, neighborhood canvasses, and letter-writing or social media campaigns (Ganz, 2009; Trueba, 1999; Bruce, et al., 2019). The most public of the identities, activists develop teams and maintain networks to address issues and motivate others to engage in learner, ally, advocate, or activist identities.

**Workshop Objectives**

Throughout the 90 minute interactive session, workshop attendees will have the opportunity to preview the Building Leadership Bridges volume, *Transformative Leadership in Action: Allyship, Advocacy, & Activism*. Facilitators will use Furman’s (2012) framework of praxis, dimension, and capacity building to ensure that by the end, all participants can:

1. Apply concepts of transformative leadership, learner, ally, advocate, and activist identities to develop learning opportunities for their students

2. Apply the concepts from the workshop to develop an activity using *Transformative Leadership in Action* in their leadership education program

**Detailed Workshop Plan**

The workshop will begin with an overview of the text and transformative leadership. Participants will then engage in a sample activity to process a case study in the manner that they may ask their students to do so. Finally, participants will begin design of an activity to teach a section of the text in their own courses or contexts.

1. Introduction of Presenters & Participants (10 minutes)
   a. Participants will be asked to share their names, professional positions, and pronouns.

2. Exploration of Positionality (5 minutes)
   a. Presenters and participants will acknowledge their social locations in order to understand their own positionality in relation to questions of democracy, justice, and equity.
   b. Presenters and participants will use the Student Leader Activist Continuum (Bruce, McKee, Morgan, Warner, 2019) to self identify where they are in their own activist journey.

3. Reflection (5 minutes)
   a. Participants will be asked to reflect on the following questions individually to contextualize individual learning. Participants will be asked to write the answers to these questions as an exercise to acknowledge and bracket their own biases and social locations.
      i. What do the words ally, advocate and activist bring up for you? What pictures do these evoke?
      ii. How do you see your role as a leadership educator in the context of justice and equity?
4. How do you Review of Transformative Leadership & Identity Development for Transformative Leadership (10 minutes)
   a. A short PPT presentation will be used to review the salient tenets of transformative leadership (Shields, 2010) and Identity Development (Bruce, et al., 2019)
      i. Participants will be provided copies of the PPT and Continuum.

5. Simulation #1 (40 minutes)
   a. Participants will be introduced to the Transformative Leadership In Action text
   b. Participants will be asked to work in pairs and small groups to develop a short lesson plan using the pedagogy chapters in the book.
      i. Participants will be given a lesson plan outline and provided example lessons to help jumpstart creativity.
   c. Participants will be asked to work in pairs or small groups to develop a short lesson plan using the “Tales from the Real World” and “Case Studies”
      i. Participants will hear from one of the authors of a case study here to help answer questions and supercharge discussion.

6. Debrief (10 minutes)
   a. Participants will be asked to share some of the lessons that they have developed
   b. Challenges and opportunities will be discussed and contextualized based on participant professional positions.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes)
   a. Q&A for any other burning questions
   b. Facilitator information will be provided

Outcomes
Participants in the workshop will develop familiarity with the resources available within Transformative Leadership in Action that can be used to facilitate student development of learner, ally, advocate, and activist identities. Further, each will have begun development of a lesson plan using materials from the text. Finally, developed lessons - with participants’ permission - will be made available to all participants through a shared drive after the conference.

Implications
Use of these resources – and similar – to develop students’ identities within the Student Leader Activist Identity Continuum in existing programs over several cohorts has resulted in continued student engagement as learners and increased engagement as allies, advocates, and activists (Bruce, et al., 2019). Students recognize this growth in themselves reporting that “This multidimensional approach enables students to be able to continue their personal and social growth while also growing into competent and well-rounded prospective employees. We develop skills that make us change activists in politics, industry, education, and our personal lives,” (Bruce, et al., 2019). Multiple students have secured internships and full-time employment as a result of their development across the continuum as well. This workshop should serve to
facilitate the use of *Transformative Leadership in Action* in other leadership education programs, create a database of lessons and activities leadership educators can use, and further develop and strengthen a community of leadership educators working in this vein to support each other.

**References**


### Appendix A

**Student Leader Activist Identity Continuum Handout**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Ally</th>
<th>Advocate</th>
<th>Activist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open to new experiences; curious; willing to hear and learn</td>
<td>Supports a group’s rights &amp; equality; shows up for individuals and groups experiencing marginalization; recognizes own privilege</td>
<td>Aims to influence others &amp; public policy or resource decisions</td>
<td>Campaigns to bring about political and social change; organizes others to generate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listens, reads, observes, asks, believes; continues these behaviors throughout development of subsequent identities</td>
<td>Goes with an impacted person to an event or service; supports an individual or organization materially or emotionally; attends events, carries signs, wears the t-shirt</td>
<td>Engages in media campaigns; speaks or writes publicly, conducts research or polling and shares results, issues briefs, participates in phone banks/letter-writing/canvassing; donates or participates in fundraising</td>
<td>Lobbies; organizes fundraisers; organizes teams and events to address issues</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Student Leader Activist Curriculum from Bruce, McKee, Morgan-Fleming, and Warner (2019). Used with permission from authors.*
In Tune with Women’s Leadership: Undergraduate Programs to Navigate the Labyrinth

Abstract
This interactive workshop provides an opportunity for participants to consider the need for and growth of leadership programs for undergraduate women. Drawing from research and best practices, the session will introduce the topic and consider findings from a survey on effective curricular and co-curricular approaches to the education and development of undergraduate women leaders. Facilitators will highlight key components of programs and participants will consider possibilities and strategize on initiatives on their own campus to help young women navigate the “Leadership Labyrinth.”

Introduction

The attention to women’s leadership is continually growing and expanding beyond fundamental gender differences and has begun to focus on what skills and abilities will help women fully succeed in the many career fields where the disparity between male and female leadership success is prevalent. Though men and women often have more in common regarding leadership than not, the disparity often emerges in the skills and awareness that women are being equipped with. A great deal of research and programming has been developed for graduate and professional students, the growth of similar programs for undergraduates has seen an increase in recent years. Participants of this session will:

1. Better understand the status of undergraduate women’s leadership programs,
2. Learn about and consider best practices, and
3. Find ways to help leverage opportunities and skills for the women that they work with.

Review of Related Scholarship

The percentage of women entering higher education and the workforce continues to rise, and yet the challenge of a “Leadership Labyrinth” is as true today as it was when Eagley and Carli (2007) introduced the concept. The Labyrinth analogy suggests that Women are forced to traverse a maze filled with challenges, complexities, dead ends, detours and unusual paths in order to be successful leaders. For undergraduate women to become successful, it’s necessary to create experiences and models that best help them understand and later apply learning in order to successfully navigate what they might face.

Since 2000, educational attainment rates of females have been generally higher than males at each education level (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). While women comprised nearly half of the workforce, approximately 14% of Fortune 500 Executive Officer positions and 4.8% of CEO positions are held by women (Catalyst, 2014). In the area of public service on a global scale, women occupy 22.7% of national parliaments (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2015). All of this data indicates a need to better prepare younger women leaders, and the need to create relevance for students followed by tangible strategies on how to best lead.

Previous research has been done to evaluate leadership differences between male and female undergraduates, however, few have evaluated effectiveness from a programmatic standpoint. Multiple studies have found disadvantages women might face focused on social expectations of
leadership behavior as opposed to leader realities when women may utilize a behavior that is less acceptable (Rosch, Collier & Zehr, 2014; Eagly et al., 1993; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Ely et al., 2011). From an individual perspective, Rosch, Collier & Zehr (2014) noted that:

men scored women higher than women scored men on both scales of leadership, which was consistent with how men and women scores themselves. However, scores from male teammates were particularly depressed in males’ evaluation of their female teammates’ transactional leadership behaviors. These findings corroborate past research that showed that women are received as acceptable relationship-oriented team leaders but revealed a female disadvantage in how others perceive them as task-oriented leaders (Eagly et al., 1993; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Ely et al., 2011). (p. 112)

Transformational leadership in women was also investigated by Gallagher, Marshall, Pories and Daughety (2014) who noted the preference that women may have for transformational leadership “these results imply when developing leadership development programs it is important to take into consideration the gender of the students or trainees since men and women appear to have different comfort levels with specific practices” (p. 53). There continues to be a gap between leadership theory and practice in higher education which influences university constituencies (Wang & Berger, 2010). One approach to addressing this gap is evaluating how programs might best meet the needs of a growing number of women in leadership development and education programs.

As research and interest in preparing women for leadership opportunities continues to grow, there is a relevant need to evaluate current programs directed at female undergraduate students. Educational programs based in the curriculum in addition to extracurricular programs focused on development serve important roles. While great success has been met for some programs, it has not been determined how effective the programs are in comparison with others and what attributes contribute to success. The relevant research is the first step to offering more comprehensive support to collegiate women, with the necessary next step of determining how such attributes might benefit other programs.

In order to best differentiate between education and development, education is defined as that which “focuses on learning new skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will equip an individual to assume a new job or to do a different task at some predetermined future time” (Nadler, 1984, p. 6) and occurs primarily within the context of the curriculum. Additionally, we define development as those activities which “are not job-related but are oriented to both personal and organizational growth. The focus of such activities is on broadening the learner’s conceptual and perceptual base in areas not previously explored or experienced by the individual” (Nadler, p. 7) – these occur primarily in the co-curriculum.

Despite the need for programs that specifically prepare women students, there continues to be a gap between leadership theory and practice in higher education which influences university constituencies (Wang and Berger, 2010). One approach to addressing this gap is evaluating how programs might best meet the needs of a growing number of women in leadership development and education programs.
Lesson Plan Description (A clear plan of detailing the steps of activity. How will you demonstrate or model this activity for conference participants?)

This workshop will serve a variety of purposes, through considering findings from a recent study on effective programs aimed at developing and educating women leaders, sharing experiences on developing and improving programs, and subsequently providing a venue to discuss how the information may be applied in the participants’ home setting.

First, an evaluation of the state of women’s undergraduate leadership education and development will be reviewed. The primary focus of the workshop will provide the opportunity for guided discussion in smaller groups on how to best apply the information in their home community. The top goal of this session is to focus attention on how campuses or communities can most effectively meet the needs of undergraduate women.

As a result of participation in this session, participants will:
1. Review relevant literature regarding gender differences in leadership - Kahoot activity to reinforce the relevance of this issue for half of our student body
2. Review common elements and two specific cases of creating programs for undergraduate women leaders - groups will evaluate findings to determine the most popular elements in a game-style activity
3. Discuss the application of best practices in the participants’ own campuses or another setting - using the attached handout, participants will map potential areas to consider in the design and content of a program
4. Create an action plan - participants will utilize an action planning worksheet to determine potential areas for the inclusion of educational or developmental initiatives for their institution

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The presenters for this workshop both work with women’s leadership programs, one as a faculty member and academic program coordinator and the other as a staff member coordinating a co-curricular program. The results come from a multi-institutional study that assessed nearly 70 institutions and 15 in-depth interviews. Bringing decades of experience as leadership educators and practitioners, the goal is to help other campuses develop or expand their own efforts to support women students who are more likely to be successful with specific strategies and components incorporated into their undergraduate experience.

Workshop Implications

The findings of a recent study (Gallagher, 2019) report that the majority of undergraduate women’s leadership programs most often occur in larger, public, co-educational institutions. Situated, funded and supported across institutions, the programs offer insight on strategies and best practices for other institutions considering how to best prepare the women in their programs to excel in a world that is still working to balance equity in leadership. The implications for this
workshop are offering insights on what professionals might do on their own campuses to address this growing area of leadership education and development.

References


### Women's Leadership Program Map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defining Characteristics</th>
<th>Potential Challenges</th>
<th>Campus Partners</th>
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<tr>
<td>Funding?</td>
<td>Curriculum?</td>
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<td>Community Partners</td>
<td>Recruitment Strategies</td>
<td>Threat?</td>
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<td>Outcomes &amp; Assessment</td>
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**Idea space**
### Action Plan for [Proposed Program Name]

Change to Be Sought: 

Collaborating Organization(s) Group(s): 

### ACTION STEPS

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Action Steps</th>
<th>By Whom</th>
<th>By When</th>
<th>Resources and Support Available/Needed</th>
<th>Potential Barriers or Resistance</th>
<th>Communication Plan for Implementation</th>
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<td>Who will take actions?</td>
<td>By what date will the action be done?</td>
<td>Resources Available</td>
<td>Resources Needed (financial, human, political, and other)</td>
<td>What individuals and organizations might resist? How?</td>
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INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

Numbers correspond with proposal numbers assigned upon submission.

33. Interdisciplinary Cohorts: An Innovative Teaching and Learning Practice
   Candace Bloomquist, Creighton University
   Lydia Holtz, Creighton University

45. Leading by Ear: Podcasting as an Educational Leadership Tool
    (Conference Award: Distinguished Innovative Practice Paper)
    Charlotte Norsworthy, University of Georgia
    Keith Herndon, University of Georgia

56. Is the Extra Effort Worth It?: Student Satisfaction in a Non-Traditional Learning Experience
    Megan Stein, University of Florida
    Summer Odom, Texas A&M University

61. In Tune with Leadership Students: An Online Exercise to Develop Leadership Student Personas
    Steve Winton, Saint Louis University
    Katie Devany, Saint Louis University
    Patrick Hughes, University of Baltimore
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64. Leadership Teamwork and Development Camp
    Lauren Ryan, IUPUI
    Chris Rash, IUPUI
    Rachel Swinford, IUPUI
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67. Introductory Pedagogical Tools for Online Leadership Education
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    Brett Whitaker, Fort Hays State University

70. Entrepreneurial Leadership: Teaching Product Development Principles Using the Perceived
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Amy Collins-Warfield, The Ohio State University

105. Implementation of Team Coaching to Undergraduate Leadership Classroom

Ellie Sheldon, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
L.J. McElravy, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

117. Developing Leadership Capacity Using Visual Thinking Strategies

(Conference Award: Outstanding Innovative Practice Paper)
Saya Kakim, Kansas State University
Kerry Priest, Kansas State University

118. An Engaged Scholarship Approach to Create and Evaluate a Leadership Development Program for Students

Roberta Maldonado Franzen, Kansas State University

134. Transformative Leadership Education Using Arts-Based Storytelling

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Tess Hobson, Kansas State University
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135. Community-Based Mentoring in Higher Education: The Integrity in Leadership Program

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136. **Check Out My Podcast: The Application and Implementation of Podcasting as Pedagogy**  
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146. **Using a Modified Group Member Role Instrument to Place Students into Groups: What is the Most Effective Method?**  
*Jessica Benson, Texas A&M University*  
*Jennifer Strong, Texas A&M University*

156. **Global Citizenship Education as a Leadership Development Tool**  
*Elizabeth Goryunova, University of Southern Maine*
Interdisciplinary Cohorts: An Innovative Teaching and Learning Practice

Abstract

In today’s increasingly interdependent world, professionals of a wide variety of social, economic, education, and political contexts must be able to effectively tune in to work in interdisciplinary collaborations. Our research will examine a teaching and learning practice used within our doctoral level online program, the interdisciplinary cohort. Structured as a utilization-focused naturalistic experiment, we will conduct surveys and interviews, and use existing program data to articulate the logic model, and examine the use and effect, of interdisciplinary cohorts over the past 8 years. We anticipate using these findings to adapt and enhance our own curricular best practices and gain new insights about adult student learning needs that can direct best practices in higher education institutions as the demand for lifelong learning continues.

Introduction

Drawing on the body of literature on interdisciplinarity, leadership, and teaching and learning our objective in this paper is to make the case that a conceptually informed and empirically grounded study of the pedagogical practice of using interdisciplinary cohorts should be a component of the broader research agenda on innovations in higher education. We propose to tackle a difficult question – what is the effect of interdisciplinary cohorts on preparing students to practice interdisciplinary leadership? We will include a discussion of X University’s distinct institutional character and the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program’s continuing relevance to meet the needs of our present and future lifelong learners. In the sections that follow, we highlight the advantages of cohort-based interdisciplinary programming and discuss what outcomes we anticipate from the evaluation of program data.

Review of Related Scholarship

There are many concepts that can be used to denote efforts to effectively work together on wicked problems; one such emerging concept is interdisciplinary leadership (Blooomquist, Georges, Ford, & Moss Breen, 2018). To advance an interdisciplinary leadership perspective we must first be clear about what we mean by interdisciplinary. Interdisciplinarity can be distinguished from multidisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity because it “is a synthesis of two or more disciplines, establishing a new level of discourse and integration of knowledge” (Choi & Pak, 2006, p. 355). Whereas transdisciplinary is the transfer or borrowing of knowledge from one field or discipline to another field or discipline and multidisciplinarity is working with several disciplines but with limited interaction between the disciplines (Choi & Pak, 2006). Interdisciplinarity respects the methods and norms of disciplines while at the same time recognizes a pluralistic vision of the world that does not elevate any discipline as intrinsically better than another (Kramnick, 2018). Part of what sets interdisciplinarity apart is the explicit inclusion of complexity, diversity, and integration (Newell & Thompson Klein, 1996).

The long tradition of research in psychology, sociology, economics, political science, and ecology has already dealt with a number of phenomena that offer a large and growing set of insights that are applicable to leadership (Hackman & Wageman, 2007). However, “when there
are no generally accepted definitions of what leadership is, no dominant paradigms for studying it, and little agreement about the best strategies for developing and exercising it” (Hackman & Wageman, 2007, p. 43) embracing the complexity of interdisciplinarity, gives us the opportunity to explore the learning edge and walk along a path toward a new conceptualization of leadership. We do not dispute the idea that the field of leadership has used and continues to use insights, ideas, and models from different disciplines in a transdisciplinary way. We suggest that the explicit inclusion of complexity, diversity, and integration distinguishes interdisciplinary leadership from other ways of thinking about leadership.

In their book about complexity and change Folke, Colding, and Berkes (2003) note that individuals need to (1) learn to live with change and uncertainty; (2) nurture diversity; (3) combine different types of knowledge for learning; and (4) create opportunities for self-organization. Based on these elements, as well as the societal need (i.e., complex problems like poverty and health inequities) a new approach to leadership is emerging that builds on the adaptive capacity required when working with complexity. We call this new approach interdisciplinary leadership and define it as the identity, practices, and systems that people who are sharing work have (or develop) to produce direction, alignment, and commitment when addressing complex tasks or complex problems.

**Description of the Practice**

Many institutions boast of interdisciplinary centers, courses, and programs, but X University is one of the few institutions that has organized a graduate level program around complex, real-world problems, that is the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program. Although the program has only been in existence for eight years it has an enviable record in graduating over 300 productive workers and successful citizens, while generating novel and useful research projects, and providing quality services to the graduate communities. As is to be expected, some faculty and other interested observers have occasionally expressed skepticism about the fully online program. Therefore, in this innovative practice paper, we want to share what we have learned about our experience with one aspect of the interdisciplinary leadership graduate program in order to help dispel some of this concern. Servicing over 300 current professional adult students who are experienced, successful practitioners and emerging, growing scholars the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program at X University prepares students to be fully conscious of the complexity of real-world problems, recognize opportunities to do something about them, and use diverse ideas to co-produce solutions. As professional adults recognize that the old ways of leading do not fit the new structures of problems, they are turning to practical graduate programs to help them prepare to think and act differently.

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

What remains unknown is a clear description of the conditions needed to prepare individuals to practice interdisciplinary leadership. In 21st century society there is a critical need to examine the teaching and learning practices that might prepare lifelong learners to practice interdisciplinary leadership. Further, doctoral leadership 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 new graduate programs that focus on the scholar-practitioner model of doctoral study (Boud & Tennant, 2006; Boyer, 1990). Informed decisions about how to influence, change, or grow interdisciplinary leadership will likely remain difficult without research on the effective use of pedagogical practices currently being used within such novel programs.

Based on our conceptual understanding of interdisciplinary leadership, faculty currently employ a set of recommendations and program design elements that guide the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program. These recommendations and design elements are broad program features and tools that may facilitate the culture of learning that would favor preparation of scholar-practitioners of interdisciplinary leadership. One design element currently used within the program is the interdisciplinary cohort model. We believe that creating diverse student groups brings a powerful tool to the development of interdisciplinary leadership practitioners. This is accomplished by combining students from multiple disciplinary and practitioner backgrounds into a single cohort where they, over time, can more thoughtfully consider the perspectives of diverse others and develop humility as they engage in deep discussions across multiple curricular topics.

Faculty and administrators interested in pedagogical research dedicated to student learning and enrichment of the curriculum should be concerned with better understanding the effect of interdisciplinary cohorts on the preparation of interdisciplinary leadership practitioners, for two main reasons. First, a learning environment that honors the vital need for learners to be introduced to a world that is larger than their own experiences, to think about what causes people to differ in what they know, and that enlarges their sense of community makes clear connections between what the student needs and what the world needs (Page, 2017; Palmer, 1998). Second, people who care about addressing complex, real-world problems should be concerned with how leadership practitioners are being prepared because it shapes how leaders make decisions that affect others. Higher education in the United States is tasked with structuring the environments in which students are prepared to become active participants in the transformation of their societies. As stated by UNESCO (2017), “learning should also focus on the values, attitudes, and behaviors which enable individuals to learn to live together in a world characterized by diversity and pluralism.” Therefore, the pedagogical practices used within higher education that prepare individuals to address the diverse problems facing our global community can have a significant effect on the kind of information processing and mental models that become regularly utilized by graduates (Argyris, 1991). Developing a more complete understanding of the effect of interdisciplinary cohorts will help demonstrate the impact of this pedagogical practice, while also advancing our programs’ ability to explore adaptations that may be needed to further enhance the diversity of experiences that cultivate our student’s abilities to make sense of the world.

Reflections of the Practitioner

X University is entering the 142nd year of its existence in 2020. This is an opportunity to reflect upon our extraordinary history, examine our current structure and practice, and imagine the even more exciting future we will build together. Given the necessity of meeting lifelong learners where they are, we might ask whether departments and programs have a sufficiently compelling focus, or whether they have the right array of relevant disciplines to address the questions that
society is grappling with. The clearly defined, problem-focused, Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program is the response to those questions. We might also ask what resources the faculty may need to enrich the program curriculum so that it speaks to the most pressing problems of lifelong learners within the region and beyond. This innovative practice paper envisions how to meet one resource need, the better understanding of our interdisciplinary cohort model. This innovative practice honors the ethos of our university to strive for magis and reflects the character of X University’s identity as an innovator in higher education.

**Recommendations**

In recent years we have seen an increasing global demand for individuals capable of working collaboratively with others to use disparate sources and types of information to produce new ideas. We believe the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program is well positioned to meet this demand. However, as educators we know that we must continually develop the competencies that will enable our students to create high-quality interdisciplinary syntheses and instill the leadership identity and practices that will positively dispose them toward that end.

**References**


Leading by Ear: Podcasting as an Educational Leadership Tool

Charlotte Norsworthy
Keith Herndon

University of Georgia

Abstract

This innovative practice paper explains how a student-produced podcast is used as an educational tool to showcase leadership and ethics. It illustrates how podcasting provides a unique pedagogical experience for students to engage with leadership themes in a way that is accessible, practical, and relevant. In this example, the podcast episodes become an innovative teaching resource, while the creation of it provides an experiential learning opportunity for the student hosts. In creating the work, students develop essential critical thinking skills, and the students who engage with the podcast are introduced to valuable leadership concepts.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
Is the Extra Effort Worth It?: Student Satisfaction in a Non-Traditional Learning Experience

Abstract

Educators are constantly searching for innovative ways to engage students. However, how do students respond to new practices? The purpose of this presentation is to review and discuss student’s reactions and learning outcomes to a course using traditional and non-traditional methodologies. After completing both methods over a semester, students reported their satisfaction of escape room exam reviews over traditional exam review methodologies. Student reactions to the different learning experiences, design processes, challenges, and recommendations for implementation will be discussed.

Introduction

Leadership educators are always looking for new and innovative ways to engage students in leadership content. Empirical research on innovative and learner-centered pedagogical approaches in the field of leadership education is needed to identify engaging and effective ways of teaching that also meet educational objectives (Andenoro et al., 2013). Additionally, gauging student reactions of novel ideas compared to traditional options is challenging.

The purpose of this paper is to describe how instructors used an escape room activity as review throughout a course and discuss student satisfaction to a class activity using escape rooms compared to traditional methodologies such as independent review and study guides. While the focus of the paper is on student’s responses to traditional and non-traditional learning practices, the larger implications of incorporating unique learning experiences can inform the practice of leadership educators as continued innovations enter the leadership classroom.

Review of Related Scholarship

Effective pedagogy has three distinct areas: the implementation of effective instructional strategies, environmental/classroom management techniques, and program design (Marzano, 2007). When developing courses and experiences within leadership education, intentionality within program design is critical (Rosch & Anthony, 2012). Educators who “maximize their potential in building student leadership capacity must be intentional in matching their intended program or course outcomes with relevant student and leadership development theory, and then apply effective strategies for the material to a diverse student population (Rosch & Anthony, 2012, p. 38).

Leadership instructors have a realm of instructional techniques at their disposal. Jenkins (2013) outlined 24 instructional strategies utilized within leadership education: case studies, class discussion, exams, games, group projections/presentations, guest speaker, icebreakers, in-class short writing, individual leadership development plans, interactive lecture/discussion, interview of a leader, lecture, media clips, quizzes, reflective journals, research project/presentations, role play, self-assessments and instruments, service learning, simulation, small group discussion, storytelling, student peer teaching, teambuilding. The research determined that among the 303
leadership educators surveyed instructors use class discussion and interactive lecture/discussion most commonly and simulation and quizzes least commonly in their classrooms (Jenkins, 2013). These leadership educators reported that they used games, “students engage in interactions in a prescribed setting and are constrained by a set of rules and procedures,” (p. 51) rarely or occasionally (Jenkins, 2013). Games are used in less than one-third of class meetings in leadership courses.

While still emerging, gamification is a common practice in many sectors including business, health, organization management, in-service trainings, social policy, and education (Caponetto, Earp, & Ott, 2014). Gamification has been defined as, “the application of game mechanisms in non-gaming environments with the aim of enhancing the processes enacted and the experience of those involved” (Caponetto, Earp, & Ott, 2014, p. 50). Games have been reported to increase motivation and engagement of their users (Kiryakova, Angelova, & Yordanova, 2013). Within education, gamification techniques have been adopted to teach learning objectives and more abstract learning concepts including collaboration among peers, creativity, and exploration of learning (Caponetto, Earp, & Ott, 2014). Analysis of a 2010 study shows that when a course was fully gamified in an undergraduate learning environment students jumped an average of an entire letter grade compared to the previous year (Stott & Neustaedter, 2013).

One form of non-digital serious game that is making the bridge from family fun to the classroom is escape rooms. Escape rooms were first noted in the tourism industry in 2007, but have entered classrooms as recently as 2014 (Nicholson, 2015). “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 (usually escaping from the room) in a limited amount of time” (Nicholson, 2015, p. 1). When thinking about escape rooms generally, it is important to note that escape rooms do not favor a specific gender or skill-set; rather, teams are more successful when genders, ages, interests, and background knowledge are varied.

The escape room experience requires “teamwork, communication, and delegation as well as critical thinking, attention to detail, and lateral thinking” (Nicholson, 2015, p. 2). Many of the topics required to be successful in an escape room are mirrored in leadership curriculum. While escape rooms can be used for team-building experiences, educators can tailor escape room design to meet specific learning objectives. In 2015, Nicholson conducted a study which reported that 8% of escape rooms had been developed for educational purposes.

Within the leadership arena, a study conducted at Georgia Southern University found that students completing an escape room at a student collegiate leadership conference reported leadership learning outcomes of communication, resiliency, valuing others’ opinions, advocating for a point of view, listening, and team collaboration based on Seemiller’s leadership competencies (Banter & Egan, 2018; Seemiller, 2014). Escape rooms have been used in very limited circumstances for instruction of leadership knowledge. Student reactions to curricular escape games is non-existent in the literature.
Description of the Practice

The escape room activity was introduced to students as a fun and innovative way to review for their exams in an undergraduate, three-credit hour personal leadership course. The course discusses topics within intrapersonal leadership development. Three non-cumulative multiple choice exams exist within the course. Prior to this practice, exam reviews were not a part of the curriculum. Three escape rooms were designed throughout the semester and then tested using experimental design.

For the first exam, students were randomly assigned groups and all students participated in an escape room. This allowed students to familiarize themselves with the puzzles and expectations surrounding an escape game. While the traditional aspects of an escape room were followed, due to logistical reasons, the escape game was designed in a backpack. Each group had identical backpacks with the same clues, locks, and challenges. To advance to the next stage of the escape game, students had to use knowledge from class which directly related to competencies that were tested on the exams.

Scores from the first exam were used to group students for the rest of the experiment. Grouping based on exam scores created equitable groups following the grade distribution from the class. Half of the students, group one, received an escape room review for the second exam. The other half, group two, received a traditional review methodology. Traditional review methodology allowed students to review in small groups as they deemed appropriate (flash cards, discussions, study guides, etc.) and then participate in a question and answer session with the instructor to clarify any concepts. For the third and final exam, the two groups switched allowing group one to receive a traditional review methodology and group two participating in an escape room.

To achieve a true experimental design, this practice was replicated on two identical courses with the same instructor and graduate assistant over the same semester. The material covered was duplicated along with exams and review materials.

Before the escape rooms were presented to the undergraduate students, extensive amounts of work was put into designing the experiences. The steps of designing a curricular escape game are as follows:

1. Create clues directly tied to material
2. Correspond clues to escape room elements such as locks, password protected USBs, etc.
3. Design a path to ensure students are progressing towards the ultimate goal of executing all of the locks
4. Program all coded materials with the correct codes
5. Package all of the materials into the correct locations
6. Put people with knowledge of the information (graduate students work well) through a trial run of the escape games
7. Edit the escape game based on feedback from trial participants
8. Conduct the escape game in class

There is additionally a sizable financial commitment to purchasing materials. Each escape game costs approximately $60.00 in materials to design. The size of class (40 students in each section)
warranted the purchase and creation of six identical escape games. Purchasing locks with codes that are able to be reset allowed the materials to be reused for each of the three unique escape games.

**Discussion of Outcomes**

Anecdotally, instructors saw a lack of interest from students as escape games were incorporated throughout the semester. To solidify the practice as effective, a satisfaction survey was sent out to students who met the criterion to be included in the experiment at the conclusion of the semester (N= 80; n = 61) (participated in the first escape game, second and third review experience).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Question</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, how satisfied were you with ALED 301?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, how satisfied were you with the &quot;Escape Room&quot; review activities?</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compared to traditional review activities, how do you rate the &quot;Escape Room&quot; review activities?</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typically, in preparation for an exam, how likely are you to participate in a review session or review activities?</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale 1 = 1 = Extremely satisfied, 2 = Moderately satisfied, 3 = Slightly satisfied, 4 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 5 = Slightly dissatisfied, 6 = Moderately dissatisfied, 7 = Extremely dissatisfied

Scale 2 = 1 = I completely prefer the "Escape Room" review activities, 2 = I somewhat prefer the "Escape Room" review activities, 3 = I slightly prefer the "Escape Room" review activities, 4 = I have no preference; 5 = I slightly prefer traditional review activities, 6 = I somewhat prefer traditional review activities, 7 = I completely prefer traditional review activities

Scale 3 = 1 = Extremely likely, 2 = Moderately likely, 3 = Slightly likely, 4 = Neither likely nor unlikely, 5 = Slightly unlikely, 6 = Moderately unlikely, 7 = Extremely unlikely

While the data indicates that students were overall slightly satisfied with the escape game experience, the data fails to show the students who were excluded from the experiment due to dislike that led to student absence. As activity points were given for these experiences that was a piece of the overall grade, students took a negative impact on their grade to avoid the escape game experience.

In addition to satisfaction, students exam results were analyzed over the course of the semester in relation to the review methodologies. There were no significant differences on exam scores within the groups, even excluding the ones who were not included in the study. When you look at group one and group two, there are significant differences.
There are differences between those who were excluded from the study (did not participate in ER 1 and/or did not participate in either review or ER 2/3). Their scores were lower.

On exam 2, those who did the non-traditional escape room performed seven percentage points lower than the others. On exam 3, those who did the escape room performed six percentage points higher than the ones not included in the study. When you account for order, there are no significant differences. However, when you look at the group grades without accounting for order, review first then escape room works better. Students in group two (escape room, traditional review , escape room) had better outcomes than group one (escape room, escape room, traditional review).

Overall, the non-traditional experience of the escape room did not have a negative effect on students; however the effect of doing the escape room last had better effect.

**Reflections of the Practitioner**

This experience has a large level of effort and commitment. It took a graduate assistant a large portion of their appointment to conduct the experiment with a predominant amount of time designing and orchestrating the escape games. The financial investment was not as large as it originally appeared with the materials being reusable numerous times throughout the semester. However, for this class with 40 students in each of the two sections, it required six escape games to be run simultaneously to ensure small enough group size. This requires complete knowledge of the escape game by all of the instructors in the course.

While initial interest of the students was there, it seemed to lose its novelty over time. Anecdotally, students expressed that they felt they were at a disadvantage when participating in the escape game because they were only being exposed to certain pieces of the curriculum. However, students were unaware that the original course schedule did not have any form of exam review signifying that any form of review was putting them at an advantage over other semesters of the course.

The satisfaction survey was not an original part of the experimental design. However, due to the increasing number of students who expressed they would not be attending class if an escape game was happening, the satisfaction survey was added. We would speculate that if the satisfaction survey was given to each student in the course if they participated in the escape game at any point the results would be much less positive.

In this case, we do not believe the effort was a good investment from the instructor team. While curricular escape games appear to have student buy-in, it appears that consistent usage of non-traditional practices does not have a similar positive effect.

For future recommendation of implementation, escape games certainly have a place in leadership curriculum. However, curricular escape games have unique challenges and elevated levels of investment. This non-traditional learning practice could have better reactions from students if implemented once or to teach interpersonal leadership skills.
References


Appendices

Escape Room 1 Design

Cinch Bag 1
- Pieces from two leadership practices
- Leadership practices paper
- Battery
- Blank piece of campus map

Syllabus from Professor
- video of Johari window from syllabus

Big Pocket Backpack – locked with direction lock (down up left right)
- piece of campus map with 8
cipher
- exam questions back (1345 are wrong)
- big final lock box
- Cinch bag 2

Cinch Bag 2 – locked with 4 digit lock (1345)
- scrambled words
- magazine
- football ticket

Small Pocket Backpack – locked with 4 letter lock (SELF)
- SMART goals
- piece of map with 6
- battery
- book

Cinch Bag 3 – locked with 5 digit lock (52413)
- campus map with 3
- black light
- battery

Opens Lock Box (863)
ALED 897: Personal Leadership Education
Exam 1

INSTRUCTIONS: On your Scantron, please include your Name, UIN, and Form. Bubble in the letter of the correct response for each question.

1. How does a VALUE differ from a QUALITY?
   A. Values are who you are. Qualities are what you do to honor your values.
   B. Values are easy to determine. Qualities take time to develop.
   C. Your values can change. Qualities cannot change.
   D. A quality is a choice. A value is a characteristic.

2. Which of the following does not describe a Core Value?
   A. It drives your life decisions
   B. It is something you would quit a job over…
   C. It is something you would leave a relationship for…
   D. It is something always evident in our daily behaviors

3. What is a result of your personal values not being explicit?
   A. You are empowered
   B. You are flexible and can change your views to fit the situation
   C. Your followers can be confused
   D. You are happy and have more choices to make

4. Which of the following is a characteristic of leaders who are NOT authentic?
   A. Inflated sense of their own importance
   B. Delegate consistently
   C. Congruence between their actual and ideal self
   D. High emotional intelligence

5. If a leader were authentic, which of the following characteristics would they likely exhibit?
   A. Undisciplined
   B. Internalized moral perspective
   C. Reliance on others
   D. Extroverted
What to Expect:
897 Learning Community is a time where a smaller group of students gathers to apply and discuss leadership theory. This community is extremely important given the size of the course and the nature of leadership. Moore (2018) noted that leadership does not occur in a vacuum, therefore it requires engagement.

In this LC, you are going to have the opportunity to engage in discussions, experience leadership situations, and gain a tangible understanding of leadership theory. When you arrive to lab, be on time, be prepared, be respectful, and engage in the experiences.

Assignments:
All assignments must be submitted through eCampus Thursday mornings by 8am on the due date.
Assignment Late Work Policy: Late work IS NOT accepted for non-university excused absences. You must turn in appropriate documentation for university excused absences in a timely manner or they will not be accepted.

Attendance:
Attendance is imperative for LC! In order to earn all 100 of your points, you must not only be in LC but also participate. Your grade will be determined by participation. Participating on cell phones and other devices does not equal participation in the lab.

Grading:
Assignments should be written in a professional manner, appropriate language, grammar, and spelling are required, and all references must be cited according to the 6th edition of the APA Style Manual. You can see your grades on eCampus as soon as they are graded. Feedback on your papers will be given up to two weeks after it is due. Late work will not be accepted.

Emails:
I generally respond to emails M-F between the hours of 7:00 am and 4:00 pm. Emails sent after hours or on weekends will be responded to on the following business day.
In Tune with Leadership Students: An Online Exercise to Develop Leadership Student Personas

Abstract

Using an exploratory multi-case study approach, we examined student perceptions of leadership through analysis of introductory discussion board forums in online undergraduate and graduate leadership courses. A review of related literature reveals that leadership is broadly applied across disciplines resulting in a vast array of interests and motivation related to pursuit of a leadership degree. To that end, development of student personas provides faculty and practitioners with a better understanding of leadership students’ needs and characteristics. We will share qualitative data compiled from four online leadership courses during our innovative practice session. Our preliminary findings indicated a notable gap between ad-hoc and data-driven personas of leadership students and how students envision leadership from a personal, professional, theoretical, aspirational, and/or structural perspectives.

Introduction

In our innovative practice session we will discuss our experiences using introductory discussions as a creative way to understand our leadership students. We will reflect on our unique experiences with this approach, including how it impacted online presence and provided insight into our leadership students (i.e., the type of student who is, or isn’t, pursuing the program). Specifically, we will share our initial observations of the exercise in undergrad and graduate classes, with traditional and non-traditional students at different levels of development (e.g., introductory leadership courses versus upper-level leadership courses), and within different fields of leadership (e.g., organizational vs law enforcement). We will also discuss implications to pedagogy, as well as potential directions for research, as our work provides leadership faculty and practitioners a starting point aiding both course and programmatic assessment within leadership programs.

Review of Related Scholarship

The lack of consensus on what leadership is and how to define it is well documented (Ciulla, 2012; Northhouse, 2018). Given that scholars cannot agree on its meaning, it is not surprising that students struggle to conceptualize it. Leadership has wide-ranging relevance and can look very different in different situations. Hence, the very complexities that make it difficult to define is partially due to the context-dependent nature of its application (Andenoro et al., 2013). This can be observed in the fragmented field of leadership education (e.g., organizational, educational, agricultural, law enforcement). In response, there have been calls to unify the burgeoning field and develop a cohesive framework of leadership (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006; Seemiller, 2016). The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) supports the creation of standard competencies, and possibly accreditation standards, for leadership programs. Further, scholars argue that leadership education may benefit from an “evidence-based leadership pedagogy” to bridge the gap between leadership theory and student practice both in their coursework and in the field (Werner et al., 2016, p. 206). In alignment with NLERA’s call to explore the role of the individual learner, we argue that one avenue to meet this goal is by getting in tune with our leadership students, their understanding of leadership, and their professional and personal leadership goals.
Recently, many have advocated for complexity leadership to serve as a unifying theoretical foundation for leadership degree programs (Andenoro et al., 2013; Shoup, 2016; Winton, Palmer, & Hughes, 2018). Practitioners, regardless of industry or discipline, need adaptive leadership skills to thrive in times of change (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2009). At least among online graduate-level leadership programs, some standardization in curriculum exists to support this goal (Winton, Palmer, & Hughes, 2018). However, educators continue to advocate for the development of leadership competencies for all students (Seemiller, 2016). As promoted by Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, Owen, and Wagner (2005), we must account for leadership development growth. Similarly, Webber and Scott (2008) argue that leadership development should address dimensions such as career stage, career aspirations, and professional skills. That is, developing students as leaders is not limited to one major, career field, or level of education, and doing so can offer a multitude of benefits for the educator (e.g., accreditation, university mission, behavioral benchmarking) and the student (e.g., career preparation, common language; Seemiller, 2016). Yet, provided that there is progress toward a broad set of foundational competencies to guide WHAT we are developing in leadership, we still know little of WHO we are developing. These insights are critical as we build leadership programs utilizing newer modalities of learning to facilitate the application of leadership competencies.

It is generally accepted that there is not a “typical” leadership student, but there is scant research on the topic. Anecdotally, we know students striving for a degree in leadership come from a variety of backgrounds, are at different levels of leadership development, and have unique personal and professional goals. In this way, the research suggests development of personas to assist in better understanding the needs and characteristics of students. This strategy is especially beneficial to online students whose face-to-face interaction with faculty is either limited or nonexistent further widening the gap between assumed knowledge (ad-hoc personas) and actual findings (data-driven personas; Minichiello, Hood, & Harkness, 2017; Lilley, Pyper, & Attwood, 2012). Furthermore, development of personas and related narratives also seek to enhance empathy through conveyance of “goals, values, needs, and actions” thus bringing to life students who might otherwise be personified by their name alone (Minichiello, Hood, & Harkness, 2017). Additionally, persona development creates a common language allowing for interdisciplinary implementation yielding effective communication and identification with the student; providing an especially salient outcome for leadership faculty (Lilley, Pyper, & Attwood, 2012).

The literature also utilizes user-centered design (UCD), a term affiliated with product development, to further support use of student personas. Briefly defined, UCD “focuses design activities on user needs rather than aesthetics” (Kozar & Miaskiewicz, 2009). However, practitioners often still have difficulty applying the principles of UCD and have found integration of personas to be helpful in remaining focused on the end-user (Kozar & Miaskiewicz, 2009). While originating from industry, UCD has strong implications in academia as faculty strive to remain student-centered in developing programs and learning outcomes focused on student interests and meeting market demand. Yet, due to the interdisciplinary nature of leadership a notable gap exists in the literature demonstrating the need for future research and implementation of data-driven student personas.

**Description of the Practice**

The goal of our innovative practice was to better understand our leadership students, their goals, and their understanding of leadership. To achieve this goal, in the spring semester of 2020 we instituted a dynamic introductory exercise in four online leadership courses at two universities. Further, this exercise was
implemented at different levels (i.e., undergraduate and graduate, 1000 level and 4000 level) and in different leadership domains (i.e., organizational and law enforcement). For online courses, it is quite common, if not standard, to have a discussion where students introduce themselves. Rather than a passive, check-box assignment, however, we encouraged students to engage in conversations with their peers. We instructed students to be creative and use levity in an attempt to build dialogue around their expectations for the course and how it relates to leadership. Although the focus and core questions were consistent across classes, we tailored questions to meet the goals of the class. We also piloted unique elements in each class to gather data on what levers might work best. Students were instructed to:

- Include standard introductory information such as relevant background information (e.g., program of study, major/minor, hometown, number of leadership courses taken, job role)
- Create an elevator pitch of what leadership means to them, including questions such as:
  - Why is leadership important to your field? To you professionally? How do you personally believe leadership to be defined both from an organizational and individual standpoint? Are they different or the same, explain?
- Describe how leadership is integrated into their workplace and/or community organizations, using examples. Sample questions included asking students what a leadership position entails in their work and how it affects the organizational culture and structure.
- Discuss their perceptions of the course and what they expect to learn, how it might influence their academic and professional pursuits, and how it relates to leadership.

Finally, to encourage participation and engagement we had students get creative in their responses. Students were instructed to add images, or funny memes, that represented their characterizations. Students uploaded photos or brief video clips of themselves. Some classes had students respond to a specific number of classmates’ posts, while some utilized grading rubrics, and others offered extra points. In the final week, we had students revisit their initial answers and reflect on any “Aha” moments. There was also a 5-item assessment to gauge student’s perceptions of the exercise (See Appendix A).

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

This pilot exercise was implemented in the spring semester of 2020. Hence, we do not yet have complete assessment/evaluation data. However, we have baseline statistics including the total number of posts and average number of replies. These numbers were compared to past courses from 2018 and 2019. For example, in one graduate class the average of the new approach \( (M = 5.73) \) elicited considerably more replies than the standard approach \( (M = 1.32) \). More importantly, we noted qualitative differences in students’ responses using the new approach to introductions. A few examples are shared to compare, as well as highlight, students’ creativity in the updated approach. For example, in a post from the old approach, students would generally state their names, background degrees or experience, and perhaps a hobby or fun fact.

*Hello all, I’m John Doe. I currently work as a Principal Engineer at ABC Company, designing jet engines. My background is in engineering with a BS in mechanical engineering and I’m about half way through the MS program. One of my hobbies is racing (during the summer) and working*
In the new approach, students had a greater tendency to divulge personal information about themselves, their families, and their backgrounds, as well as further expand on what leadership means to them in the context of their organizations.

Hey all! My name is Jane Doe and I am currently enrolled in the Masters program. I transferred in during the Fall of 2017 and have seven classes left to complete my degree. Being in the world of XYZ means existing in an ever-changing climate that requires knowledge, analytical thinking, change management, and strong leadership skills. Good business models provide access to a leadership hierarchy that is well-rounded in historical data, people skills, leadership skills, and visionary thinking. Being in the industry for over 30 years, I worked hard to climb the ladder into roles that provided authority to make change. I had to become the best version of me to give those in my charge their best opportunity. I am a mother and wife. I spent 30 years climbing the corporate ladder in ABC Industry just to resign last year when they fell ill. I never expected to take over his business, but I am grateful I did. I now work from home, allowing me to care for my folks, run the business, manage my household, and complete my degree online. Leadership education and experience provided skills to manage priorities, lead people, and exercise influence through thousands of daily choices. Wonder woman has nothing on me. I believe this course will provide an overview of all facets of organizational development, from research and theory to application. I expect to learn how to perform research, how to think outside the box in developing ideas based on research, and how to apply new theories in the business environment, all while working with others. All of this is relevant in my current situation, personally and professionally. Identifying resources, utilizing resources, and creating new and improved methods and ideas as a team are fundamental leadership skills. Wishing you all the best this term! I've attached a couple of pictures, one of my family and the other of my sweet Mom and Dad.

Additionally, in the session we will share our assessment results from the post-test discussion. This will include a qualitative assessment of student learning and how students’ initial understanding of leadership was altered by the course. We will also share the results of a formative assessment aimed to gather reactions of the exercise, including their satisfaction, feelings of connection, and perceptions of growth. We will use our learning to further refine the exercise, with the goal of eventually using the data to mine and content analysis for identifying personas.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Based on anticipated and initial early findings, incorporation of this dynamic introductory exercise provided insight into the current perspective and understanding of both undergraduate and graduate leadership students. As faculty members, we develop curriculum with a particular student in mind. This ad-hoc persona, however, may not be an accurate reflection of the current student population and/or their
expectations of the course (Minichiello, Hood, & Harkness, 2017; Lilley, Pyper, & Attwood, 2012). Therefore, additional data-driven personas are needed to ensure curriculum is meeting the needs of the student.

There are several implications that can be made from analyzing the data. First, graduate students tend to have a more in-depth perspective of leadership as well as course expectations. This could be due to the level of the course (5000) as expectations would differ from that of a 1000 level course. However, it could also be attributed to professional experience, training, or previous academic coursework. It was also interesting to see how students view the role of leadership in their personal and professional lives. Students in the undergraduate courses included words such as trust, integrity, and motivation in their elevator pitch of leadership. While graduate students tended to have a broader conceptualization, using words like influence, promoting purpose, and developing both self and others.

Additionally, the incorporation of student photos provided another dimension not usually achieved in the introductory posts. Several students included photos of their whole family allowing those students who may have taken several previous courses together to further their relationship. The incorporation of personal information naturally occurs in a face-to-face course, but often is not addressed in online courses. Providing these visual cues provides data helpful in developing accurate personas of our leadership students and identifying not only what they hope to achieve professionally, but their personal values as well.

**Recommendations**

As discussed, this exploratory pilot identified a gap in the literature. Leadership programs have been examined regarding their competency development and curriculum design; however, personas have only been explored in other discipline programs such as computer information systems and calculus. We argue that through the application of user-centered design (UCD) we can begin to align our curriculum and programmatic learning outcomes with those identified by leadership students (Kozar & Miaskiewicz, 2009). Furthermore, “encouraging students to post personal profiles” such as those included in introductory posts increases student engagement and contributes to building a sense of community within the online environment (Liu, Magjuka, Bonk, & Lee, 2007, p. 11).

In addition, further conceptualizing how students envision leadership from a personal, professional, theoretical, aspirational, or structural perspective provides educators with a starting point that aids in both course and programmatic assessment within leadership programs. This pilot exercise also adds to the body of knowledge within the National Leadership Research Agenda through identifying possible individuals who are interested in pursuing a leadership degree as a discipline on a grand or macro scale. As preliminary results have indicated, defining personas will decrease traditional assumptions of the type of students who enroll in such leadership programs. The development of a persona also further helps structure curriculum and align it more closely with current research and scholarship in the discipline of leadership education. Lastly, it would be suggested to utilize the same structurally worded question/s in the various courses so analysis of data provides stronger more robust results.
References


**Appendix A**

Rate the following items using the following 5-point likert scale (1-strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree)

1. The introductory discussion made me feel more connected to my peers.
2. The introductory discussion helped me become more excited about the course material.
3. The introductory discussion helped me reflect on my leadership elevator pitch.
4. Overall, I enjoyed the introductory discussion exercise.
5. My view of leadership has changed or developed as a result of this class.
Leadership and Teamwork Development Camp

Abstract

This leadership and teamwork development camp is a unique, authentic, and off-campus residential experience for students. Students travel six hours away from a large urban campus to a rural-residential camp setting. This 7-day experience provides multiple opportunities for growth in the areas of leadership, teamwork, communication, problem solving, innovation, and professionalism. Ten years ago, the Department of Kinesiology initially collaborated with the Military Science Department to adopt and modify the Army ROTC’s Leadership Development Program to align with the Department of Kinesiology’s student learning outcomes. Over the past few years, the focus has shifted from the ROTC model to a strengths-based model utilizing StrengthsFinder for students.

Introduction

As Astin and Astin (2000) noted, higher education has made undergraduate leadership training a ubiquitous characteristic due to the demand from the job market. Over the past 10 years, this focus on leadership and teamwork has remained in the top tier of skills desired by entry-level employers. In fact, the 2018 National Association of Colleges & Employers survey found both leadership and teamwork to be among the top five valued skills in college graduates (NACE, 2018). However, a survey in 2015 found that 60% of surveyed students currently hold, anticipate holding, or recently held a leadership position while in college, yet, only 32.5% of the students had taken a leadership course (Bettis, Christian, and Allen, 2015). Unsurprisingly, many employers have reported that new college graduates are still lacking in soft skills, such as leadership (Association of American College and Universities, 2015).

As a graduation requirement, all undergraduate students in the Department of Kinesiology are required to attend a 1-week residential, peer-based leadership and teamwork development camp. At this camp, students are placed into teams to work together throughout the week in a series of leadership and team building challenges. The leadership and teamwork development program utilizes experiential education via a series of both physically and intellectually challenging problem-solving activities to focus on developing leadership and teamwork skills in students (Panicucci, 2008). Furthermore, this experiential learning is centered on frequent peer-interactions (and evaluation) which has been shown to be the single most important determinant in social and intellectual development for college students (Astin, 1996; Day & Lance, 2004; Kram & Isabella, 1985).

Review of Related Scholarship

A surveillance of the current scholarship on how higher education is attempting to boost student engagement in formal leadership development training reveals a host of configurations. For instance, leadership training in some institutions is delivered throughout an entire 4-year program (Dunn, Ho, Odom, and Perdue, 2016). While other universities focus on an episodic and time intensive (i.e., 5 day) program (Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf, 2015); and still others focus on a more moderate 6-month experience (Fields, 2010). Furthermore, some are situating their
leadership program in a residential camp setting. And as Lien and Goldenberg (2012) highlight, these off-campus programs lead to a deeper learning experience.

Similarly, the use of experiential education through challenge and problem-solving activities fosters an environment that pushes students beyond their comfort zone into their learning zone (Panicucci, 2008). More importantly, these experiences are considered as high-impact practice (Kuh, 2008). It appears that regardless of the scope and scale of the training, if the experience is intentional and meaningful, then development of leadership attributes and qualities comes to fruition.

**Description of the Practice**

The purpose of Camp is to provide an individual-focused training process designed to develop leadership skills in a variety of environments. Leadership behavior is described as being a leader, knowing what to do in a leadership position, and properly demonstrating the skills while leading. These three components highlight the 3-prong philosophy of the leadership camp: be, know, and do. These three behaviors fall into the following three categories of leadership: values and presence, intellectual skills, and leadership actions. Within these categories are 16 specific leadership dimensions. Students also take the Clifton StrengthsFinder assessment prior to camp, and StrengthsFinder is a large foundation of the training at Camp. Several activities are focused on StrengthsFinder and students also reflection on their top 5 themes throughout the week.

A leadership counselor, an upperclassman who previously demonstrated excellence while at camp as a student, facilitates each team. The leadership counselors complete extensive training prior to facilitating a team and are enrolled in an advanced 1-credit hour leadership course. Students at camp are evaluated using an ongoing 360-degree approach: feedback from a leadership counselor, self-evaluation, and peer evaluation from teammates. Additionally, students complete daily journals that allow for qualitative assessment of leadership and personal growth throughout the weeklong experience. Below is an example of the weekly schedule:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day 1</th>
<th>Day 2</th>
<th>Day 3</th>
<th>Day 4</th>
<th>Day 5</th>
<th>Day 6</th>
<th>Day 7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ice Breakers &amp; Trust</td>
<td>Cooperation &amp; Communication (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>Challenge &amp; Problem Solving (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>Challenge &amp; Problem Solving (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>High ropes course</td>
<td>Written final exam</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooperation &amp; Communication (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>Team &amp; 1:1 debrief with leadership counselor</td>
<td>Challenge &amp; Problem Solving (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>Challenge &amp; Problem Solving (Leaders assessed)</td>
<td>Team &amp; 1:1 debrief with leadership counselor</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening Ceremony</td>
<td>StrengthsFinder Activity &amp; Team</td>
<td>StrengthsFinder Activity &amp; Team</td>
<td>Campfire</td>
<td>Talent Show</td>
<td>Closing Ceremony</td>
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</table>
Leadership
Programs

Leadership
Programs

Camp has been part of the curriculum in the Department of Kinesiology since 1921. The camp is owned and operated by the university, and is located in another state. Over the years, the focus of Camp has shifted from the preparation of physical education teachers to an outdoor recreation and sports camp, and currently into a leadership and teamwork development camp. After a school-wide strategic plan was developed in 2010, Camp was completely redesigned to align with the newly identified student learning outcomes of leadership and teamwork development.

Currently, Camp Leadership and Teamwork Development Camp is a required course for all students in the Department of Kinesiology. Each summer, approximately 216 students attend one of three weeks at Camp. Students range from sophomores to seniors majoring in Exercise Science, Fitness Management and Personal Training, Physical Education Teacher Education, or Sport Management. In addition to Camp being a requirement for some students, it is also included as an optional course for students pursuing interdisciplinary minor in innovation.

To date, nearly 2500 students have attended the Leadership and Teamwork Development Camp. Each year we continue to evolve and adapt to meet the needs of students. We adjust activities and programming to greater serve the students as we move forward each year.

Discussion of the Outcomes/Results

In recent years, facilitators have collected both quantitative and qualitative data to analyze outcomes of Camp. Paired t-tests were used to compare each self-reported perceived leadership skills before and after attending camp. Descriptive phenomenology was used to assess the student’s “Camp Experience.”

Quantitative Outcomes: Six relatively recent cohorts of students in the Department of Kinesiology (N=314) attended the 1-week residential leadership development camp. At the time, the leadership development program focused on a total of 20 leadership dimensions. Prior to attending the out-of-state Camp Leadership experience, each enrolled student completed the leadership dimension pre-test, utilizing a rubric. Then, upon completion of the one-week leadership program (on the last day), the students again completed the survey as a post-test. The paired t-tests revealed, overall, a significant change in perception regarding 14 out of 20 leadership dimensions (p < .001): work ethic, respect, ethical, integrity, empathy, physically fit, confident, resilient, mental agility, time management, leads other, leads by example, gets results, and creates a positive environment.

Qualitative Outcomes: In the summers of 2011 and 2012, 187 students attended a 1-week residential leadership development camp. Throughout the camp, students completed several personal journal entries to serve as goal-setting, reflection, and personal growth tools. On the last day of camp, students were given the following prompt: “If you were asked you to give a presentation to next year’s class about the “Camp Experience,” what would you tell them? Write
a speech, letter, or summary paper that details what your “fellow travelers” should know as they prepare, and explain to them what you learned about yourself while at the leadership camp.”

Descriptive phenomenology was used to analyze the typed letters. A total of 187 journal entries were analyzed for this study. Thematic analysis revealed eight themes that tell the story of the Camp Experience: 1) unique learning experience, 2) building relationships, 3) Open mindset, positive attitude, & giving 110% 4) stepping out of comfort zone, 5) building trust, 6) personal growth, 7) gaining lifelong skills, and 8) once in a life time experience. Table 1 (see additional artifacts) illustrates the eight themes along with exemplar quotes pulled from individual journal entries.

**Reflections of the Practitioner**

According to the quantitative results, a 1-week intensive leadership development camp does significantly impact self-reported perceived leadership skills on 14 of the 20 dimensions. These results also revealed 8 themes from the final day reflection. Among these results are some similarities that should be noted.

When looking at the qualitative results, several of the themes have a direct correlation with the quantitative findings. For example “open mindset, positive attitude & giving 110%” was a common theme, and is likely linked to changes in “creates positive environment” and “work ethic” dimensions. Also the themes “personal growth” and “gaining lifelong skills” are likely linked to the values that changed such as “work ethic”, “respect”, and “integrity.” These themes may also be related to other areas affected areas like “time management” and “leads by example.”

Some of the themes can be more loosely linked to the quantitative findings. For example, “building relationships” was a common theme in the reflections, which may be linked to changes in leads others, leads by example, and creates positive environment dimensions that were impacted. During the week, students were placed in different groups for multiple activities, pushing them to interact with several different people. Some activities focused heavily on leadership skills, while others focused primarily on getting to know their peers in a positive environment.

Building trust was another common theme, which could be linked to changes in “leads by example” and “leads others” dimensions. One camper stated, “It [Camp] helped me gain a better understanding of how much trust is needed when being a good leader.” As the week progresses, campers experience more challenging leadership activities, which require more trust in their family (team).

At Camp, there is a large focus on comfort zones, and many campers reflected on that in the qualitative data. One camper said, “I was surprised by the camp experience. I had dreaded going to this camp the entire time, but it really changed me as a person. It helped me to really get out of my shell and be more confident when approaching new situations and not to be afraid to take
risks.” However, this was not well reflected in the quantitative data, and likely just not an area well demonstrated with the dimensions.

**Recommendations**

The Camp model is a unique leadership experience for undergraduate students at the collegiate level. Others in higher education may be able to adopt or adapt parts of this model to use in their own leadership development programs.

The findings presented can be used to guide leadership development in various contexts. Future research should focus on collecting quantitative data in relation to “trust” and “comfort zones.” These areas are a large focus of the camp, but were not heavily represented in the quantitative findings. Additionally, future studies will be longitudinal in nature to determine sustainability of the leadership development camp. Future research should also examine, more deeply, the relationship that demographic information has on leadership training programs to see if one can estimate the magnitude or effect size or determine if any positive interactions exist.

**References**


Table 1: Identified Themes & Exemplar Quotes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Exemplar Quotes</th>
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| Unique Learning Experience                  | “Fellow travelers, you are about to experience one of the most fun, unique, and adventurous times of your lives.”
|                                            | “The “Camp Experience” is very unique. It is unlike any other camp or course you have taken in the past.”
|                                            | “I would tell my “fellow travelers” to prepare for a life changing experience that will teach them a lot about themselves and their peers.”
|                                            | “This camp is unlike any other class you’ve taken, with a positive outlook; you will take life lessons back home with you.”
| Building Relationships                      | “You will form relationships with other campers that you would not typically expect.”
|                                            | “You will get to know several new students in ways you could never imagine.”
|                                            | “You will develop intimate relationships with individuals in your “families” and your will learn how to work as a team.”
| Open Mindset, Positive Attitude, & Giving 110% | “If you keep your mind open to possibilities and have a positive attitude at camp, then you will gain knowledge about yourself and also gain new friends and relationships as well.”
|                                            | “This is one of the biggest pieces of advice I could give you. Go into camp with a good attitude and you’ll get so much more out of it.”
|                                            | “I would tell them the key to having a good time and learning life lessons from the activities is to keep a positive attitude and keep trying.”
| Stepping out of Comfort Zone                | “Attempt to make your comfort zone smaller so that your fun and opportunity zones double in size.”
|                                            | “I also learned that taking risks is really important because you might miss out on a life changing experience.”
|                                            | “I got out of my comfort zone, the first night and went further and further each night and even expanded my comfort zone.”
| Building Trust                             | “Always remember trusting yourself is as important as trusting others.”
|                                            | “It [Camp] helped me gain a better understanding of how much trust is needed when being a good leader.”
|                                            | “I have learned to trust others more quickly and rely on them to accomplish tasks. I can trust others to do their part.”
| Personal Growth                            | “I learned what my fears are and also learned what motivates me to overcome those fears.”
|                                            | “I am a far more confident person, and now possess the tools it takes to continue to grow as a leader.”
|                                            | “I have learned so much about myself in this short time it’s unreal. I am a much better leader than I originally thought. I now know my weaknesses and how to
better them. I know how to keep my cool when things repetitively don’t go my way.”
“I was surprised by the camp experience. I had dreaded going to this camp the entire time, but it really changed me as a person. It helped me to really get out of my shell and be more confident when approaching new situations and not to be afraid to take risks.”

**Gaining Lifelong Skills**

“Camp isn’t just a class but it is an experience that will last throughout the rest of their college career and also work career.”
“This will help you in your future career, the rest of your schooling and with life in general.”

**Once in a Lifetime Experience**

“Always enjoy the time you have here because it will be over before you know it and there is no coming back to the once in a lifetime opportunities.”
“Leaving camp I feel way more prepared to enter life after college than I did before attending.”
“You should prepare by opening your mind and accept that this will be a once in a lifetime experience that will change your perspective of team and individual success.”
Introductory Pedagogical Tools for Online Leadership Education

Abstract

There are a variety of ways in which leadership education can be delivered, and one of these ways is through online education. For many leadership educators, this approach to leadership education is difficult or anxiety-producing because it is different, in many ways, from a traditional face-to-face classroom experience. However, several tools exist that are designed to assist practitioners in their efforts to create a quality online classroom. This innovative practice paper, designed for introductory level online educators, will explore tools and strategies to enhance discussion, content delivery, and grading/feedback in an online class.

Introduction

The Association of Leadership Educators, by charge, is a group concerned with high quality pedagogy and teaching of leadership. Teaching leadership in the online environment, however, presents unique challenges. This session is designed to be an introduction to deploying online tools to replicate the best aspects of common pedagogical practices. It is designed for faculty who have never taught online before.

Many in our association have extensive experience in various face-to-face teaching strategies designed to produce specific learning experiences and outcomes with students. Because of the relational, behavioral, and active aspects of teaching leadership, many of these learning experiences can be difficult to conceptualize creating in an online environment. The purpose of this session is, therefore, to help illustrate the viability of using online tools to replicate three common forms of in-class pedagogical strategies.

Research suggests many educators approach online education with trepidation, or with a bias against the modality (Manning-Ouellette & Black, 2017). It is common for educators to assume certain kinds of teaching or learning strategies are either impossible in the online environment, or at least very difficult. This general sentiment, coupled with the desire for engaged, active learning that many leadership educators value, can make teaching leadership online seem challenging at best.

Review of Related Scholarship

There are many different teaching pedagogies used in leadership education, but some are used more frequently than others. Jenkins (2012) described signature pedagogies that are frequently used by leadership educators including class discussion, interactive lecture, and small group discussions as being three of the most used teaching practices. Employing these pedagogies effectively in the online learning environment, though, can be difficult. This begs the question; can one teach and learn leadership online? Manning-Ouellette and Black (2017) discovered learning leadership in an online environment actually resulted in a deeper understanding and application of the course content than in a traditional face-to-face environment, so there is evidence to support learning leadership online can be just as beneficial, if not more, as learning
the discipline in a traditional, face-to-face format. Regardless, designing a quality online course in leadership studies comes with challenges.

Though online learning environments have been enhanced with new technologies over the years, students still feel disconnected from their online courses, which leads to a decrease in motivation (Butz & Stupnitsky, 2016). In order to facilitate an engaged online learning environment, there are several areas where leadership educators could place focus. Koedinger, Kim, Zhuxin Jia, Mclaughlin, and Bier (2015) found that students in online courses learn more through interactive activities than they do recorded lectures, indicating a need for instructors to design online courses with content presented in more creative and active ways. This means presenting content through creative formats, such as interactive storytelling. As described by Baldwin and Ching (2017), interactive storytelling “presents content in a narrative form with options for users to click and explore different paths for more information” (p. 179). An example of interactive storytelling includes the online exhibition of *Some were Neighbors: Collaboration & Complicity in the Holocaust*, which was designed by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum in 2013. This interactive website allows visitors to navigate the museum exhibition digitally and choose multiple paths for more information.

Understanding not all institutions of higher education have access to delivering course content through interactive storytelling platforms, Brame (2016) offers guidelines for delivering content through video for maximum student engagement. Like interactive platforms, video can be an effective educational tool and enhance student learning, if utilized well (Kay, 2012). When it comes to creating videos for the online classroom, Brame (2016) suggests focusing on three elements: cognitive load, student engagement, and active learning. In all, a video should supplement other learning materials, such as readings, to prevent information overload; therefore, videos should use signaling throughout to highlight important information, and divide longer videos into shorter segments. As a result, students are more engaged because their attention has less time to “wander” and increases the likelihood students will watch the video(s). Finally, videos should include elements of active learning, requesting students to complete activities or worksheets, or present guiding questions for reflection throughout the video (2016).

Engaging students in the content, however, is not enough to sustain a high level of student motivation for learning. Nandi, Hamilton, and Harland (2012) suggest one way to keep student motivation high is through frequent engagement with students via asynchronous discussion boards. This type of peer-to-peer and student-instructor interaction encourages “knowledge sharing and construction” among all involved (Hew, 2016, p. 332). Discussion boards, as a form of collaborative learning, create a sense of community in the online classroom (Toven-Lindsey, Rhoads, Lozano, 2015). Moreover, greater student learning outcomes are connected to higher levels of instructor presence and interaction, indicating the need for instructors to be involved in discussion activities (Ally, 2014; Richardson & Swan, 2003).

Another area in which instructors can enhance students learning leadership online is through the provision of detailed feedback on student work. As stated above, a high level of instructor presence is known to improve student learning outcomes in the online environment, and because the online environment does not always offer the opportunity for immediate feedback, students desire clearly articulated and specific feedback on their work (Manning-Ouellette & Black, 2017;
Richardson & Swan, 2003). More specifically, Bonnel, Ludwig, and Smith (2013) found that while individual feedback was favorable, other methods such as group feedback, peer feedback, automated feedback, and self-reflection were also beneficial to the learning experience. More specifically, Wolsey (2008) found that students prefer feedback embedded within their work, rather than at the end in a summative format. Regardless, considering students can often feel disconnected in the online environment, the simple inclusion of feedback gave students a greater sense faculty cared (Bonnel, 2008). Of course, faculty often find offering feedback in the online environment cumbersome and time intensive (Mandernach, Hudson, & Wise, 2013); luckily, there are many tools one can use to offer quality feedback when teaching leadership online.

**Description of Practice**

This session will present three teaching/learning activities that will be familiar to any experienced educator: classroom discussion, content delivery, and providing feedback to students. These three tasks are among the most common pedagogical techniques in higher education. The presenters will demonstrate how it is possible to identify the best elements of each practice, and then deploy those elements through various online learning tools. Further, it is designed to be useful and immediately applicable for educators who are new to teaching leadership online. While several learning management systems (LMS) exist for online education (e.g. Blackboard, Canvas), the selected tools are not proprietary to any one system and could be adjusted or adapted to work in a variety of situations on any campus.

During the session, participants will be shown examples of common in-class learning activities, and then shown alternative tools that can create similar experiences in online courses. Several tools exist to achieve each kind of experience, and the strengths and weaknesses of each tool will be discussed. Participants will leave the session armed with specific tools that they can feel confident to use for the outcomes they wish to produce in their courses.

**Discussion**

Discussion boards are a common tool utilized in online education and one of the most popular pedagogies in leadership education (Jenkins, 2012). Most learning management systems (LMSs) have tools available to help educators facilitate the discussion process. When connecting leadership learning outcomes with online discussion, practitioners can focus both on the way in which the content is presented as well as what tool is being used.

The way in which discussion boards are structured has an impact on how students engage within the discussion. Most LMSs provide a variety of options for deploying discussion boards. Discussions can be graded or not graded, the instructor may or may not choose to offer guiding questions, and participation expectations may vary depending on the content and nature of the discussion. When starting a discussion, it is appropriate to first determine the reason for the discussion. Some online discussions boards might focus on student and faculty introductions to get to know the people in the class, while others might try to encourage deep discussion on difficult content related questions or issues. It would make sense to take a unique approach for each type of discussion that is being considered.
Depending on the type of discussion, faculty may choose to utilize other third-party tools to assist the class with different ways of engaging in discussion. For example, in courses where the discussion is more relational and less academic in nature, faculty may choose to use tools like Yellowdig to facilitate the course discussions. Yellowdig is a discussion platform that is modeled after social media and can be useful in increasing connectedness among students. In discussions like these, points are assigned more for participation than for the quality or academic nature of the content within the discussion.

**Content Delivery**

In traditional classroom environments, content is delivered to students in two primary ways: through readings and through lecture. At this point, it is hopefully well known to many educators that these two traditional methods are certainly not the only vectors for student learning, and often not even the most effective.

In order to more effectively deliver content, therefore, we need to reconceptualize what this portion of the class is trying to do. All courses contain certain knowledge outcomes that are designed to cause students to memorize, be able to recall, and be able to apply particular content relevant to the course. When viewed from this perspective, content delivery in an online course is actually, in many ways, easier than in an on-campus course. Faculty who are intentional about this aspect of their course can deliver content that serves multiple learning modalities, is engaging and relevant, and is accessible in ways a lecture can never be.

There are several tools that are designed to make content more engaging. Examples of these tools would include interactive and/or digital storytelling tools like Prezi and Puppet Pals HD, screen capture and lecture creation tools such as Voice Thread and Vid Grid, and whiteboard simulation tools like ShowMe Interactive. Faculty can also take advantage of relevant content found on the internet by embedding selected items from YouTube, TED, and others into their online courses.

**Grading/Feedback**

As stated above, feedback is integral to promoting student engagement in online courses. Given the collaborative nature of leadership education, faculty at our institution utilize a variety of feedback methods to ensure students remain motivated in their learning. At the same time, these methods are efficient in ensuring faculty employ better time management during the feedback process.

First, the use of grading rubrics not only helps students understand faculty expectations for their work, but they also make for giving feedback in an efficient way. Historically, faculty have uploaded MS Word versions of highlighted rubrics to communicate feedback, but this process is no longer needed in online education. Now, most (if not all) learning management systems include a tool in which grading rubrics can be embedded in the course structure. Though this seems like a simple, obvious solution, it is our experience most faculty are unaware of the rubric tool functionality in their institution's LMSs; therefore, we find it prudent to mention it here. These tools make for giving summative feedback even more efficient than completing an external file and uploading it in the gradebook.
Of course, simply checking boxes in a rubric is often not the absolute best feedback an instructor can provide their students. Unique, individualized comments for students provide the each one a personalized plan for improvement, and the acknowledgement their learning is of great concern. However, typing quality comments for each student can become time intensive; therefore we suggest using dictation or annotation tools within your LMS. Most LMSs contain a tool in which faculty can record audio, video, or both. Using these tools makes offering comments less time consuming and more organic. It also adds that personal touch students often lose when learning in an online environment versus a traditional face-to-face classroom.

Finally, the use of group feedback and peer feedback can create a more collaborative learning environment, and decrease the need to offer repetitive feedback, which is similar feedback offered for multiple students in the same course. When offering group feedback, one can simply record videos via their personal computer’s tools, or through online software programs like YouTube. Then, these videos can be uploaded and/or embedded in the online course for all to see. Again, this creates a greater quality connection between students and instructors and decreases the amount of time an instructor needs to take on providing similar feedback on each individual student’s submission.

Peer feedback can also lighten the load on instructor grading and create a quality learning community. Typically, our faculty have used group-specific discussion board forums, which allow small groups of students to interact with each other during a specified period. It is important, though, that students are educated on what it means to provide quality feedback. This ensures respectful and constructive feedback is provided. Moreover, instructors should guide this process by providing resources illustrating high quality student work, so expectations for all students are commonly understood.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Efforts to enhance/expand the tools and techniques used to offer online leadership education have resulted in a more meaningful and effective learning experience for online students. Many of the tools that are implemented in our online classes are incorporated because they have been evaluated and offered as best practices by the teaching innovation and learning technologies department on our campus. Although no formal assessment of the tools has been completed to date, qualitative feedback from course evaluations have often confirmed these findings. For example, one student was quoted as saying,

I really appreciated the way my instructor set up our discussion forum. He had us using the Yellowdig Discussion platform. It is, hands down, the best and most useful discussion platform I've used in any of my classes. I felt that the platform was easy to use, easy to keep track of my points, enjoyable to use, and helped the class to bond and contribute to each other's learning. YAY for Yellowdig!

Reflections of the Practitioner
The presenters of this session have extensive experience teaching leadership in the online environment. While aspects of this modality have proved to be challenging over time, the authors and their colleagues have found that with the right tools and a basic understanding of student learning, nearly any kind of outcome can be met teaching online.

In particular, one of the main reflections the presenters have developed through their collective experience, is that learning online should not be an attempt to simply replicate quality experiences from the face-to-face classroom. Doing so marginalizes the potential benefits of, and exposes the liabilities of, online education. Rather, a more productive perspective is to recognize that all pedagogical strategies are designed to produce specific outcomes in students. By focusing on those outcomes, and the intentional creation of specific learning experiences, educators can utilize the tools available to them to produce quality experiences in their students. This can be achieved even in an environment of active, engaged learning in a leadership studies classroom.

**Recommendations**

This innovative practice session will create opportunities for participants to learn about tools and techniques related to online leadership education, discuss questions and best practices, and allow participants to apply what they learned to their online teaching efforts. Participants will observe demonstrations of various tools that focus on new ways to transition the most commonly used approaches from the face-to-face environment into the virtual setting. The lessons learned would ideally be used to create a more innovative and effective experience for online leadership education that is equal to or better than the traditional classroom setting.
References


Entrepreneurial Leadership: Teaching Product Development Principles Using the Perceived Attributes of Innovation

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Abstract

This innovative practice paper presents a classroom exercise used to demonstrate the importance of product development within the context of entrepreneurial leadership. Students were presented with three smartphone options based on patent filings and were asked to rate them using their training in the perceived attributes of innovation: compatibility, observability, trialability, and complexity. The exercise leads students to think critically about the attributes as they determine if the products would have a relative advantage in the marketplace. The exercise demonstrates how the perceived attributes of innovation can be used by entrepreneurs to assess their product development as it underscores the importance of product viability within the context of entrepreneurial leadership.

“Leaders are by definition, innovators. They do things other people haven’t done or don’t do.” — Warren Bennis (2003)

Introduction

As an undergraduate student, the co-author of this paper was first introduced to the perceived attributes of innovation in an entrepreneurship class (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). The concepts were offered as a way to assess ideas students were formulating for an in-class business plan and pitch competition. Taking the concepts to heart, she translated her idea into the winning pitch. However, it wasn’t until her graduate studies that the value of the perceived attributes of innovation as an educational tool, especially for young entrepreneurs, became apparent. Looking back, she realized that by applying the attributes as a product assessment tool, she had become more confident in her idea and less anxious about the project. As a graduate student, she used this experience to help develop an exercise based on the perceived attributes of innovation. It allows entrepreneurship students to see how products differ in the marketplace and to recognize that some will emerge with a relative advantage.

Students training to become entrepreneurs must understand that leadership in this field goes beyond managing people to include the products to be developed and sold. Drucker (2002) made clear that achieving market leadership is the goal for innovation. In this context entrepreneurial leadership emerges from those with the skills to “identify, develop, and capture new business opportunities” (Renko, Tarabishy, Carsrud, & Brännback, 2013, p. 55). Our paper discusses an exercise for assessing how a product or service might perform in the market by considering its advantage relative to the marketplace. An entrepreneurial leader can exhibit many
traits found in theories such as servant, adaptive, or transformational leadership, but ultimately an entrepreneurial leader will be evaluated on his or her ability to deliver a successful product (Fernald, Solomon, & Tarabishy, 2005; Kuratko, 2007; Chung-Wen, 2008). We view the perceived attributes of innovation as a valuable concept for emerging entrepreneurial leaders to understand, allowing them to view product development through a holistic lens. There are other frameworks that could be adapted to similar training exercises. Porter (1985), for example, produced seminal work with factors affecting competitive advantages. Another example is Christensen (1997) who pioneered the construct of disruptive innovation and refined his work with a process approach (Christensen & Raynor, 2003) and an analytical model (Christensen, Anthony & Roth, 2004).

We believe the simplicity and straightforward approach found in the perceived attributes of innovation has led us to an exercise that allows for teaching important entrepreneurial considerations in an engaging and interactive way, equipping students with a critical-thinking exercise they can readily understand and use to evaluate new product ideas. In the following scholarship review, we define the perceived attributes of innovation and consider their evolution as important context for explaining the theoretical framework that supports our innovative practice exercise.

Review of Related Scholarship

In his 1962 study, Rogers introduced a framework for understanding market adoption of innovative products as “the characteristics of innovation.” He later reworked and expanded this framework, renaming it “the perceived attributes of innovation” (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). The following attributes are defined in this work:

- Relative Advantage: “The degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes” (p. 138).
- Compatibility: “The degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of the receivers” (p. 145).
- Complexity: “The degree to which an innovation is perceived to be relatively difficult to understand and use” (p. 154).
- Trialability: “The degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis” (p. 155).
- Observability: “The degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others” (p. 155).

In a meta-analysis of 75 articles focused on product innovation, Tornatzky and Klein (1982) identified three of the attributes discussed by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) that were most closely tied to the idea of innovative adoption. They concluded that determining a product’s compatibility, complexity, and relative advantage in the market could give insight into how a product would be received by potential users. Over time, the perceived attributes of innovation became recognized as a seminal construct and “represented the benchmark for research on the relationship of perceived innovation characteristics to the diffusion process” (Strutton, Lumpkin, & Vitell, 1994, p. 118). During the past decade, the construct has underpinned numerous
research studies, including the following examples: market adoption of mobile phones (Roach, 2009), consumer value systems (Ho & Wu, 2011), consumer behavior (Kunz, Schmitt, & Meyer, 2011), perceptions of internet banking systems (Anuar, Adam, & Mohamad, 2012), gender differences in technology adoption (Dutta & Omolayole, 2016), market acceptance of chatbots (Jung, Byun, & Kim, 2019, and consumer adoption of the Uber mobile app (Min, So, & Jeong, 2019).

By the time Rogers published a fourth edition of his work in 2010, the literature on innovation attributes had grown from 405 articles in 1962 to nearly 4,000. He wrote, “No other field of behavior science research represents more effort by more scholars in more disciplines in more nations” (2010, p. xv.) With this strong track record of use in research, we set out to adapt the perceived attributes of innovation to a teaching exercise that would demonstrate to students how an entrepreneur can develop a relative advantage and become a successful entrepreneurial leader despite the uncertainty they will undoubtedly face. Bennis (2003) explained that leaders learn by doing and that by embracing change, they enhance their individual paths to success. Classroom settings are difficult places to re-create such entrepreneurial learning, but the assessment tool we developed gives students a window into entrepreneurial thinking that can enhance future vision (Marcati, Guido, & Peluso, 2008). Vision is a facet of leadership that complements the perceived attributes of innovation as entrepreneurs navigate uncertainty, particularly where relative advantage is concerned. Focusing on what a product needs to be successful in the marketplace ensures that resources are used optimally (Lareau, 2000).

Another factor for budding entrepreneurial leaders to consider is the timing of their product introduction (Schroeder, 2019). Entrepreneurial leaders can gain insight into market timing by considering their product through the lens offered by the perceived attributes of innovation especially in turbulent times when market uncertainty clouds the understanding of relative advantage and requires entrepreneurial leaders to quickly react to emerging opportunities (Gupta, MacMillan, & Surie, 2004). Knowing how such decisions affect aspects of product development, and the ensuing domino effects, leads to greater leadership and entrepreneurial intelligence (Goleman, 2013). Innovation research is multidisciplinary (Tornatzky et al., 1983), requiring entrepreneurs to navigate fields ranging from business and economics to engineering and psychology. Rarely does a single individual embody sufficient skills across the broad range of disciplines required for successful deployment of an innovation. Therefore, it is important to consider the role of leadership in innovation deployment, especially in the context of entrepreneurship. Covin and Slevin (2015) defined entrepreneurial leadership as “a social influence process intended to facilitate the discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities” (p. 1). Entrepreneurial leaders are expected to develop products and bring them to market. Without a successful product, an individual aspiring to be an entrepreneurial leader would face failure on two fronts: as an entrepreneur and as a leader. Entrepreneurial leadership is complicated, but Gupta et al. (2004) developed what they called the “construct of entrepreneurial leadership” to define five key aspects of this role:

- Framing: Entrepreneurial leaders “frame a challenge that will push the team to the limits of its abilities without pushing them over their limits” (p. 247).
Absorbing uncertainty: “the entrepreneurial leader formulates a vision of the future state to be enacted by the followers and, then, shoulders the burden of responsibility for being wrong about the future” (p. 247).

Path-clearing: “Entrepreneurial leaders negotiate the internal and external environments” (p. 247).

Building commitment: “Entrepreneurial leaders use their team-building skills to inspire and mold a team that is highly committed to extending extraordinary energy and effort to accomplish the scenario described by the leader” (p. 248).

Specifying limits: The entrepreneurial leader “reshapes individuals’ perceptions of their own capabilities by eliminating self-imposed ideas of limitation. Moreover, creativity flourishes when constraints are defined” (p. 248).

For students training for entrepreneurial roles, a framework like that described above can potentially cause anxiety.

For most people, recognizing that they do not know how to do something and then responding to the challenge in a learning mode produces considerable anxiety. Managing that anxiety is, therefore, critical to learning from experience. Although it is a skill that comes naturally to some people, it is also a skill that can be developed. (McCauley & Velsor, 1998, pp. 250–251)

Entrepreneurial education often revolves around business plan simulations and pitch competitions, which can be anxiety inducing for emerging entrepreneurs (Cacciotti & Hayton, 2015; Wilbanks, 2015). Introducing the perceived attributes of innovation as a discussion exercise prior to students developing their plans and pitches can help reduce anxiety by demonstrating a method useful for product evaluation. Students can see through the examples presented how specific attributes might influence the market’s adoption of the product, illustrating that a product’s success or failure is not as random as it might seem. Equipping entrepreneurial students with tools they can apply supplements theoretical training and provides a tangible resource for an emerging entrepreneurial leader’s tool kit.

**Description of the Practice**

The exercise presented in this paper was developed for an entrepreneurship class taught during the fall 2019 and spring 2020 semesters. Prior to the exercise students participated in explanatory lectures and discussions where the definitions of the perceived attributes of innovation were defined (see literature review). The lectures also distilled the construct into a simple formula as presented in Figure 1.
The lectures featured Apple’s iPod as a case study to illustrate each of the perceived attributes of innovation. The iPod is seen to have high compatibility in that consumers were already familiar with recorded music and comfortable with the portability provided by radios, the Sony Walkman and personal compact disc players. The iPod’s proposition of storing hundreds of songs digitally was easy to explain and provided high observability while its sleek design offered low complexity. As a product in the consumer electronics sector, it was positioned for high trialability, especially given that music consumers were continually introduced to new formats (vinyl records, cassette tapes, 8-track tapes, and mp3s).

Following the lectures and case study discussions, students were given photos and prototype drawings of three different smartphone product concepts. These included a foldable phone patented by Samsung (Yong-Joon, & Woo-jong, 2017), a watch phone developed by PH Technical Labs LLC (Pattinkonda, 2013), and a throat phone patented by Motorola (Alberth, 2013). Students were asked to score the phones on a 10-point scale for each of the perceived attributes of innovation: compatibility, observability, trialability, and perception of low levels of complexity. The students were asked to think about how they rated each attribute and then determine if the product has a market advantage relative to the other smartphones by circling yes or no. The rating sheets are included as Appendix A. The photos used are withheld from Appendix A for copyright purposes. This tool can be deployed either as an individual exercise or for students working in pairs or teams. Through our entrepreneurship courses 29 students participated. They worked in small teams of two or three students to complete the exercise, taking about 30 minutes to score the attributes before discussing the results as a class. The 10-point scale is a deliberate choice based on prior market research studies (e.g., Dawes, 2008).

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

The results of this exercise are presented as anonymous feedback from students participating in a classroom activity. These results are not presented as formal research results in keeping with the guidelines of our university’s Internal Review Board. The students submitted the forms anonymously and the results of the two classes used to illustrate the practice were combined to further ensure participant anonymity.

Student scores were pooled for each attribute and for an overall score for each phone presented. Appendix B reports the scores for each attribute as well as overall product scores. The actual scores are not important; the importance is found in the relative comparison of the scores.
The foldable phone scored the highest based on combined scores the students assigned to compatibility, observability, trialability, and low complexity. By considering each attribute and assigning a numerical value, the students were critically assessing how they felt about the products relative to one another. These scores indicate these groups of students found the foldable phone to have a higher relative advantage over the other two phones evaluated. The scores were corroborated by the students giving the foldable phone the most “yes” responses for the relative advantage question. We are not assigning empirical statistical meaning to the scores themselves, but we are asserting that the scoring exercise requires the students to translate their subjective opinions into a numerical ranking. The results provide a tangible way for comparing and recognizing how they view these products relative to their market potential.

**Reflections of the Practitioners**

Kets de Vries (1977) described an entrepreneur as someone who “emerges as an anxious individual, a non-conformist poorly organized and not a stranger to self-destructive behavior” (p. 41). As a student who has participated in entrepreneurial training programs and as a professor who has taught entrepreneurship, we have experienced firsthand how the challenge of developing ideas into innovative concepts frequently induces anxiety in the students who participate. Entrepreneurship students who are tasked with creating their own business plans and pitches — especially in a competition setting — can be overwhelmed by the complexity of selecting an idea that has marketplace potential.

Our exercise is intended to provide students with a scoring method for sorting ideas based on market potential. By showing students how they can present ideas and solicit feedback using the perceived attributes of innovation, we believe this tool will allow them to assess innovation in a systematic way that will alleviate anxiety and foster a sense of exploration. Moreover, the exercise should help students recognize that entrepreneurial leaders are engaged in a series of processes as defined by Covin and Slevin (2015). They explained how entrepreneurial leadership relies on “the discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities” (p. 1). However, students new to this process need tools to enable their discovery and evaluation. We believe students can use this tool as a starting point for evaluating their ideas based on their potential for having a relative advantage in the marketplace.

**Recommendations**

Bill Gross, founder of IdeaLab, said the most significant factor in the success of a start-up business is timing. In other words, is the marketplace ready for the product or service? (Schroeder, 2019). We believe programs that teach entrepreneurship can use an exercise such as ours based on the perceived attributes of innovation to make this point clear to their students. For entrepreneurial leaders, market timing is essential, but how does one know if the market is ready? We believe the perceived attributes of innovation help students evaluate whether a product or service is ready for market. Instructors can demonstrate that products with high scores in compatibility, trialability, observability, and low complexity have advantages over products that do not score well in those attributes. If an entrepreneur has such a product, he or she can move forward with more confidence that the market will embrace the idea.
When teaching this concept, it is imperative for instructors to choose examples that will be familiar to students. We chose smartphones because of their ubiquitous nature and the penchant for smartphone companies to continually roll out new products and designs. Whatever example an instructor uses, the key rests with students connecting with the category so that they can confidently complete the exercise ratings. Instructors should also keep in mind that the ultimate goal of the exercise is to give students insight into how they can accurately apply the perceived attributes to their own projects. Understanding that innovations and the changes they represent cause anxiety, especially in young emerging leaders, is a primary reason to develop this type of exercise. Showing emerging entrepreneurs how innovations are perceived through a training exercise can help reduce anxiety as they approach their own ideas.

Horowitz and Kenerly (2014) asserted that a significant problem with recent studies on leadership education is that “they attempt to provide a recipe for challenges that have no recipes” (p. XI). In teaching those who aspire to be entrepreneurial leaders, it is important to provide useful, tangible tools for those who are not following someone’s recipe, but instead forging their own path. Whereas recipes offer carefully tested step-by-step instructions, constructs such as the perceived attributes of innovation provide broad frameworks that allow entrepreneurship programs to encourage the critical thinking and realistic assessment necessary for entrepreneurial leaders to emerge.
References


Dawes, J. (2008). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? An experiment using 5-point, 7-point, and 10-point scales. *International Journal of Market Research, 50*(1), 61–104.


## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Throat Phone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compatibility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trialability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Complexity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Watch Phone

<table>
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<th>Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trialability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Complexity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Foldable Phone

<table>
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<th>Score</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trialability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Complexity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*Note: Images and diagrams are removed for copyright purposes.*
Appendix B

The calculated results of the class exercise are shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Foldable Phone</th>
<th>Watch Phone</th>
<th>Throat Phone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1. Compatibility</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
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<td>49.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.99</td>
<td>2.43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Observability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>43.00</td>
<td>27.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Trialability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>44.50</td>
<td>46.50</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>6.64</td>
<td>6.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Low Complexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>22.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>6.07</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Relative Advantage</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Score</td>
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<td>180</td>
<td>93.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Responding Yes</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Research-based Practices in Designing Mentoring Programs for Sustainable Student Leadership Development

Abstract
A number of studies over the past decade have shown strong connections between mentoring and student gains in leadership development during their college career. We will review the findings from a recent longitudinal study on the relationship between mentoring and sustainable gains in undergraduate motivation to lead, leadership skill, and leadership self-efficacy. We also connect these results to best practices in cultivating leadership-oriented mentoring across campus units.

Introduction
In the past two decades, postsecondary education has significantly increased the attention and resources directed to formal and informal student leadership development programs in postsecondary education (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Yet, established leadership scholars continue to refer to such programming as in its “adolescence;” since major gaps continue to persist in providing data-driven practices intended to promote student growth (Owen, 2012). While the number of research publications around these topics have skyrocketed in the past decade, translating these findings to inform student affairs practice remains a challenge.

One of the less understood mechanisms for student leadership development is the engagement of students with mentors who support their journeys (Early, 2017). A number of recent studies suggest students who can identify a mentor (e.g. Campbell, et al., 2012) or participate in formal mentoring programs (e.g. Eich, 2008) possess increased leadership capacity compared to their peers who cannot. However, the majority of such research is cross-sectional, with data collected only at one point in time, and therefore limited in investigating the mechanisms by which mentoring might affect leadership development.

Two relatively recent longitudinal studies were conducted investigating the effects of mentoring, through formal programming (Lester, 2011) and informal relationships (Rosch, et al., 2017) on student leadership development. Together, these studies suggests being mentoring might be the more important factor in programmatic interventions in leadership education; showing significant associations despite controlling for confounding factors. Both studies indicate fascinating and potentially noteworthy implications and suggestions for practitioners.

Review of Related Scholarship
In assessing the impact of Institute sessions, we used the “ready, willing, and able” (Keating, et al., 2014) conceptual framework, which suggests leadership education should foster growth in students’ efficacy, drive, and proficiency around leading. In this model, measures of leadership self-efficacy are used to indicate readiness, scores on affective-identity motivation to lead items to indicate willingness, and leadership skill assessments speak to indicate ability to act. Leadership self-efficacy is the belief in one’s ability to successfully act as a leader (Murphy, 1992). Affective-identity motivation to lead refers to a sense of one’s self as a leader, including the drive to enact leading behaviors (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Leadership skill, for purposes of our investigation, refers to one’s capacity to impact sustainable change and create authentic
relationships (Bass, 1998) as well exhibiting congruence with organizational and community norms while leading (Brown, et al., 2005).

**Description of the Practice**
We are conducting a population survey of participants of LeaderShape’s Institute program. This program is a 6- or 4- day intensive off-site program designed to enhance socially responsible leadership among college students. Study participants completed a pre-test before the session, a post-test on the final day of the session, and a follow-up post-test 4 months after their respective session. The evaluations measure participants’ leadership skill, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. The longitudinal study seeks to answer the questions: “What happens after student finish the Institute?” and, “What aids in their continual leadership growth?”

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**
Results from our analyses support a common trend among participants: after attending the focal program, scores on all post-test measures rise, then fall dramatically when reassessed four months later to levels barely above pre-test. However, even when controlling for other involvement factors, the ability to identify a mentor on campus is, by far, the most powerful predictor of sustainable leadership growth over time. In fact, it is the only significant campus involvement variable associated with durable gains from the Institute. These data indicate mentoring relationships greatly enhance the longevity of leadership gains experienced by students after formal leadership development programming. Future research projects can investigate if these durable gains are impacted differentially by informal and formal mentoring strategies.

**Reflections of the Practitioner**
The results of the longitudinal study suggest that identified leadership mentors can help to sustain development. Some suggestions to foster mentoring relationships include: authentically caring about students’ individual developmental trajectory, offering practical advice on the meaning of leading in a complex world, and the value of recruiting mentors from student affairs offices, faculty of all ranks, and leaders in the surrounding community.

**Recommendations**
It is our recommendation that campuses provide formal or informal mentors to their students in order to aid in leadership development and success of their students. In addition, mentoring relationships centered on development (not conformity to the college environment) have greater potential for success. Mentors who share their own experiences also tend to be more successful; we advocate appropriate vulnerability and self-disclosure in mentoring relationships with students. Finally, we suggest aiding students in building a “mentorship village”, comprised of student affairs administrators, faculty members, staff and other personnel, as well as members of the surrounding community.
References


A Theory-Driven Approach to Developing Consciousness of Self Among Adolescents and Emerging Adults

Hannah Sunderman
Lindsay Hastings

University of Nebraska - Lincoln

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to present a theory-driven approach to increasing Consciousness of Self, an individual value of the Social Change Model of Leadership, among adolescents and emerging adults. Specifically, this paper presents a year-long intervention that involves a large-group retreat with interactive activities in the fall and a small-group meeting with in-depth discussions in the spring. The intervention focused on identifying values, describing strengths, and practicing mindfulness. This paper outlines a theoretical framework, describes the intervention, and outlines a plan for collecting evaluative data. By innovating practice around the utilization of leadership theory to create a structured developmental intervention, leadership educators can implement the techniques shared in the current paper and create their own theoretically-grounded curriculum and interventions.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Maximizing the Role of Teaching Assistants (TAs) to Match Signature Pedagogies in Leadership Education

Lindsay Hastings
Hannah Sunderman
Kaitlyn Forsythe
Nick Knopik

University of Nebraska - Lincoln

Abstract
Teaching methods that emphasize cooperative and team-based learning in small groups are an increasing focus of education literature (Haidet, Kubitz, & McCormack, 2014) and have well-researched outcomes for students (Michaelsen, Davidson, & Major, 2014; Pai, Sears, & Maeda, 2014; Roberson & Franchini, 2014). Considering leadership education’s heavy usage of discussion-based pedagogies in both large and small group contexts (Jenkins, 2012), reconsidering the role of teaching assistants (TAs) in leadership education is paramount. The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to integrate previous literature with recent results on best practices for utilizing small groups in the leadership classroom in order to innovate practice on maximizing the role of TAs by matching their tasks to signature pedagogies in leadership education.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Using Design Thinking as Student-Centered Approach to Enhance an Undergraduate Leadership Program

John Banter
John Egan
Kimberly Hayes
Ben Phillips

Georgia Southern University

Abstract
It is widely understood that distinctive leadership programs must engage in assessment, and intentional program improvement practices. Design thinking can serve as one student-centered tool that engages students in the assessment process, while looping feedback into substantive programmatic changes. This paper explores the use of this innovative practice to enhance a cocurricular leadership program at a large university in the Southeastern United States. Practitioners found that design thinking was a useful supplemental assessment tool that led to positive programmatic changes that were focused on students’ needs.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
FYE Peer Leaders: Culturally Relevant Leadership Learning to Support New Students from Orientation through the End of the First Year

Abstract

The task: provide first-year transition support to 6957 new first-year students, from orientation through the end of the first year. The goal: help 28 undergraduate students acquire the culturally relevant leadership skills they need to build relationships and support this population. Will it work? This innovative practice paper will discuss the First Year Experience Peer Leader program at The Ohio State University. This program is unique not only in the size and scope of potential impact, but also in the educational investment (120+ hours) to prepare student leaders who can assist their peers in tackling an array of issues they may encounter in their first year. This paper will discuss the FYE Peer Leader program model, including successes and areas for improvement.

Introduction

First Year Experience (FYE) Peer Leaders at The Ohio State University are a team of 28 undergraduate students representing a variety of majors, interests, backgrounds, and social identities. The team is intentionally diverse, representing a cross-section of the student body. Created in the 2015, the Peer Leader program exists to provide support and referrals for the entire class of new domestic first-year students ($N = 6597$ in autumn 2019). Approximately 250 students are assigned to each Peer Leader.

New first-year students receive assistance from their Peer Leader beginning at orientation and continuing through the entire academic year. A Peer Leader will interact with new students in a number of ways: one-on-one goal-setting sessions; small groups activities; exchanging emails or texts; and facilitating sessions of our success series. Interactions might range from something trivial (e.g. “where’s the best place to eat?”) to something serious (e.g., “how do I get help for my mental health?”). By lending their peer voice, these student leaders normalize the ups and downs of the transition to college.

The Peer Leaders engage in a rigorous training program (120+ hours) that prepares them for relationship building and outreach. The goals of Peer Leader training include understanding identity, power/privilege, campus climate, and the ways in which some groups have been historically excluded from higher education. These elements align with culturally relevant leadership learning (Bertrand Jones, Guthrie, & Osteen, 2016; Guthrie, Bertrand Jones, & Osteen, 2017). With such a large incoming class, Peer Leaders are guaranteed to interact with students who are different from them. Our goal is to help Peer Leaders understand their own identities and how these impact their encounters with others. We also aim to give these student leaders some tools for providing thoughtful support to their peers, while having productive conversations about difference.

Review of Related Scholarship
It is generally accepted that peers are a significant influence on college students (Astin, 1993). In particular, peer leaders are known to have an impact on students as they transition to college (Shook & Keup, 2012; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996). By providing services and support to their fellow students, peer leaders can assist new students with adjusting to college, finding community, and accessing resources (Newton & Ender, 2010; Shook & Keup, 2012). As a result of providing these services, peer leaders indirectly contribute to student retention and persistence (Newton & Ender, 2010; Shook & Keup, 2012; Tinto, 1987).

Peer leader education programs address a variety of personal and professional skills that students carry over to their own success in college or in their lives after college. A student leadership development program for peer leaders could be designed with any number of leadership models in mind. We chose culturally relevant leadership learning because of its emphasis on understanding identity and social justice issues (Bertrand Jones et al., 2016; Guthrie et al., 2017). The CRLL framework allows students to explore their own identities in the context of power, privilege, and oppression.

Exploring these topics is an essential part of shaping peer leaders who can make a difference in today’s higher education system (Guthrie, Bertrand Jones, Osteen, & Hu, 2013; Jones, 2016). Strengthening this knowledge helps student leaders build efficacy (Bertrand Jones et al., 2016). In particular, the CRLL framework offers an opportunity to educate student leaders on the ways their identities will interplay with those of new students. The framework encourages the development of leaders who can implement social change by first understanding the barriers diverse students might face at the institution (Bertrand Jones, et al., 2016).

Description of Practice

Our leadership education program begins with Peer Leader selection in February of the previous academic year. Students then enroll in a 7-week letter-graded course, EHE 3000: Foundations for Peer Leaders in First Year Experience. The course establishes baseline knowledge and skills in the areas of social identity awareness, listening and relationship building, principles of growth and development, and common issues in the first year. The course covers 14 hours of content and requires multiple out-of-class projects. In spring 2019, our out-of-class assignments included writing a peer leader philosophy statement, in which students outlined their vision of leadership and how they expected to make connections with new students. We also asked Peer Leaders to work together to develop a comprehensive guide of 28 resources a new student could use in their first year.

Peer Leaders are considered officially employed when they arrive on campus at the beginning of summer semester. They attend our three-week May training, which consists of over 100 hours of additional content. May training prepares Peer Leaders to both interact with students and work successfully with each other. Skill development includes small group facilitation, public speaking, intentional listening, and demonstrating empathy. FYE professional staff facilitates the majority of the lessons. Guest facilitators are also invited, including staff from the Multicultural Center. Students develop deep knowledge of campus resources ranging from disability services to financial coaching to support for Title IX issues. At the end of May training, Peer Leaders are
asked to revise their original philosophy statement to incorporate new visions of what it means to be a leader.

The real work of Peer Leaders begins with new student orientation, which runs from the end of May through the end of July. Each week, a Peer Leader is responsible for working two different two-day program sessions, with about 18-22 students in each group. Over the course of the summer, each Peer Leader will have interacted with approximately 250 students. This group of students becomes their assigned caseload. Peer Leaders and new students have formal small-group meet-ups three times during each orientation session. New students will also interact with Peer Leaders during evening activities, for example, while attending the Students of Color Mixer.

During the summer, Peer Leaders attend a weekly staff meeting where they receive some ongoing professional development, such as sharpening their customer service skills. Additionally, a Peer Leader meets weekly with a professional staff supervisor to talk about making progress towards their goals, defining, areas where they can improve, and navigating team dynamics. Supervisors are tasked with providing individualized guidance to meet a student at their level and help them continue their personal development and growth.

When the autumn semester begins, Peer Leaders hit the ground running with intentional outreach to students who are most likely to benefit from additional support. Ohio State uses its own predictive risk model to identify students who are least likely to be retained. At Ohio State, priority students are most likely to include first-generation students, low-income students, and students of color. These students are marked as “priority students” on a Peer Leader’s roster to make it easier for Peer Leaders to focus their outreach. Ideally, Peer Leaders are drawing on skills they learned in the spring and summer to build meaningful, supportive relationships and to help new students advocate for themselves. During the semester, Peer Leaders continue to meet individually with their supervisor for feedback and personalized strategies for growth. They also meet once per week as a group for a staff meeting where they typically receive nuggets of professional development. This continues through the remainder of the academic year, with Peer Leaders working 8-15 hours depending on the week.

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

Can 28 Peer Leaders in fact support 6957 new first-year students? Indeed, it is possible! Of course, no Peer Leader has deep and meaningful relationships with all 250 students on their roster. Most are lucky to build impactful ongoing relationships with 10 or so students. However, the remaining students still benefit from outreach: one-on-one meetings; exchanging text messages, GroupMe messages, or emails; attending campus events; and conversing via social media. As a testament to their persistence, by the end of autumn 2019, Peer Leaders totaled more than 4800 documented interactions with students. This includes one or more successful interactions with 80.6% of the 1211 “priority students” who were statistically likely to need the most support.
We applied the model of culturally relevant leadership learning with the goal of better preparing Peer Leaders to thoughtfully interact with diverse students. We intentionally educated them on power, privilege, identity, and marginalization. Below is a summary of some key outcomes.

- White Peer Leaders began to understand what it feels like to be a person of color at a predominantly white institution (PWI), particularly at orientation, which is often the time when new students begin to realize the campus is not as diverse as what they were led to believe.
- Our Peer Leaders learned to include their pronouns when introducing themselves, as well as how to explain the concept of pronouns to other students and their families.
- Peer Leaders acquired and implemented strategies to support transgender students, some of who were not yet out to their own families and friends.
- Many of our Peer Leaders are first-generation students who helped educate their teammates on what to do or say to put a new first-gen student at ease.
- Lastly, Peer Leaders practiced scenarios in which they confronted someone who makes a discriminatory or inappropriate remark. Almost every Peer Leader had to put these skills into practice at some point in the summer.

Of course, Peer Leaders did not always navigate these situations confidently (or correctly). Ongoing one-on-one meetings with supervisors helped Peer Leaders further shape these skills. Additionally, individual Peer Leaders experienced personal growth in their own identity awareness and other forms of cognitive development.

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**Reflections of the Practitioner**

Statistical and anecdotal evidence suggest the FYE Peer Leaders are effective in connecting new students to resources and providing support for their college transition. Peer Leaders are great at normalizing the ups and downs of the first year, creating the feeling of “If I can do it, so can you.” By intentionally addressing topics of critical leadership, we gave our students the opportunity to better understand the variety of experiences a first year student might go through.

Although we were able to give Peer Leaders some basic tools to recognize and challenge oppression, we did not do a great job in helping them contextualize what is achievable at an institution of this size. As a result, some Peer Leaders expressed anger and resentment after discovering they were not able to bring about their own visions of change. They perceived the professional staff as not being committed to social justice, when in fact institutional bureaucracy and culture limit staff in ways that students are not.

We were also not prepared to effectively manage dynamics that arose within the Peer Leader team. Some members of the team were substantially better informed than others when it came to topics of identity and current events related to social justice. This created a rift in the team between “those who are woke and those who aren’t,” as one student put it. Further, many of our team members were in the early stages of understanding and developing their own identities. As a practitioner who is familiar with student development theory, I could typically identify which students were struggling to make sense of their own lives and how.

Recognizing and addressing the individual development of Peer Leaders is one thing. It is another thing to try to help them progress while also asking them to support new students who
were in the same stage of development (or perhaps beyond). As Owen, Hassell-Goodman, and Yamanaka (2017) stated, “Educators must consider the developmental capacity of students when designing leadership programs to ensure participants receive optimal challenges and supports without hindering student agency” (p. 49). There is no one-size-fits-all approach to helping student leaders develop this capacity.

In order to be effective at educating students on the principles of culturally relevant leadership learning, professional staff must also be willing to do their own work on understanding and challenging power and privilege. If a staff member was grappling with an aspect of their own identity development, it could impact their ability to effectively mentor and coach specific Peer Leaders. Additionally, not all members of the professional staff were equally committed to the CRLL model. At times this made lesson planning and goal setting difficult. Peer Leaders were also quick to pick up on which staff members they perceived to be more “woke” than others, which created some tense moments.

Finally, in teaching Peer Leaders how to support new students, we did not spend enough time addressing the importance of setting personal boundaries and knowing what is and is not within the scope of their role. The reality is that many of our new students are faced with difficult and serious life challenges in their first year, from a death in the family to homelessness to sexual assault. As one Peer Leader frequently said, “Students be goin’ through it.” While we were glad these students reached out for help, a Peer Leader was not necessarily the right person to support them. Sometimes the line was blurred between Peer Leaders acting like student leaders and Peer Leaders trying to mimic counselors or therapists. This led to some arguments amongst the professional staff as to whether we were asking too much of Peer Leaders.

Recommendations

The FYE Peer Leader educational program is unique in size and scope. It requires a serious and long-term investment of time, energy, and resources on the part of both students and professional staff. Peer Leaders have a positive impact on new first-year students. They also benefit greatly from the leadership education we provide. Preparing Peer Leaders to recognize and navigate their emotional responses is one area of our program that needs improvement. It is worth adding curricular elements to help Peer Leaders learn to set boundaries and manage their emotions, perhaps drawing on Emotionally Intelligent Leadership (Shankman, Allen, & Haber-Curran, 2015).

At the end of the day, a significant goal of the Peer Leader is to develop relationships with new students, which they can draw upon when helping these students navigate their first year of college I would continue to use CRLL as a framework for our educational program, but I would further develop our use to make sure our lesson plans include attention to language, space, and representation (Chunoo, Beatty, & Gruver, 2019). It is critical to develop future student leaders who can challenge norms, recognize issues, and address power and privilege. We as the educators must also be willing to do the work ourselves (Chunoo, Beatty, & Gruver, 2019).

REFERENCES


Appendices

Examples of topics covered in the Peer Leader education program:

- The power of peers
- Vulnerability
- Telling your story
- Using MMDI model to explore social identity
- Open Doors training
- Allyship and advocacy
- Communication across difference
- Understanding microagressions
- Fostering inclusive spaces
- Overview of exclusion and barriers in higher education
- Supporting “priority students” and breaking down barriers
- Fundamental facilitation skills
- Listening skills and practice
- Making referrals when working with students from different backgrounds
- Radical empathy

Examples of learning objectives for the Peer Leader education program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understand where and how one person can make a difference for another</th>
<th>Articulate the purpose, values, and role of FYE and its position within the university, and the role of Peer Leader to support this</th>
<th>Demonstrate empathetic and reflective listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify personal values and how they impact work as a Peer Leader</td>
<td>Assess the need for resources through individual interaction, data collection, conversations with supervisors, and communication with campus partners</td>
<td>Describe key elements of effective mentoring relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate ability to communicate across difference, utilizing inclusive language, exhibiting empathy and care, and seeking understanding</td>
<td>Identify personal strengths and areas of growth and how these can contribute to the successful execution of the Peer Leader role</td>
<td>Recognize not all students come to Ohio State with the same experiences and identities, nor will they experience transition in the same way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidently explain how to use more common resources</td>
<td>Explore personal and social identities to develop self-concept</td>
<td>Normalize first-year transition struggles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge challenges in building relationships and acquire strategies to address these</td>
<td>Explore personal cultural background and past experiences in relation to identity development</td>
<td>Acquire skills for one-on-one, small group, and large group facilitations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example assignment for EHE 3000: Foundations for Peer Leaders in First Year Experience

Final Project Part 1: Peer Leader Philosophy Statement

Due: April 25

This assignment aligns with the following course goals:

2) Define the role of Peer Leader in first-year success, transition, and retention.
5) Demonstrate increased self-awareness of personal strengths, values, and identity, and clarify how these relate to the Peer Leader role.

Assignment Description

This assignment will help you articulate your vision for your role as a Peer Leader. Your philosophy statement explains how you will guide students in their transition to Ohio State.

Assignment Directions

In this 2-page essay, please tell us what being an FYE Peer Leader means for you. Please consider what you have learned this semester about yourself, about FYE and Ohio State, and about first year student transition and retention. A couple of helpful hints:

- This is your vision of what it means to be an FYE Peer Leader, based on your current knowledge and experiences.
- Your philosophy will evolve as you learn more during May training and as you begin interacting with new first-year students in the summer.
- This is a challenging assignment to help you synthesize/apply course content.

In your essay, please be sure to address the following questions. You do not need to specifically address them in this order, but you should make sure to answer all of them:

- What is the role of a Peer Leader in:
  o Supporting new students' transition
  o Contributing to new students' retention
  o Helping new students develop in college
- What skills and qualities are necessary for building an effective relationship with new students? Your fellow PLs? The FYE pro staff?
- What is the most important ethical consideration for Peer Leaders? (Consider using Chapter 10 in the book as a guide)
- What are some limits of the Peer Leader role? How will you know when you have reached those limits?
- How will you seek to understand and support those students who do not share the same identities and life experiences as you?

How do you hope your students might remember you? [And/or] What lasting impact do you hope to have as a Peer Leader?
Implementation of Team Coaching into Undergraduate Leadership Classroom

Ellie Sheldon
L.J. McElravy

University of Nebraska - Lincoln

Abstract

Transformational leadership leads followers to perform above and beyond expectations as a result of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration leader behaviors (Boal & Bryson, 1998; Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989a). Supporting this outcome of transformational leadership, coaching can be described as “unlocking people’s potential to maximize their own performance” (Whitmore, 2009, p.10). In this presentation, participants will explore the process and benefits to implementing team coaching practices into the leadership classroom. The practices described, Initial team meetings were arranged to generate team cohesion and further support instructor efforts towards team coaching during class from a transformational leadership framework.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Developing Leadership Capacity Using Visual Thinking Strategies

Saya Kakim
Kerry Priest

Kansas State University

Abstract

In this innovative practice paper, we will illustrate how discursive practices of Visual Thinking Strategies can foster leadership development capacity of college students. We will show how VTS aligns with constructionist perspectives to post-heroic leadership grounded in discursive approaches to leadership development. This art-based pedagogy advances leadership development through dialogue and sense-making.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
An Engaged Scholarship Approach to Create and Evaluate a Leadership Development Program for Students

Roberta Madonado Franzen

Kansas State University

Abstract

Expectations continue to evolve in today’s work environment. An innovative movement between university and industry partners has emerged as a response to these expectations. In this movement, programs prepare college students with essential skills before entering the workforce. One such university created a leadership development program for workforce preparation. The 70-20-10 framework, created by researchers and authors working with the Center for Creative Leadership, blends challenging experiences (70%), coaching/mentoring (20%), and formal training (10%) to strengthen participants' leadership acumen (Johnson et al., 2018). Kirkpatrick’s four-level model of training evaluation was adopted to evaluate changes in reaction, learning, behavior, and results. This paper presents an engaged scholarship approach to create and evaluate a leadership development committed to preparing the next generation.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
Transformative Leadership Education Using Arts-Based Storytelling

Tess Hobson
Mac Benavides
Aliah Mestrovich Seay

Kansas State University

Abstract

Arts-based learning is a powerful approach that leadership educators should consider to enrich student learning. By employing an arts-based storytelling pedagogy, leadership educators can engage learners in the power of their lived experiences (Sutherland & Jelinek, 2015). At a large Midwestern research university, leadership educators have utilized an illustrative activity called the Little Buddy as a central pedagogical element to enhance student learning in regards to their cultural identity development and how this emerges in their understanding and practice of leadership. The Little Buddy activity is shaped and supported by literature in intercultural leadership, culturally relevant leadership learning, critical reflexivity, and arts-based narrative; and draws upon the power of storytelling as a pedagogy. Practitioner reflections and recommendations for practice will also be discussed.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
Community-Based Mentoring in Higher Education: The Integrity in Leadership Program

Abstract

As students prepare for life-after-college, mentoring programs are wonderful conduits by which students can build meaningful relationships, develop practical skills, connect to their communities, and develop their emotional intelligence. This practice paper describes a community-based informal mentoring program at a private college that has gained strong institutional support. Mentors from the community are selected based on their reputation for living lives of integrity and leadership. They are then matched with groups of approximately 5-6 students who are nominated for the program by staff, coaches, faculty, and administrators. Mentors are provided with a broad menu of resources but are given wide freedom to run their groups as they see fit. This paper will describe the Integrity in Leadership program in depth, share insights and learnings gained over time. In addition, the author makes recommendations for developing clearer learning outcomes and measuring long-term impact.

Introduction

As a generation moves toward retirement age, a new generation of workers and future leaders waits in the wings. In many ways, the current generation is better prepared for the workplace than any generation before them. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2019), the level of educational attainment for 25-29 year-olds continues to rapidly climb. Yet for all the advances made in level of education, employers are consistently finding that their brightest young talent often falls short in what have often been referred to as “soft skills” such as interaction, emotional intelligence, collaboration, and the ability to deal with conflict. According to Leveson (2000), companies hope to hire young, new talent, but have found that colleges and universities are falling short in teaching the practical skills necessary for the workplace.

Mentoring provides a bridge between knowledge acquisition and proven application. Like apprenticeships of old, mentoring relationships provide opportunities for the passing of knowledge, lessons, and experience from one generation to the next. Because mentoring is driven by relationship, it is impossible to replicate in a classroom setting or through book learning. Of course, as in any other committed relationship, the demands on both the mentor and the mentee in terms of time, energy, and commitment are substantial. Yet few learning opportunities provide a more direct benefit. Lea (2011) highlighted the “lasting transformational impact” of the mentoring process (p. 259). According to Pittenger and Heimann (2000), the self-efficacy of the mentor and the protégé are directly related to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship. Self-efficacy has been defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). The willingness of both parties to engage in challenging activities, be adaptable, and maintain a positive attitude throughout the process is pivotal for the success of the mentoring relationship. The responsibility for success falls on the shoulders of both the mentor and the protégé. While a prospective mentee should exhibit curiosity and a willingness to learn, the mentor must exude a willingness to listen, a desire to help, the patience to disciple, and above all else, eagerness to serve.
Review of Related Scholarship

Mentoring has consistently been shown to have positive impacts on mentors (Labin, 2017), mentees (Laverick, 2016), and organizations (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2008). Direct benefits to mentor are numerous, and have been found to include enhanced self-esteem (Murray & Owen, 1991), as well as an increased sense of confidence and personal fulfillment (Newby & Heide, 1992). The benefits of mentoring as a means of personal and professional development have long been expounded in the literature (Kram & Bragar, 1991; McCauley & Young, 1993).

Mentoring in higher education takes on a variety of forms, both formal and informal. Nora and Crisp (2007) identified four motivators for mentorship within higher education: (a) psychological and emotional support, (b) goal setting and career, (c) academic support, and (d) role modeling. Merriam (1983) took an early look at mentoring in higher education settings and recognized that the practice, while varied in its approach, consistently yielded positive outcomes. Salinas, Riley, Camacho, and Floyd (2020) recognized important cultural elements of informal mentoring in higher education, specifically in the parallels between familial cultures and the collegiate community (p. 21).

Description of the Program

The Integrity in Leadership mentoring program was developed from the vision of a member of the Board of Trustees together with the Provost. The seminal idea behind the program was to create a space in which students could learn from the lived experience of respected individuals in their community. Beyond vocational training, the Integrity in Leadership mentoring program creates a space wherein students can build relationships, ask questions, and gain personal insights outside of the classroom in a warm, nonjudgmental setting. For the past seven years, a group of carefully chosen leaders from the community have been invited to mentor and lead groups of approximately 5-6 students, who are nominated by staff and faculty to participate in the program. With over 80 college juniors and seniors and 16 mentors participating in the current cycle, and over 130 students already nominated for next year, the program has continued to grow in size and in reputation across campus and in the community.

Groups meet approximately twice-per-month during the Fall and Spring semesters at an agreed-upon time and place. Many of the mentors open their homes or offices for the groups to come together in a warm, comfortable environment away from the college campus. While the overall focus of the program is on leadership and integrity, mentors have used a variety of tools and methods to provide structure to their group sessions. Historically, mentors have been given a binder that includes broad programmatic goals, book ideas, and case study resources. The majority of mentors choose a book for the students to read together during the course of a semester, using that text as a springboard for further discussion.

Discussion of Outcomes

The past seven years have shown an increasing demand for and interest in the Integrity in Leadership mentoring program, both through student inquiries and faculty/staff nominations. The
majority of students have informally expressed overall satisfaction with the program. Student experiences seem to differ vastly based on factors such as scheduling and availability, group cohesion, mentor style, and commitment level. While the institutional view of the mentoring program continues to remain quite positive, the newly-appointed director recognizes the importance of ongoing assessment to ensure that the program is meeting its stated and expected goals.

The informality of a mentoring program such as this one creates some difficulties in terms of assessment and outcome data. The personalized, non-curricular nature of mentoring can create some difficulties in comparing mentee experiences across groups. Traditional self-reported leadership questionnaires, like those used in university-based coaching programs (Brown & Varghese, 2019), fail to capture all aspects of a program based on personal and professional development. Still, feedback is an important element in program development and direction.

In end-of-year evaluations, students have expressed great satisfaction with the Integrity in Leadership Mentoring Program, with over 97% of respondents from program year 2019-2020 (n=36) stating that they would recommend the program to others. Specific feedback has helped to shape future adjustments to the program. For example, mentors and participants alike have highlighted the mentoring relationship as the most important element of the program, a sentiment that is backed by the mentoring literature (Eller, Lev, & Feurer, 2014). Likewise, both mentees and mentors have expressed a desire for more shared structure across the program. This would assure that all mentoring groups would be working on similar activities and curricula while maintaining individuality in structure and format.

Beyond end-of-year evaluations, we are collecting data in a number of ways in order to gain understanding on the program’s impact on mentors, mentees, and alumnae. The first method for evaluation will be a systematic review of satisfaction surveys given to program participants throughout the years. This data will be mined for common themes that will help shape future program development. Secondly, the director will engage current and former mentors in qualitative interviews to garner deeper insights into the lived experiences of mentors in an informal, community-based mentoring program for college students. Lastly, the program is reaching out to its graduates to measure the long-term impact of participation in such an endeavor.

**Reflection**

The Integrity in Leadership mentoring program provides a special opportunity for students to spend time with and learn from men and women who have lived lives that radiate social, professional, and ethical success. Each mentor is carefully selected based on his or her own merits and participates in the program fully by choice. Students are given rare insight into the lives of these successful men and women, who often open their homes and places of work to be safe spaces for students to meet, ask questions, and gain valuable wisdom. Mentors are vulnerable about their own lives, sharing mistakes and foibles in the hopes that students can learn from their errors. The opportunities provided by such a program are remarkable and include personal development, vocational insight, relationship building, community networking, leadership growth, and ethical training.
Now in its 8th year, the program has impacted hundreds of students and numerous mentors. It continues to be held in high regard across the campus and the community. Still, there is work to be done in terms of outcome measurement in order that the program can be most effective for the majority of student participants. For the good of the program now and in the future, it is imperative that the program staff systematically assess the program’s effectiveness. Additionally, outcome guidelines and programmatic resources can help mentors find the freedom to be creative within a clearly delineated structure.

**Recommendations**

In any program such as this one, practitioners need to strike a difficult balance between informal and formalized elements. On one hand, when engaging community volunteers from vastly different backgrounds, there is great benefit in allowing each person to shape her meetings in a way that reflects her style and experience. Formal structures, such as developed outcomes and embedded activities, help to ensure that while each mentoring group will have a unique experience, every student will experience promised benchmarks that are fundamental to the Integrity in Leadership mentoring program.

As the mentoring program moves into its next season, it is an opportunity to more strictly define such outcomes and broad structural components to ensure that the majority of students have an experience that is positive and worthwhile. As other institutions consider mentoring programs that engage the campus and community, they can learn from our institution’s continual learnings. In short, formalizing informal mentoring programs does not need to stagnate mentor creativity. Instead, agreed upon outcomes can create a structure within which mentors feel the freedom to engage students from a place of authenticity. Our programmatic assessments will, we hope, help us fine tune the mentoring program to be effective for the greatest number of participants.

**References**


Abstract

The evolution of technology in the classroom has never been more prevalent in leadership education as it is today. Technology-based pedagogy allows educators to interact with learners in relevant and memorable ways. Podcasting is an innovative approach to leadership education with a variety of educational applications. The use of podcasting as an instructional methodology provides opportunities for leadership educators to enhance learner engagement, foster classroom collaboration, supplement course content, and facilitate the review of the pertinent subject matter. The creation of a podcast is economically feasible and can be completed with relative ease on any smartphone device (Android or iOS).

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Developing High School Leaders to Impact their Communities: The High School Leadership Academy

Abstract

A private university developed a week-long High School Leadership Academy for rising Sophomores. Over a period of two years, students were assessed both on their satisfaction with the program and their self-reported leader development as measured by the Student Leadership Practices Inventory®. Students displayed significant leadership growth across all practice areas, with especially significant improvement in the areas Model the Way and Inspire a Shared Vision. This paper describes the program in detail from formation to execution, presents data from student assessments, and gives recommendations for institutions looking to develop a similar program in the future.

Introduction

In the early months of 2017, a university was awarded a grant to develop a summer leadership institute for high school freshmen. From the vision of this donor, as well as from the input and expertise of a number of faculty, staff, and consultants, the High School Leadership Academy (HSLA) was born. The program intentionally targeted students from over 30 public, private, and charter schools in the region. In addition, two students from Spain were also able to join the program. For seven days, 64 high school students were in residence on a university campus, fully immersed in a culture of leadership and learning. Students were placed in facilitated groups with others from various communities often quite different from their own. The first Academy was launched in Summer 2017, with the hope and expectation that it would develop into an annual program.

The program’s curriculum was developed from two main sources: Kouzes and Posner’s (2014) Student Leadership Challenge and the Social Change Model of Leadership (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). Students were led through a series of workshops, breakout sessions, fun activities, and service opportunities that centered on each student’s ability to grow as influencers. Following the social change model (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2017), the curriculum led students through a progression of leadership thought, from self-understanding to community influence. Students were pre-sorted into groups of 6-7 students from various schools, with great effort made to build groups that were geographically and demographically diverse. The students remained in these groups for the duration of the HSLA, up to and including the presentation of their final project.

From the start of the week, students understood that the ultimate goal of the High School Leadership Academy was not only to grow individually, but to identify a common issue and design a plan for leading change across the schools represented in their group. Every session and activity within the Academy was geared toward these goals, using the social change model and Student Leadership Challenge as catalysts. Each day of the Academy began with a facilitated group session, during which the lead facilitator introduced the overall topic for the day. Students learned about themselves and one another through breakout activities and games. A day trip was taken to an area challenge course to do team-building and growth. In addition, speakers were brought in throughout the Academy to cover relevant issues like body image, diversity, social-
justice, bullying, and mindfulness. Students engaged in activities that required self-reflection, teamwork, and vision-casting. Over the week-long program, students were presented with opportunities to explore their own understandings of leadership, participate in brainstorming and activities, develop a sense of teamwork, interact with engaging speakers, and, as a culminating experience, come up with a plan to overcome a critical challenge in their own communities and schools.

This presentation will focus on the rationale for and process of developing the High School Leadership Academy, highlight its curricular elements, and provide data collected from students over two years of the HSLA. Based on this data, strengths and limitations will be discussed, as well as areas for potential change and growth. Lastly, the author will present his own ideas about the effectiveness of such a program and some suggestions for building a similar experience that will benefit both the attendees and the college/university.

**Review of Scholarship**

The importance of early leadership education has been repeatedly demonstrated in the literature. Fuller, Harrison, Buckstein, Martin, Lawrence, and Parks (2017) noted the important impact of high school leadership training on future development. Likewise, Komives and Johnson (2009) and Bowman (2014) recognized that high school leadership experiences are a predictor of positive collegiate leadership outcomes. In most instances, these leadership experiences occur within the high school setting. While high school leaders often recognize the need for increased leadership development for students, the already over-packed, standardized curriculum leaves little room for formalized leadership training (Chan, 2000). Sports teams and clubs often provide leadership development at some level, yet such initiatives often fall short of meeting adolescents’ developmental needs and wants (Starratt, 2007). In addition, while there are a number of summer leadership camps and student academies run by organizations such as the Boy Scouts of America (scouting.org) and the National Student Leadership Conference (nslcleaders.org), a model such as this one, which brings high school leadership development to the college or university campus, is somewhat unique.

Unfortunately, there remains a lack of research on the integration of adolescent leadership development on a sense of increased responsibility to one’s school and community (Whitehead, 2009). The majority of school-based leadership development opportunities are embedded within clubs, extracurricular activities and athletics. These opportunities, while beneficial, fail to connect students to the bigger picture of influence and responsibility. Until students feel a sense of responsibility for specific leadership initiatives within the larger school community, they fail to fully engage and take on a sense of true ownership (Mitra, 2005).

Whitehead (2009) underscored the importance of utilizing authentic leadership as a framework for leadership development with adolescents. The core categories of authentic leadership, namely: (1) personal authenticity; (2) ideal authenticity, which involves having a vision for the good beyond oneself; and (3) social authenticity, which connects to a person’s interactions with his or her environment, (Woods, 2007) align well with the social change model as described earlier in this text. Students are seeking for ways to better themselves while making some impact on the world around them. Altruism has become a consistent calling card for the younger
generations in America (Shek, Ma, & Liu, 2015). At the core of both authentic leadership and the social change model is a connection to one’s community, or service leadership. (Avolio and Locke, 2004; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2017; Shek, Ma, & Liu, 2015). Service leadership became a central component of the design of the High School Leadership Academy curriculum.

**Description of the Program**

The Academy’s team was composed of faculty and university staff with expertise ranging from student life, counseling and enrollment management. Most importantly, the program recruited college students to serve as junior facilitators and mentors. This experience provided the college students the opportunity to apply the skills they had acquired through classes in leadership development as well as accrue points towards completing their leadership certificate offered through the university’s student affairs program.

The program staff solicited nominations for student participation from the university’s network of partner high schools in the Delaware Valley region. A formal application process required an essay that focused on the applicant’s perception of leadership as well as a demonstration of civic engagement in school and the community supported with letters of recommendation.

The High School Leadership Academy took place for 7 days in the early-part of the summer. The leadership team felt that an early-summer date would still allow families time to vacation and students to engage in other camps and work opportunities. The first Academy started with a Monday afternoon check-in, but feedback from working parents encouraged the team to adjust the start to a Sunday the following year. On this first afternoon and evening, students were assigned dorms and roommates, shared dinner in the cafeteria, and participated in a series of icebreaker activities culminating in a campus-wide scavenger hunt designed to make connections and help students get the lay of the land.

**Discussion of Outcomes**

To assess the impact of the Academy, the assessment team developed a 10-item Likert scale pre- and post-test instrument to measure students’ self-reported growth from before and at the end of the week. Self-reports have long been an important aspect of the adolescent leader development literature (Day, 2011; Liu, Z., Riggio, R. E., Day, D. V., Zheng, C., Dai, S., & Bian, Y., 2019). While self-reports can be marred by adolescents’ desire for social acceptance and other bias, they create a solid framework from which to measure growth. Fifty-seven students filled out the ten-item questionnaire prior to the first session. Fifty-two students handed in a post-test, which resulted in a 91.2% response rate across both instruments.

As shown in Appendix A, significantly significant results were found for items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 9. The most extreme improvement was shown in responses to question 2, “I have learned practical leadership skills.” Students expressed significant improvement in the areas of personal leadership growth (“I am a leader”; “I have learned practical leadership skills”), group influence and leadership (“I can effectively influence a group of my peers”), and awareness of their ability to impact their community (“I am equipped to make positive changes in my school/community”).
In the debrief from the first summer program, the university staff and consulting team recognized the need for a strongly normed and more reliable assessment. The group wanted to better measure the effectiveness of the curriculum, as well as allow for the possibility to track the Academy’s longitudinal impact. While the pre-post survey provided encouraging results, a more robust instrument could present a stronger case. The Student Leadership Practices Inventory® (Student LPI®) was the clear choice to use with a curriculum that was based upon the Student Leadership Challenge curriculum (Kouzes & Posner, 2014).

The sample for the Student LPI® consisted of 42 high school rising sophomores. 26 of the students identified as female (62%), with 15 students identifying as male and one student as other. The pre-test S-LPI was given at the start of the Academy, prior to any workshops or activities. The post-test was taken on the last day of curricular activities, before students gave their final presentations to one another and their parents/guardians. As evidenced by Figure 1, the means of students’ post test scores were consistently higher than on the pre-test. Using a paired t-Test, results showed statistically significant (p<.05) increases on items 1, 2 3, 6, 7, 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 26, and 29, nearly 50% of the overall items on the S-LPI assessment.

Based on the instrument’s scoring key (Kouzes & Posner, 2013), these significant increases spanned all five practice areas covered by the Student Leadership Challenge®, with the practice areas of Model the way and Inspire a Shared Vision showing the most frequent significant increases, with four out of the 6 questions in each of these two areas evidencing significant differences. The score improvements across the range of S-LPI practice areas echoes the findings of other studies utilizing the S-LPI (Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011). The marked increases in the Model the Way and Inspire a Shared Vision constructs align with the results found in a longitudinal study by and Waite, Mensinger, Wojciechowicz, Colistra, and Gambescia (2019), who also saw a significant increase in the Challenge the Process area.

Reflections of the Practitioner

As displayed throughout this paper, student responses to the High School Leadership Academy were overwhelmingly positive. Student surveys included such statements as, “I really learned a lot” and “The presenters were helpful and creative.” Likewise, parents of participants shared a sense of gratefulness for the learning that occurred during the weeklong program. In addition, both the pre-post survey instrument and the Student LPI© showed significantly positive results in students’ awareness of and sense of responsibility for leadership.

The findings of this study are limited by their short-term nature. Had the university continued to host and run the HSLA program, staff had discussed the importance of tracking students’ follow-through on their planned change initiatives across their high schools. Longitudinal studies, such as the recent work by Waite et. al. (2019), do show evidence of consistency. Relatedly, while students showed improvement in their self-reported leadership scores, this merely reflects other studies using the Student Leadership Challenge curriculum (Marcketti, Arendt, & Shelley, 2011).

Recommendations
Although there was much discussion about the need to provide ongoing support and observation of HSLA participants throughout the school year, limited staffing and resources presented major challenges to such a possibility. Additionally, because the Academy model placed a strong value on engaging students from numerous high schools across a broad region, tracking even one group would involve much travel and coordination. Students would be working on projects concurrently without the immediate support of their co-collaborators.

The HSLA was indeed a positive experience for the student participants as well as the staff involved with the program. Still, like most summer programs, it was extremely resource-intensive. Universities need to balance the demand on resources with the level of impact for the school and community. While the literature supports adolescent leadership learning, deep learning and application cannot occur in a vacuum. For leadership learning to be most effective, it requires regular feedback, curriculum, discussion, and assessment, incorporating formal and informal activities (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). The High School Leadership Academy lays the foundation for a more complete model that combines university expertise with regular conversation, follow-up, and accountability throughout the high school year. With the need for leadership at the collegiate level and beyond, the difficulties of coordination and shared responsibility of such a model would be well-worth the work. A similar program that is focused on high school juniors or seniors can create some strong foundations that can be developed at the collegiate level. In addition, there can be strong institutional benefits related to recruitment.
References


Arendt, S. W. & Gregoire, M. B. (2005). Dietetics students perceive themselves as leaders and report they demonstrate leadership in a variety of contexts. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 105*(8), 1289-94.


## Appendix A

### Pre- Post-test results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Pre-test mean (n=57)</th>
<th>Post-test mean (n=52)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am a leader.*</td>
<td>3.842105</td>
<td>4.509615</td>
<td>*3.4364E-06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have learned practical leadership skills.*</td>
<td>3.58926</td>
<td>4.384615</td>
<td>*3.47E-07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know how to inspire others.</td>
<td>2.33333</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.062475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can effectively influence a group of my peers.*</td>
<td>3.596491</td>
<td>4.04902</td>
<td>*0.007741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a clear vision to make positive changes in my school/community.</td>
<td>4.087719</td>
<td>4.288462</td>
<td>0.187413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am equipped to make positive changes in my school/community.*</td>
<td>3.824561</td>
<td>4.307692</td>
<td>*0.00187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident that I will have a positive impact on my school/community.</td>
<td>4.035088</td>
<td>4.115385</td>
<td>0.596213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel confident in my ability to lead.</td>
<td>2.157895</td>
<td>1.807692</td>
<td>0.051174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know how to access the resources I need to bring change.*</td>
<td>3.464286</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>*0.000528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am excited to lead change in my school/community.</td>
<td>4.22807</td>
<td>4.211538</td>
<td>0.912172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: * = statistically significant
Appendix B

STUDENT LPI PRE-POST TEST RESULTS

Pre-Test
Post-Test
## Appendix C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S-LPI practice areas</th>
<th>Model the way</th>
<th>Inspire a shared vision</th>
<th>Challenge the process</th>
<th>Enable others to act</th>
<th>Encourage the heart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Significantly improved items</td>
<td>Items 1, 6, 21, 26</td>
<td>Items 2, 7, 12, 17</td>
<td>Items 8, 18</td>
<td>Items 19, 29</td>
<td>Item 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using A Modified Group Member Role Instrument to Place Students Into Groups: What is the Most Effective Method?

Abstract

There is a push to incorporate collaborative learning into the leadership classroom. As educators trying to develop rich experiences, how do we ensure collaborative group work is beneficial for students? Collaborative learning aids in the development of social, communication, and conflict management skills in a way that independent work is not capable of developing (Coers, et al., 2010; Chang & Brickman, 2018); however, the literature does not provide a clear consensus on the most effective techniques or characteristics to use in group construction (Chang & Brickman, 2018). The purpose of this research was to test the effectiveness of facilitated group member roles (GMR) direction in group success. Students who utilized GMR criteria to self-select their groups performed higher than students in criterion-based and self-selected non-criterion-based groups.

Introduction

Working in groups and teams is not for the faint of heart. In fact, Millennials and Generation Z are categorically opposed to the practice, so it takes courage, now more than ever, to effectively use group and teamwork in college classes as well as the workplace. Implementing group work in the classroom increases student achievement, reasoning ability, self-efficacy, and motivation (Chang & Brickman, 2018). Additionally, group work when implemented successfully has shown to increase student grades, student satisfaction with their education, and college retention rates (Burke, 2011). Chang and Brickman (2018) found students valued the social and cognitive support provided by their groups, once they overcame the inevitable conflict and apprehension that comes with group work, known as group hate (Sorenson, 1981). Instructors can combat this common phenomenon by providing proper instruction and realistic expectations of group work (Burke, 2011; Sorenson 1981); this includes teaching group development models, and natural group member roles and how they can be used to achieve group goals (Coers, Williams, & Duncan, 2010).

Collaborative learning is critical in the learning of leadership, it is a more effective instructional strategy than traditional lecture, and it encourages collaboration and engagement which increases knowledge retention and level of academic achievement (Williams & McClure, 2010; Alavi, 1994). When placed in a leadership role you must learn how to work collaboratively, therefore in the leadership education classroom introducing collaborative learning as an instructional method provides students with a conducive environment to actively practice skills needed to work in a group setting while applying course concepts (DeAngelis & Penney, 2015; Coers, Williams, & Duncan, 2010). Group cohesion and communication have been found to be essential in determining group effectiveness, regardless of culture or location (Sreenivasa Rao & Venkata Swamy, 2006). Effective groups are interdependent and group members are often diverse in culture, gender, and expertise level (Channon et al., 2017). Diversity can lead to task conflict; however, effective team communication and open idea sharing can harbor innovative group products and group achievement (Todorova et al., 2020). Successful exposure to diversity, conflict, and idea sharing through collaborative group work fosters stronger social learning that develop transferable skills required by employers (Fearon et al., 2012).
Related Scholarship

The most utilized model GMR comes from Benne and Sheats (1948). Benne and Sheats (1948) have three categories of GMR: task roles, building/maintenance roles, and individual roles. Group members who fall within the group task role typology focus on the task at hand; they typically serve as the facilitator for the group and push the group toward completion (Benne & Sheats, 1948). Subcategories of task roles include initiator, information giver, information seeker, and recorder. The GMR building and maintenance roles focus on increasing group member relations within the group. These include those categorized as the encourager, compromiser, follower, and harmonizer. GMR individual roles highlight those members who are driven by individual needs, wants, and success including dominators, blockers, special interest pleaders, and recognition seekers (Benne & Sheats, 1948).

Understanding GMR and group dynamics is vital to the process of group formation. Inclusion of some individuals who do not fit the needs of the project and will not integrate well into the group may endanger the group’s viability, effectiveness, and overall success (Haynes, 2012). Proper time to develop and facilitate groups and teams is often not followed; leading to ineffective work. However, attention to training on GMRs leads to effective growth and production (Haynes, 2012; Benne & Sheats, 1948).

Description of the Practice

Researchers created an instrument which is a combination and modification of the 27 item Core Group Work Skills Inventory- Importance and Confidence (CGWSI-IC) (Wilson & Newmeyer, 2008) and Benne and Sheats (1948). The modified instrument consisted of 30 statement items and used a Likert scale for measurement. The instrument was tested for content validity by a panel of experts (Tuckman, 1999). One hundred and eighty-two students, enrolled in an undergraduate survey of leadership theory course, were asked to complete the instrument during their instructional lab. Each item in the instrument represents either a task, maintenance, or individual group member role type. During the labs, students were taught about Benne and Sheats (1948) GMR typologies and categories. Students also participated in a facilitated discussion and activity that allowed them to explore each role in depth.

For this experimental study, the 10 leadership lab sections were randomly assigned to place their students into groups. Four learning communities were selected to use criterion based assigned groups, four labs used self-selected groups, and the remaining two labs encouraged the students to self-select their groups based on their GMR typologies. Students worked in the groups throughout the semester and were evaluated by their instructors and peers on their group project deliverable at the conclusion of the semester.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The findings of this study suggest undergraduate students who used criterion-based self-selection performed, on average, higher than those students who were placed in a criterion based assigned
groups and students who self-selected but were not heavily encouraged to use criterion from the instrument to select group members. Additionally, those students who were assigned criterion-based groups performed slightly better than those students who solely used the self-selection method of securing group members. This supports the findings of Chen and Kuo (2019) who found students grouped using criteria displayed higher learning performance than students in self-selected and random selection groups.

Overall, students had a better understanding of how group member roles work cooperatively and were able to address conflict within their groups through self-awareness of their role and how it may conflict with another group member role type. Being able to bridge difficult issues through this understanding allows group members to establish a higher level of comfort with their groups which leads to higher learning advancement (Chang & Brickman, 2018).

Furthermore, two of the learning community lab group’s peer evaluations were analyzed, and the findings suggest students who are in higher performing groups had a higher mean score on the individual peer evaluations than those students who were members of a lower performing group. This supports the findings of Chang and Brickman (2018) who found students in higher performing groups gave higher peer ratings to group members than those of lower performing groups; lower performing groups held individuals to a higher degree of accountability than higher performing groups.

**Recommendations**

Incorporating the Modified GMR survey into group forming and development of groups within the classroom setting is recommended. Using GMR to build groups and in continued group development has been shown to be an effective way to increase group success and satisfaction. There are additional strategies that may be beneficial when fostering effective group environments, these include peer evaluations and ratings, group contracts, and group task role assignment (Chang & Brickman, 2018). Additionally, Channon et al. (2017) explains that group effectiveness and success should not be based on task completion and quality but instead on the success of movement through the team development process. Further investigational studies should be conducted to determine the effectiveness of these additional strategies and to determine the best facilitation practices when utilizing group work in college courses. Understanding one's proclivity in group work is essential for groups to remain motivated and engaged in order to be successful in reaching their end goal. Chang and Brickman (2018) suggest student’s attitude, motivation, and personality traits may serve as a consistent predictor of group success, therefore utilizing the GMR instrument when working in a group environment will benefit students if role types are considered when constructing groups.

**References**


Global Citizenship Education as a Leadership Development Tool

Abstract

Humanity is facing complex problems that transcend national borders and require global solutions. In order to design and implement effective solutions, future leaders will have to overcome partial, fragmented and limited visions and assumptions, in favor of a holistic and ethical decision-making process. Accordingly, leadership educators investigate ways to develop leaders’ capacity to utilize multifaceted perspectives for building a more inclusive, just and peaceful world. Introduced by UNESCO in 2015, Global Citizenship Education (GCED) is an innovative and transformative life-long learning initiative that shapes higher education agendas worldwide and can be utilized as an effective leadership education tool. This presentation discusses the GCED, its core dimensions, and its application as an integral component of the Leadership Program at a public university in the United States.

Introduction

The current global outbreak of coronavirus is a powerful illustration of an emergent phenomenon of problems that transcend nations’ borders and require global solutions (Chirico, 2019; Stromquist, 2009; WHO, 2020). Thus, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, a shared blueprint for peace and prosperity of the planet adopted by the United Nations, calls for a revitalized global partnership, in order to achieve seventeen (17) goals, such as climate action, clean water, affordable and clean energy, quality education, peace and justice.

Research suggests that the new realities of global non-linear ambiguous and complex problems require skills beyond cognitive cross-cultural knowledge and executive processing. Furthermore, solutions for the current needs of humanity should be based on the principle of intertemporality, that is, their implementation should not impose negative consequences on future generations. Leaders challenged with implementing sustainability goals will have to demonstrate cognitive complexity, adaptability, and ability to overcome partial, fragmented and limited visions and assumptions, in favor of holistic and ethical decision-making process (Jorgenson, 2012; Klein, 2004; Max-Neef, 2005; Mendenhall, 2008). Yet, according to 2019 Deloitte global survey, only 30 percent of organizations evaluate their existing leadership programs as effective in preparing leaders to meet evolving challenges (Deloitte, 2019). Consequently, leadership educators, both scholars and practitioners, are investigating the ways to develop leaders’ capacity to utilize multifaceted perspectives for building a more inclusive, just and peaceful world (Jorgenson, 2012; Stromquist 2009).

Review of Related Scholarship

The Global Citizenship Education, formally introduced by the member states of the United Nations and UNESCO in their respective 2015 Agenda for Sustainable Development goals and Incheon Declaration, is an innovative educational initiative and a response to the growing need for empowered individuals capable of assuming active roles in resolving global challenges and proactively contributing to a more inclusive and secure world (Jorgenson, 2012; UNESCO,
The concept of Global Citizenship, at its core, refers to a sense of belonging to a common humanity and emphasized interdependency and interconnectedness of the global community (UNESCO, 2015). Global Citizenship Education (GCED) is currently endorsed by governments, business, non-profit, political organizations and think tanks as transformative, lifelong learning and is shaping higher education agendas worldwide (Stromquist, N., 2009).

While GCED’s implementation across the world differs, UNESCO (20015, p.3) identifies its common outcomes as

- “an attitude supported by an understanding of multiple levels of identity, and the potential for a collective identity that transcends individual, cultural, religious, ethnic or other differences;
- a deep knowledge of global issues and universal values such as justice, equality, dignity and respect;
- cognitive skills to think critically, systemically and creatively, including adopting a multi-perspective approach that recognizes different dimension, perspectives and angles of issues;
- non-cognitive skills, including social and communicative skills and aptitudes such as empathy and conflict resolution, networking and interacting with people of different backgrounds, origins, cultures and perspectives;
- behavioral capacities to act collaboratively and responsibly to find global solutions for global challenges, and to strive for collective good.”

Based upon its core cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioral dimensions listed above, GCED can serve as a tool for developing responsible and effective leaders of the future and has the potential of building a common foundation of shared leadership values and principles worldwide. However, its transformative capacity for leadership education is yet to be fully utilized.

Currently, guided by the UNESCO research and recommendations, GCED applies multifaceted (formal curricular and extracurricular), cross-disciplinary approach and a life-long learning perspective towards specific global citizenship curricula. In that capacity is implemented worldwide in a variety of ways: Global Citizenship programs (such as Webster University 30 credit hours Global Citizenship Program focused on skills needed for 21st-century success), global citizenship courses (both online and traditional modality, such as Global Citizenship courses at the University of Bristol, University of New Hampshire, University of Southern Maine, Lehigh University), global citizenship certificates (such as Florida State University Global Citizenship Certificate), programs focused on educating educators (such as Harvard Educating Global Citizens program for K-12 instructors).

**Description of the Practice**

"An ethic of care for the world." Hannah Arendt

This presentation discusses the GCED premise and its core dimensions, as well as shares the structure, the learning objectives, the resources, the outcomes and students’ feedback for the Global Citizenship Course developed and offered as an integral component of the Leadership Program at a public university in the United States.
In Global Citizenship Capstone Seminar students assume an active role of a global citizen and apply knowledge and skills acquired through the Leadership studies program towards a proposal for solving a global challenge and building a more peaceful, tolerant, inclusive and secure society, in partnership with the Clinton Global Initiative University.

Global Citizenship Concept
Being a global citizen does not mean abandoning one’s allegiance to country, ethnicity, and beliefs, but rather means an added layer of concern and responsibility, shared with the worldwide community of people, for the planet as a whole. Oxfam (2016) defines a global citizen as someone who is
- aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen
- respects and values diversity
- has an understanding of how the world works
- is outraged by social injustice
- participates in the community at a range of levels, from the local to the global
- is willing to act to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place
- takes responsibility for their actions.

Correspondingly, Global Citizenship Capstone Seminar encourages students to understand major issues of global concern, engage their critical thinking skills to reflect deeply on what is equitable and just, and become more knowledgeable in a specific global issue/challenge that they care deeply about. It engages their creativity and innovation to explore potential solutions while evaluating their ethics and impact. It helps students recognize global forces/stakeholders involved in finding/funding and implementing solutions; it builds confidence in articulating and presenting their proposal. It nurtures cross-cultural competency and collaboration, along with personal respect and respect for others, wherever they live.

**Discussion of Outcomes/Results**

Based on students’ evaluations, the course offers a transformational and formative leadership experience through empowering learners to demonstrate and follow through with initiative, passion and collaborative spirit to pursue inclusive and just solution for a global problem.

In the process of developing a proposal and presentation, students are assessed on their research/learning skills (identify and develop an understanding of a global challenge for their project), caring and integration skills (explore the effects of the global challenge on local community as well as possible solutions) and human dimension (effective communication and collaboration with their peers and potential partners, respect for diversity). In addition to written assignments, students communicate with their peers in discussion forums and peer reviews and interactive exercises on a shared drive.

As the key outcome of the course, students develop Commitment to Action: an initiative/proposal to the Clinton Global Initiative University (CGI U) to address pressing challenges on campus, in local communities, or around the world (https://www.clintonfoundation.org/clinton-global-initiative/meetings/cgi-university/commitments/about-cgiu-commitments).
At a minimum, every CGI Commitment to Action must satisfy five criteria:

NEW
A CGI commitment must be a new project that addresses a key challenge. While ongoing work is not eligible, an expansion of a successful program with key new elements does qualify as a valid Commitment to Action.

SPECIFIC
A CGI commitment must outline a specific approach to a problem, have clear and feasible objectives to be accomplished within a defined period of time, and articulate the desired outcome of the effort.

MEASURABLE
A CGI commitment must have specific quantitative goals that can be monitored by the commitment maker to evaluate progress over time.

VIABLE
A CGI commitment must present a plan to secure sufficient monetary and/or non-monetary resources to carry out the core function of the project over its full duration.

ACCOUNTABLE
A CGI commitment must track quantitative and qualitative progress and report annually to CGI to show the extent of the project’s impact.

Successful (i.e. selected by the CGI U) Commitment to Action proposal is a prerequisite to attending a CGI U annual meeting (Spring) where young leaders and their mentors (students, university representatives, topic experts, and celebrities) come together to discuss and develop innovative solutions to pressing global challenges in CGI U’s five focus areas: Education, Environment and Climate Change, Peace and Human Rights, Poverty Alleviation, and Public Health. Since 2008 more than 10,000 students around the world have Commitments to Action, and more than $3 million in funding has been awarded to these commitment-makers through the CGI U platform, including the University Network, Innovation Fund, Commitments Challenge, and Resolution Project.

Reflections of the Practitioner

In order to put together a competitive CGI proposal, in addition to knowledge of the organizational processes, leadership, and ability to effectively express their ideas in writing, students develop an understanding of:

- current global challenges and their effect on local communities
- the roles of the major stakeholders involved in addressing these challenges, including international organizations (such as the World Bank Group, the United Nations, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development)
- the processes these organizations use to identify and implement effective solutions for global challenges (such as procurement policies, grants)
- multiple cultural perspectives and how to effectively interact across cultures

Recommendations

This course is very intense and fast paced. It is best facilitated in smaller groups.
References:


Numbers correspond with proposal numbers assigned upon submission.

11. In Tune with The Xerophyte: Examining Leadership During an Original Music Production Process  
   Adam Payne, University of Pennsylvania

44. Women in STEAM: Barriers to Advancement  
   Alyssa Hutcheson, Mississippi State University  
   Natalie Money, Mississippi State University  
   Carley Morrison, Mississippi State University

52. Building Psychological Capital Through Leadership Development  
   Lauren Edelman, Washburn University

54. Leaders and Scholars: How Effective Mentoring Facilitates Doctoral Student Leadership Development  
   Jonathan Orsini, University of Florida  
   Natalie Coers, University of Florida

74. Community-Based Research and Outreach for Undergraduate Students: An Opportunity for Critical Reflection  
   Marina Denny, Mississippi State University  
   Alisha Hardman, Mississippi State University

81. Looking for Connections in Leadership Education: The Link Between Mentoring and Teamwork Skills  
   Jonathan Orsini, University of Florida  
   Nicole Stedman, University of Florida

98. Stoic Lessons on Leadership  
   Amy Brown, University of Florida  
   Matthew Sowcik, University of Florida  
   Nicole Stedman, University of Florida

107. The Evolution of Inclusive Leadership Studies: A Literature Review  
   Herb Thompson, University of Nebraska-Omaha  
   Gina Matkin, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

116. The Prometheus Commons Framework  
   Thomas Bohinc, The Prometheus Project  
   Jonathan Reams, Norwegian University of Science and Technology  
   Richard Claydon, Macquarie Graduate School of Management
125. Developing a Behaviorally Anchored Assessment for Critical Thinking: Becoming the QUEEN
   Barry Boyd, Texas A&M University
   Jennifer Strong, Texas A&M University

127. Exploring Leadership Education & Professional Development in Leadership Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) (Conference Award: Outstanding Research Paper)
   Jason Headrick, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

131. A Systematic Literature Review of the Impact of National Culture on Followership
   Jessica Benson, Texas A&M University
   Jennifer Strong, Texas A&M University

138. The Places and Spaces for Student Affairs Practitioners to Learn and Practice Leadership Educator Competencies
   Allison Dunn, Texas A&M University
   Lori Moore, Texas A&M University
   Summer Odom, Texas A&M University
   Gary Briers, Texas A&M University
   Krista Bailey, Texas A&M University

140. Competencies Needed for Entry-Level Student Affairs Leadership Educators (Conference Award: Distinguished Research Paper)
   Allison Dunn, Texas A&M University
   Lori Moore, Texas A&M University
   Summer Odom, Texas A&M University
   Gary Briers, Texas A&M University
   Krista Bailey, Texas A&M University

142. The Influence of Being a Mentor on Leadership Development: Recommendations for Curricular and Co-Curricular Experiences
   Jim Lee, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Hannah Sunderman, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Lindsay Hastings, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

144. Developing Positive Psychological Capacities for Authentic Leadership
   Katherine McKee, North Carolina State University
   Rhonda Sutton, North Carolina State University
   Tatiana Height, North Carolina State University

155. The Impact of Leadership Education and Co-Curricular Involvement on the Development of Socially Responsible Leadership Outcomes in Undergraduate Students (Conference Award: Outstanding Research Paper)
   Matthew Sowcik, University of Florida
   Nicholas Martinez, University of Florida
   J.C. Bunch, University of Florida

158. Intercultural Leadership: Theorizing Using Arts-Based Critical Reflexivity
   Mac Benavides, Kansas State University
In Tune with *The Xerophyte*: Examining Leadership during an Original Music Production Process

Adam Payne

*University of Pennsylvania*

**Abstract**

The process of making an original music album is highlighted to illustrate aspects of the music production process in addition to how leadership and related factors play out during this process. Background information is detailed regarding musicians as entrepreneurs, the music production process, group dynamics, learning approaches, aspects of group dynamics, and an emphasis on more shared, distributive forms of leadership. The conceptual framework and results of the ethnographic field study describe a music production process consisting of the following phases: Pre-Production; Production; and Post-Production, with decision-making, direction-setting, and overall leadership approaches playing out at each phase. Reflections, key learnings, and recommendations for future research are presented, all centering on the usefulness in identifying the process of original music production.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the *Journal of Leadership Education*. 
Women in STEAM: Barriers to Advancement

Alyssa Hutcheson
Natalie Money
Carley Morrison
Mississippi State University

Abstract
When looking at administrative leadership positions in university academia as a whole, the numbers of women as Vice-Presidents, Presidents, Department Heads, etc. in agriculture and the sciences are deficient compared to other departments. Women are currently not represented in Science, Technology, Engineering, Agriculture, or Mathematics (STEAM) through leadership positions in the numbers that men are represented. In this qualitative study, women's experiences in male-dominated, agriculture-related sciences were reviewed and described, as well as compared to their male counterparts. Findings from this study indicate that there are common barriers preventing men and women from the chance to obtain upper-level leadership positions in male-dominated careers; however, it can be seen that females have additional barriers preventing their succession to leadership at the administrative level.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Building Psychological Capital Through Leadership Development

Abstract

Using the lens of psychological capital (PsyCap), this research study explores the relationship between leadership development and the constructs of hope, resilience, and self-efficacy. Data from the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership are analyzed to determine how co-curricular, immersive, and academic leadership involvement for college women relate to PsyCap while also exploring demographics for students choosing to expand their leadership capacity. Results reveal higher scores for involved students for hope, self-efficacy, and resilience compared to non-involved students. Correlations suggest positive relationships between all three types of leadership involvement and hope and self-efficacy, while resilience is positively correlated with co-curricular and immersive leadership activities. Participation in more than one leadership activity is generally associated with higher PsyCap, and class-level is an important predictor of psychological capital.

Introduction

Building leadership capacity in students has been characterized as a critical responsibility of higher education (Astin, 1993; Boatman, 1999; Shim, 2013; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). However, many researchers have questioned whether higher education has the empirical data to determine whether leadership development programs in college are truly effective for the students participating in them (Ayman et al., 2001; Shim, 2013; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). This becomes even more challenging when considering the potential differences in leadership development across genders. Conflicting findings have emerged as researchers have explored the differences in leadership outcomes across genders using a variety of assessments (Shim, 2013).

Using the lens of psychological capital (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), this research study explores how female college students who participate in a variety of leadership activities score on scales for three key constructs of psychological capital, which include hope, resilience, and leadership efficacy. This study seeks to understand the impact various types of leadership involvement can have on college women as they develop in the areas of leadership-efficacy, hope, and resilience while also exploring the pre-college and demographic characteristics of students who choose to intentionally expand their leadership capacity.

This study utilizes 2018 MSL data to explore how college women’s involvement in various types of leadership development activities relates to students’ PsyCap scores for the constructs of leadership efficacy, hope, and resilience. This secondary analysis occurs at a mid-sized university located in the Mid-west. The University offers an interdisciplinary leadership program for undergraduate students, where students can take leadership courses or participate in co-curricular leadership development. Students can choose to participate in a variety of out-of-class experiences and programs designed to challenge their perceptions of leadership and provide a space where students can practice leadership in a real-world context.

The research questions for this study include:
1. Who are the students who completed the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership at X University, and what leadership activities or programs do they participate in?

2. Is there a difference in psychological capital (hope, resilience, and leadership efficacy) for those college women who report involvement in leadership activities and those who do not report involvement in leadership activities?

3. Is there a relationship between type of leadership involvement (co-curricular, immersive, and academic) and psychological capital?

4. Controlling for student demographics of race, class level, and GPA, how does type of leadership involvement predict psychological capital?

**Literature Review**

This research study utilizes quantitative data from the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) conducted at X University in order to explore the relationship between female student involvement in leadership activities and student scores for the psychological capital constructs of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience. Luthans et al. (2007) define psychological capital, or PsyCap, as follows:

> PsyCap is an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success. (p. 3)

The MSL utilizes several scales and sub-scales to explore student outcomes in many areas, including scales specifically focused on the PsyCap constructs of leadership efficacy, hope (agency – ability to strive for goals, and pathways – belief in one’s ability to envision multiple routes to achieve goals), and resilience. Because there is not a scale specific to optimism in the MSL survey instrument, this study only explores student scores for the three PsyCap constructs of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience.

**Psychological Capital and Leadership**

Enhanced PsyCap is related to a variety of positive leadership behaviors, which can create pathways to success (Luthans et al., 2007). For example, Luthans et al. (2007) explained how people who are hopeful and who possess both agency and pathways to achieve their goals are likely more motivated to overcome challenges and be resilient. Confident people can transfer their hope and optimism to various components of their lives, and people who are resilient can adapt and remain flexible, which allows them to maintain optimism (Luthans et al., 2007).

Existing literature has outlined other connections between leadership and psychological capital as well. Luthans and Avolio (2003) assert that a leader’s PsyCap is theorized to be an antecedent of authentic leadership development, meaning that leaders have to develop a sense of resilience and self-understanding, along with a positive outlook in order to truly lead others in an authentic
way. PsyCap is also critical in the development of a leaders’ self-awareness which can influence how a greater organization or group performs (Luthans, Norman, and Hughes, 2006).

Gooty et al. (2009) connected transformational leadership to psychological capital by finding that followers’ perceptions of leadership behaviors considered to be transformational were related positively to PsyCap, affirming the idea that leadership and PsyCap can be positively developed. According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership is a process where both the leaders and followers constantly raise each other to higher levels of morality and motivation. The constructs of hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy can play an important role in a transformational leaders’ ability to increase these motivation and morale levels in followers (Gooty et al., 2009).

The positive relationships supported in the literature between higher levels of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience and leadership behaviors (Avolio & Luthans, 2006, Gooty et al., 2009, Luthans & Avolio, 2003, Luthans et al., 2006, Luthans et al., 2007, Roche et al, 2014) warrant additional attention in order to enhance understanding of how various forms of leadership development can impact these constructs. This first requires an understanding of leadership education in the higher education context and how it has evolved over time to become critical in institutions’ educational missions to prepare graduates to be successful post-graduation.

**Developing Leadership in Higher Education**

The 1990s saw an expansion of leadership programs across college campuses, including the establishment of the first leadership major at the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Numerous leadership certificate programs and minors were also established at other institutions around the same time, with many programs adding co-curricular leadership experiences as well. The increasing numbers and types of leadership programs across higher education institutions illustrates the important role that leadership education plays in today’s college experience (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018; Komives et al., 2011). In 2011, Komives identified over 1,000 curricular leadership programs in existence across colleges and universities and acknowledged that the growth of these programs over two decades demonstrates the need for additional scholarship in the field of leadership education.

A study by Guthrie, Teig, and Hu (2018) offered a descriptive analysis of currently existing academic leadership development programs listed in the International Leadership Association (ILA) Program Directory, which includes over 1,550 academic leadership programs from the United States alone. These programs span across associate, certificate, bachelor, master and doctoral degree types and are housed in a variety of different academic disciplines at both public and private institutions. Even the field of leadership education has expanded focus significantly over the last 100 years, moving beyond perceptions of leadership from an individual leader perspective to including engagement and interactions with followers, peers, supervisors, context, and cultures (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). This shift moved leadership from what was once considered to be an individual characteristic to a reciprocal and complex relational process. More importantly, this expansion of leadership programs on college campuses supports the idea that leadership can be taught (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018).
Institutions of higher education play an important role in preparing and developing student leaders who are prepared to navigate complex and often dysfunctional contexts in an effort to create positive change. Brungardt (1997) asserted that leadership education programs can provide students with a pathway to help organizations optimize individuals’ performance, which has likely resulted in the proliferation of leadership education programs across higher education. These leadership development programs may allow students to develop critical self-regulation capacities, including self-efficacy, self-management, coping skills, and resilience (Murphy & Johnson, 2011).

A study by Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt (1999) also identified 30 key hallmarks of successful leadership programs. Two of these hallmarks include having a comprehensive and coordinated educational strategy that includes opportunities for experiential learning, and focusing not only on individual skill development, but on enhancing the leadership capacity for the institution and greater community. Additionally, the study identified both short and long-term outcomes for leadership participants. In the short term, students developed an enhanced ability to create organizational visions and demonstrate stronger transformational leadership behaviors. In the long-term, student participants of leadership programs were more likely to report significant changes in their own self-awareness, abilities to set and achieve goals, understanding of ethics, risk-taking, civic responsibility, multicultural awareness, and other leadership outcomes. Students who experienced engagement in academic leadership programs had an enhanced grasp of leadership theoretical frameworks and a greater interest in developing leadership in others (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). The present study explores student participation in both short and long-term leadership activities, such as attending a leadership workshop (short-term) or pursuing a leadership minor or certificate (long-term) in order to identify any differences in students’ reported scores for self-efficacy, hope, and resilience based on their depth of engagement. Since the literature supports that more significant outcomes emerge as a result of engagement in leadership long-term, it is reasonable to assume that students who are engaged at a deeper level will report higher PsyCap scores.

Beyond the impacts of short and long-term participation in leadership experiences, Goertzen and Whitaker (2015) looked specifically at how academic-based leadership programs impact all four of the PsyCap constructs, including self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience, by surveying student participants at the beginning, mid-point, and end of their engagement in the academic program. The study yielded mixed results, with significant changes in scores or constructs occurring between the beginning and mid-point, but no significant differences found between the beginning and end of program participation. However, the study did reinforce the idea that PsyCap is malleable and can be enhanced or changed through training and development experiences. This supports the idea that students can experience a change in PsyCap scores based on various participation and interventions. The present study explores which types of leadership participation may have the greatest impact.

Leadership Development in Women

Because 72 percent of respondents for the 2018 MSL at X University identified as female, and because the leadership program at this institution tends to serve a largely female student population, this research study focuses exclusively on how female college students, who participate in varying levels of leadership activities, score on scales for self-efficacy, hope, and
resilience. Despite a significant body of research exploring how leadership is developed across genders, findings are contradictory and unclear regarding differences in leadership development for men and women. However, it is important context for the present research study to understand the ways that women college students both develop and demonstrate leadership.

Leadership development programs on college campuses have been linked to a variety of positive developmental outcomes such as civic responsibility, skill development, and personal, societal, and multicultural awareness (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan, 2006; Posner, 2004). These findings reiterate the importance of leadership development to the goals of higher education, but also situate these programs as powerful tools to promote student learning (Dugan, 2006). However, contradictory findings have emerged from research studying leadership development across genders. A research study by Dugan (2006) explored the “mean differences between male and female college students across the eight constructs of the social change model of leadership development” (p. 220). The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) is an instrument designed to measure leadership across eight core values, including consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (HERI, 1996). Dugan’s (2006) study found that both men and women scored lower on the same three constructs: controversy with civility, citizenship, and change. Women, however, reflected statistically significant mean scores that were higher than men across all eight of the leadership constructs (Dugan, 2006). While the present research study does not compare student scores for PsyCap constructs across genders, it provides insight about the types of leadership activities that college women choose to participate in and evaluates how this participation may influence their own confidence (self-efficacy), belief in their abilities to set and achieve goals (hope), and perceptions of how they overcome challenges (resilience).

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

This study is informed by a conceptual framework and two additional theoretical frameworks. Astin’s I-E-O model serves as the conceptual framework informing the MSL assessment and provides helpful context in positioning the goals of the MSL assessment used for the quantitative data collection. Astin’s (1999) student involvement theory provides helpful context in understanding how student participation in various leadership experiences can contribute to the development of specific learning outcomes. Finally, the psychological capital framework helps to focus the study’s research questions on a specific subset of data related to scales measuring psychological capital constructs.

Since this study analyzes data from the MSL, it is important to understand the conceptual framework that informs the assessment. An adapted version of Astin’s (1993) I-E-O model serves as the conceptual model for the MSL, which collects data related to students’ knowledge and experiences before and during college (Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, n.d.). These data can then be examined to determine the influences that various experiences have on different learning outcomes. Astin (1993) created the I-E-O model as guide for studying college student development. The purpose of the model is to assess the impact of different environmental experiences by determining whether students grow or change as a result of these environments (Astin, 1993). In the model, inputs refer to student characteristics at the time a student enters college. Environments refer to the different programs, policies, peers, and educational
experiences a student has during the college experience. Outcomes refer to a student’s characteristics after exposure to the environment (Astin, 1993).

This study analyzes the outcomes for students exposed to specific leadership environments, such as taking a formal leadership course, participating in a leader minor or certificate program, involvement in a formal leadership program, holding formal leadership positions, attending leadership trainings, and other similar environments measured by the MSL (MSL Code Book, 2018) compared to the outcomes for students who did not report exposure to these environments. The researcher specifically explores the outcomes for students who report involvement in co-curricular, immersive, or academic leadership experiences. The study also explores the demographic data, including information on race, GPA, and class level for leadership participants in order to better understand the population of students interested in participating in leadership programs.

Since this research study explores how involvement in various leadership experiences relates to students’ performance on three scales related to psychological capital, Astin’s (1999) student involvement theory supports the ways in which learning emerges through the investment of time and energy. The theory suggests that students involved at greater levels would achieve higher levels of learning. This supports the idea that students involved at a deeper level, or who are involved in more long-term leadership activities such as academic leadership programs, would demonstrate higher levels of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience compared to students participating at lower levels or not participating at all, if the leadership activities are designed to promote those learning outcomes.

The final theoretical framework informing this study is psychological capital. Emerging from the field of positive psychology, psychological capital, or PsyCap, is a higher-order construct consisting of the four constructs of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007). Unlike most constructs related to positive psychology or organizational behavior, PsyCap is open to development and change; it emphasizes where leaders already are developmentally and also considers who leaders seek to become (Luthans et al., 2007). The theory compiles four individual constructs informed by research from various scholars and builds on them to create an overarching positive psychological state. Enhanced PsyCap can contribute to a variety of positive leadership behaviors which can create pathways to success.

Methods and Results

This research study explores relationships and determine correlations for female X University students’ involvement in leadership activities and their reported scores for the psychological capital constructs of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience based on results from the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). In total, 1,562 undergraduate students completed some or all of the MSL assessment in February 2018. Of those, 861 students identified as female so therefore only data for these respondents were analyzed for this study. The following statistical analyses were performed to address each research question:

Research Question 1: Who are the students who completed the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership at X University, and what leadership activities or programs do they participate in?
This research question was answered by running basic demographics to describe the sample as well as using a variety of descriptive analyses. Analyses describe the sample for this study as predominately White (84.3 %), with significant representation from students who are classified as Seniors (30.4 %) and Juniors (28.8 %), with Sophomores only making up 21 percent and Freshmen making up 17.8 percent of the sample population. Approximately half of the sample reported an estimated GPA of “3.50-4.00” (49.8%), while the remaining students reported “3.00-3.49” (33.4%), “2.50-2.99” (11.5%), “2.00-2.49” (3.4%), and “1.99 or less” (0.8%). The GPA breakdown was higher for survey respondents than the overall student population at the institution at the time the survey was distributed.

Descriptive statistics were run for each dependent variable, the psychological capital constructs of leadership efficacy, hope (both agency and pathways scales), and resilience, which include actual response totals (n), minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation as outlined in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hope Scale: Agency (mean score)</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope Scale: Pathways (mean score)</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Efficacy (mean score)</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilience (mean score)</td>
<td>851</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive statistics were also run for the composite variables related to type of leadership involvement, ranging from no reported leadership involvement, co-curricular leadership involvement, immersive leadership involvement, and academic leadership involvement. These statistics also revealed the number of leadership activities each student participated in for each category of leadership involvement. Approximately half of survey respondents reported no participation in any type of leadership involvement, while 19.3 percent of respondents (n = 166) reported co-curricular leadership involvement, 48.8 percent (n = 415) reported immersive leadership involvement, and 19.6 percent (n = 169) of respondents academic leadership involvement. Students were able to report participation in more than one type of leadership involvement.

**Research Question 2: Is there a difference in psychological capital (hope, resilience, and self-efficacy) for those college women who report involvement in leadership activities and those who do not report involvement in leadership activities?**

In order to address the second research question, independent sample t-tests were run to compare mean scores for Hope: Agency, Hope: Pathways, Leadership Efficacy, and Resilience for students who reported participation in one or more activities in any category of leadership involvement (co-curricular, immersive, or academic involvement) against students who reported no involvement in any category. This analysis revealed statistically significant differences in mean scores for each of the PsyCap constructs for the two groups, as outlined in Table 2.
Table 2. Differences in PsyCap Scores for Involved and Non-Involved Students  
(Independent Samples T-Tests)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean (Not-Involved)</th>
<th>Mean (Involved)</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hope: Pathways</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>-4.24</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope: Agency</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>-4.94</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Efficacy</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>-8.39</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilience</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>-2.69</td>
<td>838</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01  **p<.001

Collectively, students reporting involvement in one or more leadership activity across all categories of involvement had statistically significant higher mean scores than non-involved students for the psychological capital constructs of Hope, Leadership Efficacy, and Resilience.

**Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between type of leadership involvement (co-curricular, immersive, and academic) and psychological capital?**

While the analysis for the second research question identified whether or not there was a difference in scores for Hope, Resilience, and Leadership Efficacy for students involved in leadership compared to students reporting no leadership involvement, the relationship between the different types of leadership involvement and PsyCap constructs was explored by running correlations. First, bi-variate correlations were run for all variables to check for collinearity among all variables. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient revealed relatively strong relationships between all the dependent variables of Hope: Pathways, Hope: Agency, Leadership Efficacy, and Resilience. However, the strength of the relationship between Hope: Pathways and Hope: Agency was very strong ($r = .709$, $n = 852$, $p = .000$). Because of the strength of this relationship, these variables were combined for future analyses into one Hope variable.

Results from the Pearson correlation analysis revealed a small, positive correlation between Hope (Pathways and Agency combined) and all three types of leadership involvement. Leadership efficacy and each type of leadership involvement also reveal a small, positive correlation. Resilience, however, only indicated a small positive correlation between student participation in co-curricular and immersive leadership involvement, but not academic leadership involvement. While the relationship between each PsyCap construct and the different types of leadership involvement is small, it is statistically significant in most cases.

Correlations were also run to explore the relationship between the number of activities participated in for each involvement type and students’ PsyCap. Spearman Rank Order Correlation (rho) was run for the additive variables for co-curricular, immersive, and academic leadership involvement and Hope (Pathways and Agency combined), Leadership Efficacy, and Resilience. A small, positive relationship exists between student participation in various co-curricular leadership activities and Hope. This suggests that participation in multiple co-curricular leadership activities contributes to slightly higher levels of Hope for undergraduate women. The relationship between leadership involvement and Leadership Efficacy was the strongest, indicating that the more students participate in multiple activities, especially those categorized as immersive leadership involvement, the higher their Leadership Efficacy. The relationship between Resilience and leadership involvement was the weakest, indicating virtually
no correlation between a student’s Resilience and participation in academic leadership involvement.

**Research Question 4: Controlling for student demographics of race, class level, and GPA and pre-test scores for self-efficacy, resilience, and hope, how does type of leadership involvement predict psychological capital?**

To address the final research question focused on identifying the variables that predict higher scores for each construct of psychological capital, three separate multiple regressions were run. First, hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of leadership involvement (Co-curricular, Immersive, and Academic Involvement) to predict levels of Hope (both pathways and agency), after controlling for the influence of race, class level, and GPA.

For the first regression, demographic variables of race (coded dichotomously), class level, and GPA were entered at step one, explaining two percent of the variance for Hope. After entry of the additive variables for co-curricular involvement, immersive involvement, and academic involvement, at step two, the total variance explained by the model was 4.3 percent, $F(6, 813) = 4.75, p < .001$. The type of leadership involvement only explained an additional 3.6 percent of the variance in Hope after controlling for race, class level, and GPA, $R^2$ change = .04, $F$ change (3, 813) = 6.93, $p < .001$. The final model shows that the control measure of class level was statistically significant, recording a beta value of .09, $p < .05$. These results suggest that class level is a significant predictor of Hope while the other variables in the equation are not significant predictors.

The second hierarchical regression was run to assess how various leadership involvement predicted Leadership Efficacy after controlling for race, class level, and GPA. The demographic variables predicted 2.4 percent of the variance for Leadership Efficacy. After leadership involvement categories were added in step two, the total variance explained by the model was 9.7 percent, $F(6, 813) = 14.59, p < .001$. Leadership involvement explained an additional nine percent of the variance in Leadership Efficacy after controlling for demographics, $R^2$ change = .09, $F$ change (3, 813) = 21.90, $p < .001$. In the final model, class level, co-curricular, and immersive leadership involvement were all statistically significant predictors of Leadership Efficacy, with immersive leadership involvement recording the highest beta value ($beta = .14, p < .01$) followed by class level ($beta = .12, p < .01$) and co-curricular leadership involvement ($beta = .11, p < .05$). These results suggest that participation in immersive and co-curricular leadership experiences positively predict students’ levels of Leadership Efficacy, or their confidence in their ability to demonstrate leadership in a group or to motivate in order to achieve goals. Class level is also a predictor of Leadership Efficacy.

The last regression explored how leadership involvement predicted Resilience after controlling for demographic variables. Variables for race, class level, and GPA, predicted 1.4 percent of the variance for Resilience. After the additive leadership involvement variables were added in step two, the total variance explained was 3.3 percent, $F(6, 813) = 2.01, p < .001$. Leadership involvement only explained an additional 1.5 percent of the variance for Resilience after controlling for race, class level, and GPA, $R^2$ change = .02, $F$ change (3, 813) = 4.29, $p > .01$. The final model revealed that class level and co-curricular involvement were both statistically significant. Beta
scores for co-curricular leadership involvement were the highest \((\beta = .13, p < .05)\), followed by class level \((\beta = .11, p < .01)\). These results identify both class level and Co-Curricular Leadership Involvement as predictors of Resilience, with student participation in leadership activities classified as co-curricular making the strongest contribution to explaining students’ Resilience, followed by class level.

**Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusion**

This study found statistically significant differences in scores for all three constructs of PsyCap, including Hope, Resilience, and Leadership Efficacy, for students reporting participation in activities classified as leadership involvement compared to students reporting no leadership involvement. In addition, the study suggests positive relationships exist between student involvement in co-curricular, immersive, and academic leadership involvement and the PsyCap constructs of Hope and Leadership Efficacy. Results support prior research which links higher levels of self-efficacy, hope, and resilience to leadership development, specifically in regards to co-curricular leadership experiences. The results also contribute to an existing gap in the literature related to how class standing and age relate to PsyCap, suggesting that class level is a predictor of higher PsyCap regardless of leadership involvement.

It is important to note that while the above findings were significant, the correlations were relatively weak and much of the variance was unaccounted for. The weaker correlations could, in part, be attributed to the fact that student respondents reported relatively high PsyCap scores across the board, even those students who did not participate in any leadership activities. With higher scores, there is less room for improvement, even with successful interventions. Future studies may consider screening participants by PsyCap scores with the goal of focusing specifically on students reporting lower scores for hope, resilience, and leadership efficacy in order to better understand how leadership participation may impact these constructs. In addition, controlling for other demographic variables which might relate to students’ scores for constructs such as resilience, specifically, may help to identify important predictors. These variables could include first-generation status, whether students live on or off campus, if students work and if so, how much, and whether students are Pell eligible.

As mentioned earlier, building leadership capacity in college students is now assumed to be a critical expectation of higher education institutions (Astin, 1993; Boatman, 1999; Shim, 2013; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Exploring how leadership development programs can equip students to be successful in life beyond college by promoting outcomes such as enhanced hope, resilience, or leadership efficacy, can assist higher education leadership programs in promoting their value to both the institution and the overall college experience.

Several limitations exist for this research study, many of which offer exciting opportunities for future research. One of the most significant limitations of this study was the sample’s lack of racial diversity. Future research studies yielding a more racially diverse sample could better explore race as a predictor of PsyCap in college women, building on existing research about how demographics such as race influence students’ perceptions of their leadership abilities and even their involvement in various types of leadership development experiences. A future study that included or focused specifically on men could also provide insight about the learning outcomes students develop through participation in leadership activities.
Finally, an important limitation of this study that warrants future research is the classification of different types of leadership involvement, and how these types of involvement impact students’ PsyCap. This research study was particularly interested in how different types of leadership involvement affected students’ hope, resilience, and leadership efficacy, largely because the leadership program at X University offers a variety of leadership development experiences that range from short-term, co-curricular experiences to more long-term, academic programs. The researcher chose to organize the leadership activities into the categories of co-curricular, immersive, and academic based on program offerings at the respective institution and by looking at the amount of time required from students at each level. Co-curricular experiences represent the shortest experiences and can include attendance at a singular event, such as a lecture or workshop, or receiving one-time training for a leadership position while immersive experiences require a multi-day commitment and a deeper level of engagement, such as holding a leadership role in an organization for a semester or longer or serving in a peer educator role (also a semester to year-long commitment). The academic leadership involvement is the easiest to classify, as it requires enrollment in at least one academic course specifically related to leadership, but may also result in student engagement in a series of courses to earn a leadership minor or certificate.

Further research is necessary in order to better understand how different types of leadership experiences may influence PsyCap in college students, as it is possible that results may change based on how leadership experiences are classified.

In a time where higher education institutions are competing for a shrinking pool of students and bolstering retention efforts, leadership programs can practice innovation and move beyond simply developing skills or competencies in student leaders, but instead equip students with positive psychological skills which allow them to overcome challenges, remain hopeful in their abilities, and promote sound self-awareness so individuals may understand how to effectively contribute to the development of a better world.
References


Leaders and Scholars: How Effective Mentoring Facilitates Doctoral Student Leadership Development

Abstract

Students pursuing doctoral degrees are expected to become leaders in their discipline. Leadership development should be an important part of any curriculum that prepares these students for professional careers after graduation. However, there are questions regarding the effectiveness and prevalence of formal leadership development structures in graduate school. Given this gap in formal professional preparation, it falls on faculty mentors to provide the necessary socialization, support, and guidance for doctoral students to develop as leaders in their disciplines. In this study, a mixed-methods analysis of graduate students was conducted using online questionnaires and personal interviews to determine the impact of faculty mentoring behaviors on the development of doctoral student leadership self-efficacy. Findings suggest that students in doctoral programs experience negative emotional arousal in the form of uncertainty, anxiety, and self-doubt. Faculty that are accessible, trustworthy, and who provide constructive feedback allow for more positive experiences and greater leadership self-efficacy.

Introduction

Doctoral education is an important process for developing human capital and is critical to the development of the modern world. Doctoral students are expected to become masters of their discipline and create knowledge and transform understanding through writing, teaching, and application (Craddock, Birnbaum, Rodriguez, Cobb, & Zeeh, 2011; Golde & Walker, 2006). These assumptions impose leadership expectations on doctoral graduates. However, leadership practitioners question whether current leadership development initiatives in collegiate environments are effective at preparing students to lead in the professional world (Posner, 2006).

Research has supported the positive relationship between formal leadership training and leadership development, and has demonstrated that a combination of formal development, challenging assignments, and developmental supervision, offered simultaneously, are most effective for leadership development (Seibert et al., 2017). Despite this research, graduate programs rarely offer formal development opportunities for students to transition from being pedagogically directed to self-directed researchers comfortable with ambiguity (Margolis & Romero, 1998). Fortunately, informal developmental experiences can also be effective at building leadership self-efficacy (Seibert et al., 2017). This presents an opportunity for leadership development for doctoral students because the primary model of graduate education is that of cognitive apprenticeship through informal mentoring relationships (Collins, 2006).

Research has shown that high-quality mentoring of doctoral students leads to mentee development of relational skill such as emotional awareness and compassion (Ragins, 2012). These abilities are transferrable to other interpersonal skills necessary for building future high-
quality relationships, especially with followers when acting as a leader (Ragins, 2012). In addition, mentoring can lead to the development of increased career self-efficacy and the development of positive selves which are critical components in the development of professional confidence and identity as doctoral students’ progress into the professional arena (Packard, 2003, Johnson, 2016). High-quality mentoring relationships allows both mentees and mentors to experience, understand, and practice activities that support the development of future leadership self-efficacy. It is imperative that leadership educators understand the best practices of mentors in order to maximize the educational effectiveness of doctoral student leadership development (Middlebrooks & Haberkorn, 2009; Johnson, 2016).

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of faculty mentoring functions in promoting leadership development of doctoral student mentees. We are most interested in examining how mentoring behaviors impact the development of doctoral student leadership self-efficacy (LSE) through their interaction with the leadership environment and faculty mentoring behaviors. The goal of this research is to inform mentoring practice in higher education institutions in order to improve leadership development outcomes amongst doctoral graduates.

**Literature Review**

**Doctoral Education**

Doctoral education in the United States (US) is built upon two tenets. First, doctoral programs’ purpose is to prepare novice scholars to conduct methodologically sound research (Posselt, 2018). Second, the primary model of knowledge acquisition operates through cognitive apprenticeship. According to Collins (2006) a cognitive apprenticeship emphasizes generalization of knowledge across many content areas. Students in a cognitive apprenticeship are instructed to practice applying techniques across a variety of increasingly complex settings so that skills and models can be integrated (Posselt, 2018). However, three mismatches currently exist between student goals, training, and career selection in doctoral education. The resulting imbalance results in students not being well-prepared for faculty positions or work outside of academia (Golde & Dore, 2001).

According to Golde and Walker (2006) doctoral students must “generate new knowledge, critically conserve valuable and useful ideas, and responsibly transform those understandings through writing, teaching, and application” (p. 5). Doctoral students must possess analytical and synthesis skills in order to develop conceptual frameworks and glean the significance of scientific findings across different contexts (Posselt, 2018). These skills become more complex and difficult to navigate as one progresses, however this learning is expected to occur as doctoral students are given progressive independence and increasing responsibility in their cognitive apprenticeships (Collins, 2006; Kennedy, Regehr, Baker, & Lingard, 2005; Posselt, 2018). Researchers postulate that the demands of significantly complex cognitive tasks mixed with a
reduced reliance on previously accepted collegiate support structures renders the doctoral experience much more challenging than other collegiate endeavors (Posselt, 2018).

Few graduate programs provide formal processes for guiding students through the transition of becoming a responsible and independent knowledge creator (Margolis & Romero, 1998). Past research has concluded that the primary methods by which students are socialized into a profession include the culture of the department and mentoring relationships with faculty (Posselt, 2018). Weiss (1981) found that informal interactions with faculty develop student professional role commitment, but almost no graduate programs publish that this interaction is a component to the educational process. Further studies found that high self-esteem of doctoral students was driven by feeling competent, worthwhile, deserving of acceptance, and expectancy for success (Posselt, 2018). Students self-determine these characteristics based on the frame of reference provided by their culture and the structural features of their primary socializing body (Egan, 1989). Consequently, the role of the faculty mentor in this education setting is significant, and research has shown that ineffective mentoring can cause issues with student socialization into their professional environment and difficulty in resolving conflicts between their preconceived notions of graduate school and their perception of early failures. (Posselt, 2018).

**Mentoring**

According to Johnson (2016), academic mentoring is: A personal and reciprocal relationship in which a more experienced (usually older) faculty member acts as a guide, role model, teacher, and sponsor of a less experienced (usually younger) student. A mentor provides the mentee with knowledge, advice, counsel, challenge, and support in the mentee's pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession (p. 23).

Mentors therefore elicit numerous behaviors to achieve these qualities and outcomes. In her seminal work, Kram (1985) grouped several of these functions or roles that were typical of mentoring relationships into two categories: career functions and psychosocial functions. Career functions included the parts of a professional relationship that improved career advancement, and psychosocial functions included tasks that enhanced competence, identity, and effectiveness of younger adults in their personal and professional lives.

As mentors engage in career and psychosocial functions, relationships between students and faculty should become more emotionally connected, collaborative, and reciprocal (Johnson, Skinner, & Kaslow, 2014). The Mentoring Relationship Continuum (MRC) has served as a strong model for understanding that these relationships are based on relative quality in a spectrum and not based on static categories (Johnson et al. 2014). As mentoring relationships change along the MRC continuum faculty member begins to offer an expanding or decreasing range of career and psychosocial support. Faculty will seek to motivate mentees by revealing new and transformative pathways in their professional and personal lives (Sternberg, 2002).
Students will outgrow the mentoring relationship as they gain maturity, confident, and competence (Wang, Tomlinson, & Noe, 2010). As that happens, students desire a more collaborative reciprocal relationship with their faculty member (Wang et al. 2010). This transformational relationship includes a powerful a high degree of social support from the mentor (Ragins, 2012). These positive benefits are the result of what Ragins (2012) referred to as growth-fostering interactions (GFI). These are characterized by mutual empathy, authenticity, and empowerment. As the frequency of these GFIs increase, the relationship becomes classified as relational mentoring (Ragins, 2012). Relational mentoring is characterized by a closer personal and professional working relationship including increased departmental socialization and greater professional identity development (Margolis & Romero, 1998; Ragins, 2012).

Synthesis with Leadership Development

Day and Dragoni (2015) defined leadership development as “the expansion of the capacity of individuals to be effective in leadership roles and processes” (p. 134) and identified LSE, self a developmentally important phenomenon (Coers, 2017). LSE is an individual’s perception of their ability to utilize positive psychological skills, motivation, collective resources, and appropriate courses of action to successfully perform leadership roles across contexts (Hannah, Avolio, Luthan, & Harms, 2008). A review of literature conducted by Machida and Schaubroeck (2011) suggested that feedback, challenge, and support were influential influences of LSE. This finding is congruent with previous research that demonstrated that challenging assignments when combined with positive developmental supervision were effective antecedents to leadership development (Siebert et al., 2017).

Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang, and Avolio (2011) suggested that leader efficacy was a key component to leadership development and that it could be developed in mentor-mentee relationships. Bang and Reio (2017) found that among graduate students, creative self-efficacy was directly associated with personal accomplishment and mentoring. Dweck (2007) found that faculty encouragement of a fixed mindset influenced students into misinterpreting underperformance as an issue of innate ability and lack of belonging. However, when faculty encourage a growth mindset, students view intellectual challenges as learning opportunities and are more likely to persist (Dweck, 2007). This process may mediate feelings of the impostor phenomenon (Posselt, 2018). Impostor phenomenon (IP) occurs when individuals perceive insufficient support from influential others and is exemplified by the tendency to feel inadequate despite repeated success and is common in graduate programs (Clance & Imes, 1978; Cohen, Kay, Youakim, & Balaicuis, 2009).

Given the ambiguous expectations in graduate programs and the evidence presented, doctoral students require various types of support in order to develop LSE. This support includes academic (or career) support, psychosocial support in the form of navigating sociocultural rules of academia, and a cognitive support in the form of creating a growth mindset through performance mastery (Dweck, 2017; Posselt, 2018).
Conceptual Framework

Bandura’s (1986) Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) provided a theoretical framework to explain the formation of leadership self-efficacy in this study, with supporting literature from Coers (2017) model of mediating practices for executive leadership development. Self-efficacy was defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment” (Bandura, 1998, p. 51). Bandura (1977) theorized four variables that informed self-efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Performance accomplishments influence self-efficacy through personal experiences involving success and failure (Bandura, 1977). Vicarious experience occurs when individuals observe others relative success when engaging in activities (Bandura, 1977). Verbal persuasion is weaker than personal or vicarious experiences and occurs when one influences an individual into believe they can or cannot handle a situation (Bandura, 1977). Finally, emotional arousal involves connecting stressful emotional reactions to a situation.

Bandura (1986) proposed the concept of reciprocal determinism, which theorized that an individual’s behavior both influences and is influenced by personal, behavioral, and environmental factors. McCormick (2001) applied this theory to leadership and posited that “variations in leader cognitions, leader behaviors, and the leadership environment are necessary and sufficient to account for variations in leader effectiveness” (p. 24). Within this context, LSE can be conceptualized as one’s self-perception of personal capability to perform cognitive and behavioral actions required to facilitate group processes (Coers, 2017; McCormick, 2001). From this literature, Coers (2017) developed the model of mediating practices for executive leadership development (figure 1). The current study applied the Coers (2017) model, with specific interest in how mentoring behaviors and the leadership environment influences LSE of doctoral students.

![Figure 1: Coers’ Model of Mediating Practices for Executive NGO Leader Development](image-url)
Method

A mixed-methods design was selected for this study in order to better understand how doctoral student quantitative evaluations of faculty mentoring competency aligned with qualitative explanations from personal interviews. A mixed methods study was used because qualitative and quantitative data provide different information, and when taken together, can create more in depth understanding of psychological phenomena (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). In this case, a convergent mixed methods design was used.

The population of interest in this study were doctoral students at a southeastern tier-one research institution that served as official, part-time, or one-time members of a club known as the Graduate Student Council (GSC). GSC students and their peers (who often fill in at meetings) communicate with the university regarding student needs and disburse student organized travel grants. Student members must attend monthly general body meetings, vote on policy, and report back to their home department. This population and their fellow part-time or one-time counterparts were selected because the students involved with GSC were thought to be more likely to have had leadership experiences or the desire to act as a leader while pursuing a doctoral degree.

Public announcements were made at three general body meetings in October, November, and December 2019. These announcements requested doctoral students who would be willing to discuss their relative satisfaction with their current faculty advisors’ mentoring competency. This included a short online survey and a semi-structured personal interview. A web link was placed on the GSC website requesting volunteers to sign up for a preferred interview time and setting. 16 interviews were conducted during the Fall 2019 semester.

The survey utilized in the study came from the Mentoring Competency Assessment (MCA) designed by Fleming et al. (2013) that identified six competencies thought to be critical for effective mentoring in research settings. These competencies included maintaining effective communication (MEC), aligning expectations (AE), assessing understanding (AU), fostering independence (FI), addressing diversity (AD), and promoting professional development (PPD). The mentee version of the MCA uses a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = “not at all skilled,” 4 = ‘moderately skilled,” and 7 = “extremely skilled” (Fleming et al., 2013). The MCA was previously found to be valid and reliable for mentees working in academic research settings (Fleming et al., 2013).

The interview questions were designed by two researchers which included a faculty member and a doctoral student who served as the primary research team on the study. The interview question design was guided by Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory and conducted in three phases by both researchers on the project. The initial interview guide included 40 questions, and after three meetings between the research team, were eventually reduced to 15 items.
Multiple coding was conducted on all 16 interview transcripts by both researchers using a priori coding. Elliot (2018) suggested that multiple coding was necessary in situations where the research team was attempting to test the fit of different theories. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected on all 16 participants and analyzed in a side-by-side comparison (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Validity was maintained by recording an equal sample size in both the quantitative and qualitative sampling. In addition, member checking was conducted with all participants to verify the credibility of the interview findings.

Results:

The 16 participants in the study included 14 women (87.5%) which was significantly different than the distribution by gender of doctoral students at this institution (50.85% female) and the distribution of registered GSC representatives (59.4% female). This is congruent with previous research that has indicated that female graduate students perceive mentoring relationships as significantly more important than do their male counterparts (Liang, Tracy, Taylor, Williams, Jordan, & Miller, 2002). The participants ranged in age from 24 to 55, with an average age of 32.3. All 16 participants were doctoral students working full-time. 87.5% of participants had been in their program for at least one full academic year. Students were asked to self-select their primary area of research. Seven students (43.5%) selected social science, four (25%) selected lab-based basic research, two (12.5%) selected field-based applied research and lab and field-based research respectively with one (6.25%) choosing clinical science.

The 16 participants evaluated overall faculty mentoring competency at 4.86 based on an average of all 26-items on the MCA, with a low of 1.62 and a high of 6.96 (table 1). A qualitative analysis was conducted to examining all six MCA competencies, with consideration given to whether a student had quantitatively assessed satisfaction with a specific competency (score < 4) or dissatisfaction (score < 4).

MEC was the most frequently discussed mentoring competency. Thematic analysis of student perceptions of MEC indicated that accessibility, trust, and constructive feedback were most important to perceptions of faculty skill in MEC. Students that reported scores above four reported having regularly scheduled meetings with their advisor, feelings of trust and support, and routine and effective feedback. Students that evaluated mentoring below four complained that faculty were rarely or inconsistently available, provided ineffectual feedback, and were behaviorally inconsistent and untrustworthy. These characteristics existed on a spectrum. A mentor with extremely low MEC scores may be ineffective in all three thematic areas, while a mentor scored closer to four may lack one of the three. The seven mentors who were scored above six possessed all three qualities, for example:

I was very nervous going back but I don't feel nervous anymore because I know that my advisor has got my back and that he is very invested in my success... so I just I feel very supported... He is very good about making a point to meet. He provides very thorough
feedback. Very, very thorough. He will let me know if I'm on the wrong track or if I need to correct myself (Personal Interview, December 17, 2019)

Table 1: Participant Average Evaluation of Faculty Mentoring Competency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant #</th>
<th>MEC</th>
<th>AE</th>
<th>AU</th>
<th>FI</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>PPD</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>5.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>5.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>5.67</td>
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<td>5.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>5.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>5.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
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<td>4.20</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>4.33</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.58</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>2.80</td>
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<td>2.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
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<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The evaluations of MEC above six were always associated with positive perceptions of discipline specific emotional arousal and verbal persuasion, and in increased access to vicarious and mastery experiences. MEC was rated lower than four in all four cases where participants perceived dysfunctional leadership environments (DLE).

AE was the second most discussed competency during the interview process. Analysis suggested that clarity, setting research goals, and developing research strategies were most important to perceptions of mentor skill in AE. Students who scored six or higher reported all three qualities as present in their mentoring relationship. However, the three students scoring below two in AE all reported anxiety, uncertainty, a lack of purposeful strategy or engagement from faculty, and setting research goals without faculty guidance.

*My mentor wasn't really interested at all, you know... Looking back on it now realizing how disengaged he was with my research. It would have really helped me a lot if I'd had someone who was more actively intellectually substantively engaged with my research and how it's going to play out (Participant Interview, November 4, 2019)*
Lower evaluations of skill in AE were associated with high levels of negative emotional arousal and reduced positive verbal persuasion. Students in this category rarely engaged in mastery experiences through their mentors and were more likely to report negative vicarious experiences. Students with low AE in DLE also reported more uncertainty with formal department processes and less socialization.

AU was the least discussed mentoring competency in the interview process. AU was only mentioned directly when students provided their own definition of mentoring. Five students did report that faculty provided ineffective advice. This behavior was coded as skill in MEC. However, it could be argued that providing ineffectual advice is a fault of poor assessment of student interests and abilities. Poor skill in AU could contribute to lower LSE through feelings of frustration, uncertainty, or increased failure as faculty provide less applicable advice for students.

FI was the highest rated faculty competency. Analysis revealed myriad characteristics related to FI but few mentioned more than twice across interviews. One skill mentioned in six of the interviews is building student confidence. One example from a participant who perceived high skill in FI said:

> She constantly is building you up and has made my time here so much better. There's been some decisions I've had to make that I've been worried about how she would feel about them. And she repeatedly said like I am here to make your experience here the best it can be and make it what you want it (Personal Interview, October 31, 2019).

Building confidence has applications to LSE through positive verbal persuasion. Faculty skill in FI also led to personal mastery experiences for students. One student discussed two mentors during her interview. The current mentor was average in FI but her previous mentor provided her with mastery experiences that ultimately informed her dissertation topic and provided her with the confidence to complete her dissertation in a shorter amount of time. Students were appreciative of access to mastery experiences, however, FI is only effective when faculty provide sufficient levels of support relative to the challenge of the assignment (Johnson, 2016). FI and MEC had had the highest correlation (r = .91) of any two MCA competencies in this study. This, along with comments from students, support the idea that MEC is important to perceptions of FI.

Faculty skill in AD was mentioned in only five of the sixteen interviews conducted. The primary focus was on female faculty navigating mostly male professions with one international student specifically mentioning culture sensitivity in a mostly white male profession. One student who scored her mentors skill in AD at one, said:

> He recommended (taking an undergraduate course) over a course in our department that was taught by black woman. I think he has a lot of implicit racism and bias which is kind of the case in our department (Personal Interview, November 4, 2019).
This implicit bias that impacted her choice of classes greatly reduced her level of trust. The other four mentions of diversity in interviews were all positive and had high corresponding quantitative scores. Reduced trust in these relationships reduces psychological safety, which may increase negative emotional arousal (Raes, Kyndt, Decuyper, Van den Bossche, & Dochy, 2015).

PPD was the final competency and was mentioned in every interview. This was the lowest rated faculty competency. Analysis uncovered two themes mentioned by students: the importance of proactive faculty guidance in work-life balance and acting as a positive role model. For example:

*I could just see the excitement when he wrote on the board and like, the passion in his eyes, and that made me really passionate about it, too (Participant Interview, December 12, 2019).*

Students who scored PPD above four reported mentor support for work-life balance and acted as positive role models. Those that scored six or higher all reported motivation, excitement, or passion from their faculty mentor. Students that scored below all perceived faculty disinterest with collaborative research and did not seem care about role modeling.

One final finding was that a DLE impacted LSE by causing increased feelings of anxiety and uncertainty. DLE were often defined as decentralized, confusing, unsupportive, and stressful. One example came from a student who observed two candidates being interviewed for a vacant department chair position:

*I can't believe how flippant they're being about this. I've watched many of my peers come in married and leave divorced, because it's like a really straining environment to be in. The fact that neither of them wanted to do it is so embarrassing to me and it hurts me. And I don't understand how you can have no desire to be a leader, no understanding of like, what that means and whatever (Participant Interview, October 23, 2019).*

When asked about leadership culture, two distinct themes emerged: environments that were encouraging and organized, and departments that were disorganized, discouraging, and lacked transparency. However, three of four students who reported DLE also indicated that their mentors were below average in MEC. This suggests that DLE may impact faculty mentoring ability or that doctoral students require higher levels of faculty attention and are more critical of faculty mentoring ability in these scenarios.

**Discussion:**

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of faculty mentoring functions and the leadership environment in promoting LSE of doctoral students using the Coers (2017) leadership development model. The primary finding drawn from this research is that effective faculty mentoring behavior can reduce negative emotional arousal in doctoral students. Bandura (1986) posited that generating knowledge requires effort in the face of failure, and that individuals
require persistence and resiliency in order to succeed. Individuals who experience significant stress are unlikely to persist in the face of challenge without additional forms of support (Bandura, 1986). This support is critical due to the uncertainty, ambiguity, and lack of formal support structures inherent to graduate school. (Margolis & Romero, 1998).

In this study, MEC was the most discussed MCA competency and three themes emerged: accessibility, trust, and constructive feedback. Effective faculty mentors can provide affirmation, encouragement, and support for doctoral students (Johnson, 2016). This support is only possible when faculty make themselves accessible. Research has shown that faculty availability outside of the classroom is linked to positive educational outcomes (Blackwell, 1989). Faculty mentors must be present, available, and willing to engage in conversation to support doctoral student development (Forehand, 2008).

Rose (2003) reported that faculty providing direct guidance was one of the most desirable characteristics of an effective mentor. Students in this study who reported regular meetings and verbal support from mentors were more likely to communicate their expectations and interests to their mentors. Students who evaluated faculty mentoring skill as above average in MEC were also more likely to experience increased confidence and have more access to independent assignments (key characteristics of FI). Participants who reported greater skill in FI described more positive mastery experiences and guidance from their mentor. Previous research has shown that LSE is positively influenced when individuals are provided sequentially challenging assignments and who also receive support and feedback (Machida and Schaubroeck, 2011, Seibert et al., 2017). Students in this study who perceived strong faculty skill in MEC reported more personal mastery experiences and felt that work-life balance (a component of PPD) was better recognized by faculty mentors. No student who evaluated MEC or overall mentoring below four held or was interested in pursuing a leadership position.

Research has suggested that doctoral students require guidance through institutional politics, norms, skills and paths for advancement, and common stumbling blocks (Levinson, 1978; Rose, 2005). Without guidance in these areas, doctoral students can become anxious and focused on survival and can miss out on educational and leadership experiences (Johnson, 2016). Four of the sixteen students in this study identified their department as having a DLE. Three of these students reported mentor skill in MEC below four, reported higher levels of negative emotional arousal, and less verbal support, mastery opportunities, or positive vicarious experiences. An effective mentor must intervene to support doctoral students in DLE (Blackwell, 1989). This protection can mitigate DLE and increase LSE by reducing emotional arousal (Bandura, 1986; Johnson, 2016). Faculty who are not accessible cannot provide this level of support.

There are many books and publications that suggest effective mentoring behavior. In the context of promoting LSE, we would suggest that MEC is the most important mentoring competency.
There are many stressors in graduate school, and faculty can only mitigate and appropriately educate their mentees when they are present and regularly accessible. In this study, MEC acted as a prerequisite for all other mentoring behavior. Without MEC, faculty could not align expectations, understand their mentees needs and goals, or provide opportunities to foster independence and provide professional development.

There are several limitations in this study that must be considered. First, the results are preliminary. The research team plans to conduct additional thematic analysis to determine deeper connections between LSE, mentoring competencies, and quantitative measures of faculty mentoring ability. Second, student perceptions of self-efficacy and faculty mentoring competency can change suddenly and dramatically. Further studies with repeated measure over time should be conducted to better understand how mentoring behavior impacts leadership development. Third, students from this study came from only one institution, and were already associated with leadership positions. Further studies should attempt to select students not involved in voluntary student leadership positions.

**Conclusion**

This research project was designed to investigate LSE in graduate students, a critical population which we feel require leadership development to become effective professionals. Doctoral students are expected to receive leadership training during their education but formal mechanisms for providing that experience are limited (Mowbray & Halse, 2010; Posselt, 2018). This research supports the mission of the Association of Leadership Educators by providing practical guidance on how faculty mentors can improve LSE through effective mentoring behaviors. Graduate departments can support doctoral student leadership development by creating a culture that demands accessible faculty and regular meetings between mentors and mentee. With this structure in place, faculty mentors should be able to understand the needs and aspirations of their mentees. More understanding should allow a better alignment of expectations. This alignment should ideally lead to more opportunities for students to engage in relevant and progressively more challenging experiences that promote confidence and independence which should foster the growth of professional identity. Once that identity begins to develop, faculty can provide appropriate professional development. Each of these activities can increase LSE in doctoral students, but are only possible with a foundation of effective communication.
References


Community-Based Research and Outreach for Undergraduate Students: An Opportunity for Critical Reflection

Abstract

The Mississippi State University Extension Undergraduate Apprenticeship Program was implemented in 2017 for undergraduate juniors and seniors to work with an Extension mentor and explore careers in agriculture, natural resources, family and consumer sciences, community resource development, or youth development, while participating in research and outreach activities that directly benefit Extension and community stakeholders. Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model and the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection serve as the conceptual framework, whereby students engage in critical reflection to enhance their integrated research-and-outreach learning experience. An evaluation of the first two student cohorts (n=19) revealed a significant production of scholarship, an increase in discipline-specific knowledge, enhanced critical thinking and problem solving skills, a greater understanding and appreciation for Extension, and a desire to pursue related graduate studies.

Introduction

Extension administrators at Mississippi State University expressed a desire to improve awareness of Extension and recruitment of potential candidates for Extension careers in Mississippi. The former Agent in Training Program, which once served this purpose, was no longer viable due to budget restrictions. The authors proposed a summer internship program to recruit upperclassmen undergraduates from land-grant universities earning degrees that, although related to agriculture, natural resource, family science, or community development, are not traditionally perceived as transferable to an Extension-related career.

The Mississippi State University Extension Undergraduate Apprenticeship Program was implemented in 2017. Participating students gain direct experience conducting research and assisting in the analysis and translation of that research into a related Extension process or product, such as an Extension publication, presentation, or educational curriculum. Additionally, they learn more about the mission of Extension and have the opportunity to consider the possibilities of applying their undergraduate degree to an Extension career upon graduation. Finally, students are exposed to additional opportunities for graduate studies and ongoing research.

This paper briefly summarizes the existing research supporting the need for undergraduate experiential opportunities such as this one and review the literature regarding mentoring of adult learners and critical thinking and problem-solving skills for college-educated young adults entering the workforce. Next the Mississippi State University Extension Undergraduate Apprenticeship Program model and how it is based on the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection is described. Finally, lessons learned from the first year of this program are provided, with implications that may be informative for other Extension systems or institutions of higher learning interested in implementing a similar model.

Literature Review
There is a need for Extension personnel qualified in the subject matter most relevant to the identified needs of respective stakeholders in a county or region (Cooper & Graham, 2001). Very little research on training costs for non-profit and educational organizations exists, but studies in the for-profit sector indicate it may cost as much as six to nine months of a new employee’s salary -- entry-level equivalent of $30,000 to $40,000 -- for orientation and training (Bliss, n.d.). These costs include on-the-job training by supervisors and colleagues, lost productivity over the first few months of employment, and several intangible costs. Although subject matter may be taught on the job, the cost to an Extension organization to train an employee to a level at which they can most effectively address clientele needs is extensive and can be reduced simply by hiring employees that already have a technical background in a particular programmatic area.

Cooperative Extension has not done a good job of marketing itself as a career opportunity to undergraduate students earning technical degrees, and there is steep competition from the private job sector, which often can afford to offer higher starting salaries and other attractive amenities. The Mississippi State University Extension Undergraduate Apprenticeship Program was developed to help raise undergraduate students’ awareness of potential Extension careers, since “apprentices learn in contexts very similar to situations they seek for further activity or employment” (Sadler et al., 2010, p. 236).

Additionally, apprenticeship opportunities can have positive effects on undergraduates’ desire to attend graduate school (Hunter, Laursen & Seymour, 2007; Sadler et al. 2010; Seymour, Hunter, Laursen & Deantoni, 2004). However, even if students determine they do not wish to pursue a career in research at the end of the apprenticeship experience, likely they will come away with a better understanding and appreciation of scientific disciplines and their subsequent application via outreach and Extension, thus better preparing them for future science or education careers (Hunter et al. 2007).

There has long been a debate between the role of Extension personnel as experts in technology transfer for targeted industries and as educators and process specialists for the general public (Ilvento, 1997). Regardless, Extension personnel are known for their ability to apply research to solve practical problems. This apprenticeship program attempts to bridge the perceived research-practice divide by engaging the student in a fully integrated research and outreach experiential learning experience.

Undergraduate experiential opportunities

Literature describing the benefits of experiential learning for students’ career decisions and general professional and academic development is abundant (Baker, et al., 1991; Cantor, 1997; Gregory, 1990; O’Neill, 1992; Seibert, Hart & Sypher, 1989). Students who participate in experiential learning via an internship as part of their undergraduate experience are more likely than their peers to pursue a graduate school education immediately after finishing a bachelor’s degree (Bauer & Bennett, 2003; Foertsch, Alexander, & Penberthy, 1997; Hathaway, Nagda, & Gregerman, 2002). This may be linked, in part, to an enhanced perception of preparedness to attend graduate school (Hunter et al., 2007; Nnadozie, Ishiyama, & Chon, 2001; Sabatini, 1997; Seymour et al., 2004) and a clearer understanding of the objectives and outcomes of attending graduate school (Ward, Bennett, & Bauer, 2002). Those who enter the workforce after graduation or even work part-time while earning a graduate degree report greater career
preparedness and self-efficacy in areas of communication, innovation, team-building, and networking (Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000). Experiential learning activities may include “cooperative education placements, practicum experiences, and classroom-based hands-on laboratory activities” (Cantor, 1997, p. 6). Of these, the experiences outside of the classroom provide valuable opportunities to apply theory to practice (Rolls, 1992).

“A competitive workforce is vital to establishing a sustainable agricultural future” (“Workforce development”, n.d., ¶ 1). As such, there is tremendous support from organizations such as the US Department of Agriculture National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) for programs that provide research and Extension opportunities through structured programs that incorporate mentoring and hands-on experiences. Prospective employers identify experience as a key attribute of any entry-level professional, and this is best obtained via internships (Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000, p. 45). The expectation is that these programs will help students learn to use more advanced technologies and draw from a broader base of scientific knowledge so that they become innovators and leaders in their own right.

**Mentoring of adult learners in an organizational context**

There is not consensus as to whether traditional undergraduate students are adults, since the concept of adulthood is fragile and deeply embedded in cultural and social norms (Arnett, 1994). However, a segment of the literature argues that young adulthood is characterized by the application of knowledge and skills obtained during adolescence (Schaie, 1982), a transition from believing in absolute truths to an individualized selection of beliefs and values (Perry, 1970), and the development of critical inquiry and evaluation skills (Kitchener & King, 1981). These characteristics align with those of adult learners, and as such, the way in which adult learners are mentored in higher education and professional contexts must be addressed here.

Within a learning organization, employees have an opportunity to build capacity and change behavior (Garvin, 1993; Senge, 1990), and this is often strengthened by mentoring programs that encourage continuous learning and risk taking (Buck, 2004; Denny, 2016). Cohen (1995) identified mentees in the workplace as adult learners. This implies that their learning experience while being mentored should be transformative, allowing them to expand their beliefs and values and solidify their self-determination (Franz, Garst, Baughman, Smith, & Peters, 2009; Mezirow, 2000). Research indicates that this transformation is most successful when mentors engage their mentees in critical debate, open discourse, and reflection and analysis of personal assumptions and actions (Cranton, 1996; Denny, 2016; Mezirow, 2000).

Past research of student-to-faculty apprenticeship pairings has documented reports from the faculty mentors that student researchers tend to make significance content gains (Hunter et al. 2007; Sadler et al. 2010; Seymour et al. 2004). In turn, students report intellectual development as a key outcome of their apprenticeship experiences (Hunter et al. 2007; Seymour et al. 2004), along with increased confidence and perceived ability to do scientific research (Lopatto, 2004).

There are several program-based outcomes and student-based outcomes of the Mississippi State University Extension Apprenticeship Program. The program outcomes are to:

1) Raise students’ awareness of Extension and Extension careers;
2) Positively influence students’ decision to pursue graduate studies and/or enter a career field that ultimately benefits Extension and one or more of the US Department of Agriculture’s (USDA) priority areas;  
3) Enhance students’ critical thinking and problem-solving skills; and  
4) Garner support for Extension’s mission as a non-biased, research- and evidence-based source of information.

As a result of participating in this program, students will be able to:

1) Summarize the significance of research-based outreach and education;  
2) Give examples of how their work contributed to the Extension mission;  
3) Demonstrate the way(s) in which target clientele can use/benefit from the research conducted during their apprenticeship experience; and  
4) Evaluate the effectiveness of a particular educational activity or tool as part of a larger Extension program.

Another goal is that mentors report an increase in efficacy as mentors and a desire to engage more in integrated research and outreach opportunities with undergraduates.

**Conceptual Framework**

The Mississippi State University Extension Apprenticeship Program gives undergraduate juniors and seniors the opportunity to work one-on-one with an Extension mentor and explore careers in agriculture, natural resources, family and consumer sciences, community resource development, or youth development, while participating in research and outreach activities that directly benefit Extension programs and community stakeholders. The program is rooted in the principles of mentoring adult learners in an organizational context. Kolb’s (1984) Experiential Learning Model and the DEAL Model for Critical Reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2009) serve as the conceptual framework for the program. Kolb’s theory utilizes a holistic perspective on learning which incorporates experience, perception, cognition, and behavior. The DEAL Model for Critical Reflection promotes and assesses student learning in applied and experiential learning approaches such as service-learning, internships, practica, and study abroad courses. The DEAL Model is a process that scaffolds learners as they describe, examine, and articulate learning.

Figure 1 illustrates an adaptation of Ash and Clayton’s (2009) DEAL Model for critical reflection to the Mississippi State University Extension Apprenticeship program and illustrates the collective framework for this program. This three stage critical reflection model provides programmatic structure and guidance to both the students and mentors to help them engage in a meaningful experience. Description of this conceptual model is woven into the description of the program model to follow.

Each student has a faculty specialist or Extension associate mentor who facilitates their experience with the research process and its extension application at a county, regional, and/or statewide level. The student’s experience with the Extension mentor is an intense, research-to-extension process over the summer months. The student travels extensively, actively participates with the mentor in field visits, consultations, camps, workshops/presentations, etc., and assists with new or ongoing research (e.g. field trials, surveys), while interacting with and assisting
county Extension agents in their roles with a diversity of stakeholders and clientele. Students interact with multiple Extension personnel and industry stakeholders during this process so that they receive a broad, diverse experience of Extension, rather than a single, and possibly biased, perspective.

Figure 1. Alignment of the DEAL Model to the Mississippi State University Extension Apprenticeship Program

The Extension mentors conduct periodic guided reflective conversations with their students at regular intervals throughout the summer. These reflective conversations incorporate the first two stages of the DEAL model. The first stage of the model, *Describe*, requires students to provide an objective and detailed description of the learning experience. To capture this, the mentors ask their student to describe what main project(s) they have been working on and to identify their primary activities and responsibilities. The second stage, *Examine*, requires that the students analyze the experience in such a way as to generate important learnings across three reflection
domains (i.e. cognitive, affective, and process). Each domain includes multiple questions which were adapted from Ryerson University (2009).

The cognitive reflection prompts the student to examine what new knowledge or skills he/she has gained during the apprenticeship. The primary cognitive reflection question is “what new knowledge or skills did you learn as a result of these activities and/or responsibilities?” The affective reflection questions encourage the student to examine how they feel as a result of the apprenticeship experiences. For instance, students are asked “how do you feel you have grown as a result of these activities and/or responsibilities?” Finally, the process reflection requires the student to consider what he/she has learned from the process itself. A sample process reflection question is “how were the activities and/or responsibilities similar to or different from your expectations?”

The third stage of the model, Articulate Learning, encourages students to set goals for future action that will allow them to apply this learning in future situations. The articulate learning stage is structured according to four guiding questions: (a) What did I learn? (b) How, specifically, did I learn it? (c) Why does this learning matter, or why is it significant? and (d) In what ways will I use this learning or what goals will I set in accordance with what I have learned in order to improve myself, the quality of my learning, or the quality of my future experience? (Ash, Clayton, & Atkinson, 2005). This stage of the critical reflection is captured through a weekly apprenticeship online reflective journal that each student is required to complete. Responses to these questions or corresponding prompts (i.e. “I learned that…”, “I learned this when…”, “this learning matters because…” and “in light of this learning…”), can be compiled into articulated learning statements. The articulated learning process allows students to recognize what they have learned through reflection on the experience, place it in context, and express it concisely supporting them in thinking critically about their own learning (Ash & Clayton, 2004). The articulated learning statements are used for both formative and summative assessment of the apprenticeship program.

The four guiding questions and corresponding writing prompts from the Articulate Learning stage of the DEAL model were mapped to Kolb’s (1984) Experiential Learning Cycle of action and reflection. Initially when we mapped Kolb’s four stages to the four questions/writing prompts of the Articulate Learning stage of the DEAL model, we mapped the first stage in Kolb’s model (i.e. concrete experience) with the first prompt in the DEAL model (“I learned this when…”), the second stage of Kolb’s model (i.e. reflective observation) to the second prompt in the DEAL model (“I learned that…”), and so on. However, upon analysis of the first cohort of students’ journals, we recognized that the “I learned this when…” prompt elicited descriptions of the learning experience whereas the “I learned that…” prompt evoked an interpretation of what was learned during the experience.

Table 1 provides an overview of how Kolb’s stages were mapped to the DEAL Model reflective writing prompts. Although the reflective writing prompts are presented in the table in the order in which they align with Kolb’s stages, the first two prompts are presented to the students in reverse order when the students access their online reflection journals.
Table 1. Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle Stages Mapped to DEAL Model Reflective Prompts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kolb’s Experiential Learning Stages</th>
<th>Description of Stage</th>
<th>DEAL Model Reflective Writing Prompt</th>
<th>Application of DEAL Reflective Prompts to Kolb’s Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concrete Experience</td>
<td>Doing/having an experience</td>
<td>2. <em>I learned this when...</em></td>
<td>Description of the concrete learning experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective Observation</td>
<td>Reviewing/reflecting on experience</td>
<td>1. <em>I learned that...</em></td>
<td>Interpretation of what was learned during the concrete experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract Conceptualization</td>
<td>Concluding/learning from the experience</td>
<td>3. <em>This learning matters because...</em></td>
<td>Initiation or modification of an existing abstract concept that has been learned through the concrete experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Experimentation</td>
<td>Planning/trying out what you have learned</td>
<td>4. <em>In light of this learning...</em></td>
<td>Application of this learning to other situations and/or contexts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methods

There are several points of formative and summative assessment built into the program model to allow for evaluation of both process and outcome goals. Table 2 describes the various assessment methodologies identified for each student-centered learning outcome.

Table 2. Assessment methodologies employed for targeted student-centered outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student-centered outcomes</th>
<th>Assessment methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Summarize the significance of research-based outreach and education</td>
<td>Reflective discussions between the student and his mentor; Analysis of the students’ reflective journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give examples of how their work contributed to the Cooperative Extension mission</td>
<td>Student poster or oral presentation at a professional meetingconference; Contribution to development of Extension publication(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate the way(s) in which target clientele can use/benefit from the research conducted during their apprenticeship experience</td>
<td>Development of an evaluation tool and/or analyzing and interpreting data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to complete the requirements of the program, each student must: a) successfully meet the learning objectives identified by and with the Extension mentor for their specific apprenticeship experience; b) maintain and submit a weekly electronic critical reflection journal; and c) develop and present a poster or presentation at an industry-related conference or meeting identified by the Extension mentor. Additionally, the students work with Extension personnel to coordinate research and implement related outreach activities; participate in meetings where local issues are identified and prioritized, and program results and plans are discussed; assist in
preparations for planned events and activities; and conduct teaching, training or other Extension program presentations, as appropriate.

Additionally, the Program Director regularly monitors student progress through site visits, observations, and informal discussions with the faculty mentors. Observational visits, as part of an apprenticeship -- to existing or potential clientele -- can stimulate innovative ideas through the sharing of tacit knowledge (Leonard & Sensiper, 1998). While these types of interactions are not tracked formally through this program, it is expected that the students contemplate and write about them in their reflection journals as meaningful experiences. Although this process is limited because of its potential subjectivity, the lack of formality may encourage more honest and open feedback that will contribute to strengthening the program for the future. In order to determine the long-term impacts and possible correlations between the apprenticeship experience and career and/or graduate school decisions, student participants are contacted up to a year after completion of their apprenticeship to track their current job and/or educational status and future plans.

The undergraduate apprentices are asked to complete a follow-up electronic survey approximately two months after the end of the apprenticeship. Part of the survey asks them to rate the effectiveness of their mentor on certain actions and characteristics that align with the six functions of successful mentors of adult learners. In turn, the mentors are asked once again to complete the mentor functions assessment based on their perceived role and success relative to each of the six functions. The Program Director and Evaluator then compare the students’ responses with those of the mentors to determine discrepancies and discuss opportunities to enhance training with future mentors, if needed. Finally, students’ reflective journal entries were qualitatively analyzed using nVivo software to identify common themes related to both the program- and student-centered outcomes.

Results

Since the summer of 2017, the Mississippi State University Extension Apprenticeship Program has provided undergraduate juniors and seniors the opportunity to explore Extension-related careers in agriculture and natural resources, family and consumer sciences, community resource development, or 4-H youth development, while participating in research and experiential learning opportunities that directly benefit Extension outreach to local communities. There were eight (8) paid apprenticeship opportunities in 2017 and nine (9) more in 2018. Each apprenticeship ran for twelve (12) weeks during the summer semester, paid students a weekly stipend of $500, and provided a budget for travel and other material costs on the part of both the students and mentor.

The Mississippi State University Institutional Review Board deemed an evaluation of the 2017 and 2018 cohorts to be exempt from review. An analysis of the first two years of the program revealed the following positive outputs and outcomes (Denny & Hardman, 2018). In collaboration with their respective mentors, students produced fourteen poster presentations and six Extension publications, gave eight oral presentations at professional conferences – one international, and co-authored two journal manuscripts. Fifty-three percent (n=9) will “likely” pursue an Extension career as a result of their experience as an apprentice. Seventy-six percent (n=13) reported that they are “likely” or "extremely likely" to pursue a graduate degree related
to agriculture, natural resources, family and consumer science, youth development, community resource development, or human sciences as a result of the apprenticeship.

Students (N=17) reported an increase in: knowledge of their discipline of study (82%, n=14), ability to interact and work with people of different disciplines (88%, n=15), and skills in critical (71%, n=12), problem-solving (94%, n=16), teamwork (82%, n=14), written (71%, n=12) and oral (82%, n=14) communication. To date, three (18%) of the seventeen students have chosen to pursue an agriculture- or extension-related graduate degree as a direct result of their apprenticeship experience. All but one student said they would share their experience with others.

Mentors reported a positive experience with their respective undergraduate apprentice. Six of the eight Extension mentors in 2017 submitted applications for 2018. Of those, four were again selected to mentor students in 2018. Total Mississippi State University mentor application submissions for the 2018 round of undergraduate apprenticeships increased by 16 percent.

An additional bank of questions aimed at determining the students’ perceptions of their mentor’s effectiveness on several key criteria were added to the follow-up surveys administered to the nine students (N=9) that participated in Year 2, the summer of 2018. The students reported that their mentors were either “Very Effective” or “Extremely Effective” at helping them: find and understand information (56%, n=5); understand the relationship between Extension and research (89%, n=8); think critically (89%, n=8); solve problems (89%, n=8); articulate their learning (89%, n=8); work independently (89%, n=8); engage in teamwork (78%, n=7); take strategic risks in their learning (67%, n=6); and take responsibility for their learning (89%, n=8). From this, the authors determine that the mentor relationship with the student apprentices are generally effective, though there is always room for improvement via additional mentor training and formative evaluations of the mentor-mentee relationship.

Qualitative analysis of students’ reflective journals revealed several themes, two of which are discussed here. The first, Awareness of Extension, was illustrated in students’ deliberation of their experiences interacting with community groups and individual stakeholders. According to one student, “Extension goes and investigates the cause of a problem to fix it… If you want to make a change, you have to look at the bigger picture.” After another student worked with their mentor to deliver a research-based solution for a local business owner’s problem, the student noted that “Extension is really something I am interested in because of the way it connects to the community... I got to see first-hand how different people in extension can come together to try and help out a local business and solve issues together, which I really enjoyed being a part of.” This first step of awareness is critical to enhancing the public value of Extension (Franz, 2011), where public value is defined as "the value of a program to those who do not directly benefit from the program" (Kalambokidis & Bipes, 2007, pg. 12).

The second theme was the Connection between Research and Extension. One student acknowledged the importance of connecting the “university with industry because it gives us a chance to do some research for them and help them with their problems.” This is significant because of the tradition of research synthesis, translation, and dissemination in Cooperative Extension (Dunifon, Duttweiler, Pillemer, Tobias, & Trochim, 2004). According to Monks,
Haden, and Conner (2017), it is critical to emphasize the evidence- and research-based approach that differentiates Extension from other information sources. Another student with plans on pursuing a graduate degree in engineering and engaging in research wrote this about her apprenticeship experience:

“I learned about how the research we are working on has the opportunity to affect many different people that live in coastal areas. I had a chance to speak with a homeowner that lived on one of the rivers that runs into Weeks Bay. We talked about how the shoreline has been eroding away causing her trees to fall. She talked about how she wished there was a way for her to stop the erosion so that she would no longer lose land and trees. This gave me the opportunity to see how finding ways to prevent erosion could help landowners like her.”

**Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusion**

Based on faculty and student feedback to date and a process evaluation of the overall program after Year 1, minor changes were made for the 2018 cohort to enhance the efficacy of the program and the students’ and mentors’ experience. These include moving the reflective journals to an online, Qualtrics-based survey format; providing more guidance to faculty about their roles and expectations as mentors to the students throughout the summer, rather than just at the beginning; and providing more opportunities for the students and faculty to communicate and share ideas as a true cohort throughout the summer, rather than function as separate mentor-mentee pairs.

As this program continues, there will be some major changes to the program process. First, in light of complications with 2017 and 2018 students’ academic schedules and issues with non-Mississippi State University students’ ability to obtain housing after July, the apprenticeships will be reduced from 12 weeks to 10 weeks, starting after May 1st (to accommodate students’ various spring semester schedules) and ending by July 31st of each year.

Second, rather than send a blanket request for proposals from all specialists and associates with Extension appointments, the Program Director will communicate with Mississippi State University Extension administration to identify specific personnel with Extension research and education programs that are critical to the needs of Mississippi stakeholders but are at risk of ending because of retirements, attrition, reduced budgets and resources, and/or limited staff. These individuals will be asked to submit integrated research and extension project proposals that can start the process to train students in their area(s) of specialization, in the hopes that these students will carry on these Extension research and outreach programs and/or pursue graduate studies in support of them in the future.

Finally, selected individuals will be allowed to mentor more than one student at a time, if desired. This hopefully will encourage the students to learn from and build relationships with not just the mentor, but each other. When asked what they would change about the program, the students commented that opportunities to work more cohesively as a student cohort, rather than solely with individual mentors, would have enhanced their overall experience. Allowing a single
Extension personnel to mentor multiple students simultaneously will allow students the opportunity to work with one another.

From a practical perspective, the integrated approach of the Mississippi State University Extension Undergraduate Program of engaging students in the various aspects of Extension research, program planning and development, implementation via outreach, and evaluation embody Nancy Franz’s 2009 Engaged Scholarship Model. Extension administrators expressed a desire to improve awareness of Extension and recruitment of potential candidates for Extension careers in Mississippi, after noticing a growing trend of higher turnover and fewer applicants for open positions. The initial design of the overall program was proposed with the intent to address this issue, or discovery of new knowledge. A U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) Education and Literacy Initiative (ELI) Research and Extension Experiences for Undergraduates (REEU) Fellowship Program grant enabled the development of new knowledge via the implementation of the apprenticeship program for two years. The tangible outputs developed by the students in the form of journal manuscripts, scientific posters, Extension publications, and direct teaching based on related research represent a dissemination of new knowledge.

Finally, the program evaluation data has revealed a significant change in learning and behavior. Since the authors received a five-year renewal grant to continue this program through 2023, there is the expectation of evidence of a change in condition, such as sustained administrative support and funding beyond the grant period. This program can serve as an example for other Extension systems seeking buy-in from faculty and other academic personnel to support and engage students in undergraduate research and develop a new cadre of stakeholders that understand and value the Cooperative Extension system.

NOTE

This research was supported by the FY16 USDA NIFA AFRI ELI REEU Fellowships Program of the NIFA, USDA, Grant #2017-67033-26015.
References


Looking for Connections in Leadership Education: The Link between Mentoring and Teamwork Skills

Mentoring and teamwork are arguably two of the most important leadership skills. However, few leaders are ever specifically trained on the effective behaviors necessary for success in either skill area. In this research synthesis, a combined model of mentoring and teamwork functions is proposed to provide a foundation for future leadership education. Using higher education as a platform, we demonstrate how effective mentoring and teamwork behaviors overlap. This overlap presents an opportunity for leadership educators to provide one combined training regimen on just one set of competencies that could prepare future leaders to better practice mentoring and teamwork skills in professional settings.

Introduction:

According to a recent report from the Huffington Post, the average person spent an estimated 14 years of an average 80-year life at work. In contrast, the average person only spent about one-year socializing with close friends (Campbell, 2017). Given that, it should come as no surprise that different types of relationships at work have had far-reaching impacts on people's personal lives, professional development, and emotional well-being. Two of the most important relationships that have occurred between people at work are mentoring and teamwork.

Mentoring and teamwork are important social behaviors that impact the success of organizations and the individuals working within those organizations (Somech, Desivilya, & Lidogoster, 2009; Tenenbaum & Crosby, 2001). Mentoring and teamwork also both involve adults working together in groups of at least two people towards a common goal (Johnson, 2016, Varela & Mead, 2018). How these groups work together to successfully identify and accomplish shared goals has been described differently by research literature depending on whether the relationship is described as mentoring or teamwork. Despite the contextual differences, the literature has universally supported the idea that both teamwork and mentoring, when done well, have been immensely beneficial to individuals and to organizations (Ragins & Verbos, 2007; Kniffin and Hanks, 2018).

Teamwork and mentoring are especially important in academia (Johnson, 2016; Kniffin and Hanks, 2018). Research has shown that doctoral students rely heavily on faculty mentors to provide professional development and socialization due to the absence of these formal mechanisms in most graduate programs (Margolis & Romero, 1998). Teamwork, especially in interdisciplinary science teams, has become more prevalent due to the increasing specialization of doctoral graduates and the value collaborations add to professional careers (Tebes and Thai, 2018). Mentoring and teamwork in academia both require effective shared behaviors, attitudes, and cognitions in order to ensure team satisfaction and performance (Hetty van Emmerick, 2008; Johnson, 2016; Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro, 2001). However, academic faculty are traditionally taught through a system of individual work, reward, and achievement that does not provide the social or behavioral professional development necessary to carry out effective mentoring or teamwork behaviors (Bohen & Stiles, 1998). Even so, faculty are expected to have the interpersonal skills necessary to effectively mentor doctoral students and collaborate on research.
projects (Betta, 2016; Tebes and Thai, 2018). How can faculty be expected to provide professional development that improves doctoral student mentoring and teamwork competencies when the faculty themselves have limited experience with either skill set (Bohen and Stiles, 1998)?

Doctoral education is an important process for developing human capital and is critical to the development of the modern world. Doctoral students are expected to become masters of their discipline and create knowledge and transform understanding through writing, teaching, and application (Craddock, Birnbaum, Rodriguez, Cobb, & Zeeh, 2011; Golde & Walker, 2006). These assumptions impose leadership expectations on doctoral graduates. However, leadership practitioners question whether current leadership development initiatives in collegiate environments are effective at preparing students to lead in the professional world, and that includes the ability to provide mentoring and to work effectively in teams (Posner, 2006).

Fortunately, the research shows that the constructs underlying effective mentoring and teamwork behaviors are similar and interconnected (Johnson, 2016; Varela & Mead, 2018). If a person possesses the skill and knowledge to work effectively in a team, they should also possess the skill to be an effective mentor. In this research synthesis, we propose that teamwork and mentoring are interconnected along social process dimensions where similar behaviors, cognitions, and attitudes are of paramount importance to both skill sets. Given the current emphasis placed on improving faculty-student mentoring outcomes and interdisciplinary team science in academia, it is logical to begin the search for a shared set of competencies between teamwork and mentoring so that both faculty and graduate students can be taught the necessary interpersonal behaviors required to excel in both areas (Lunsford et al, 2017). Within this context, a conceptual model of mentoring and teamwork is proposed that includes aspects of both supported in the literature.

**Review of related scholarship:**

**Mentoring**

In her seminal work, Kram (1985) thought of mentoring as an important relationship between an older, more experienced adult and a younger working adult that traditionally includes support, guidance, and counsel provided by the advanced adult for the subordinate adult’s career development. At the time, studies on mentoring demonstrated a multitude of functions associated with the relationship (Clawson, 1979; Levinson Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Kram (1985) identified and consolidated these various activities and skills into two primary categories of relevant functions that were typical of mentoring relationships. The first category included career functions which involve the parts of a professional relationship that improved career advancement. The second category encompassed psychosocial functions, which includes tasks that enhance competence, identity, and effectiveness of younger adults in their personal and professional lives (Kram, 1985). In academia, theories regarding effective mentoring behavior within these categories has been consistent in the last decade. Fleming et al. (2013) developed an instrument measuring six core competencies encompassing 26 individual behavioral skills that were necessary to be an effective research mentor. These skills are summarized in Table 1. The model only takes into account behavioral processes that impact the mentoring relationship. Later,
Johnson (2016) provided a similar list of functional abilities and competencies and discussed them in depth. Although Johnson’s (2016) wording is different, the competencies describe the same general functions, demonstrating that effective mentoring behaviors of academic mentors are relatively stable at this time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maintaining Effective Communication</th>
<th>Fostering Independence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>Motivating your mentees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing constructive feedback</td>
<td>Building mentees’ confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing a relationship based on trust</td>
<td>Stimulating your mentees’ creativity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accommodating different communication styles</td>
<td>Acknowledging mentee professional contributions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employing strategies to improve communication with mentees</td>
<td>Negotiating a path to professional independence with your mentees</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coordinating effectively other mentors</td>
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<th>Aligning Expectations</th>
<th>Promoting Professional Development</th>
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<tr>
<td>Set clear expectations for the relationship</td>
<td>Helping mentees network effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aligning expectations with your mentees’ expectations</td>
<td>Helping mentees set career goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considering how differences impact expectations</td>
<td>Helping mentees achieve work/life balance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working with mentees to set goals</td>
<td>Understanding impact as a role model</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop strategies to meet goals</td>
<td>Helping mentees acquire resources</td>
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<th>Assessing Understanding</th>
<th>Addressing Diversity</th>
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<tr>
<td>Estimating mentee level of knowledge</td>
<td>Accounting for biases and prejudices</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strategies to enhance mentee knowledge and abilities</td>
<td>Working effectively with mentees with different backgrounds</td>
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<tr>
<td>Estimating mentee research ability</td>
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Kram’s (1985) research suggested that the mentoring relationships also progress through stages that alter the likelihood, power, and frequency of career and psychosocial functions provided by mentors and received by mentees. The concept of mentoring stages has been important to the literature in that it provides a framework for how mentors and mentees relate to each other in a non-static model that explains why career and psychosocial functions provided by mentors to mentees can be different not only between individual and organizational contexts, but also by accounting for the passage of time (Kram, 1985). Despite years of research on mentoring, this original conceptualization has remained widely accepted in the current literature, and recent studies have shown that mentoring stages impact the type of mentoring delivered and how it is received by mentors and mentees (Chao, 1997, Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Kram (1985) described four stages: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. Initiation includes positive thoughts that create an environment that encourages an investment of time and positive energy in the relationship (Kram, 1985). Cultivation occurs when the mentee tests the expectations that emerge from this relationship. Once both parties have assessed the value of the relationship, psychosocial and career functions provided to the mentee peak during this phase. The third
phase, separation, involves high levels of anxiety as the mentee gains confidence and ability and strives to be more independent and autonomous. The final stage, redefinition, involves the final evolution of the relationship to that peers and can involve high levels of mutual professional respect and friendship, or termination of the relationship (Kram, 1985).

Mentoring functions also occur in three dimensions which exist on a continuum that include relational structure, working alliance, and social support (Johnson, Skinner, & Kaslow, 2014). As a mentoring relationship moves along this continuum, it becomes more or less reciprocal, and the mentor begins to offer an expanding or decreasing range of career and psychosocial support (Johnson, 2016). As a relationship grows stronger, the more likely a faculty will be defined as a mentor and intentionally promote the mentee’s professional development (Johnson et al., 2014). As both parties feel more engaged, mentors seek to inspire, model, encourage, and guide their mentees (Johnson, 2016). They may still do this with simple advice, as requested, but also seek to motivate mentees by revealing new and transformative pathways in their professional and personal lives (Sternberg, 2002). As mentees gain experience and become more mature, confident, and competent they will begin to outgrow the relationship and as that happens, they will desire a more collaborative reciprocal working alliance with their mentor (Wang, Tomlinson, & Noe, 2010).

A working alliance is a construct that depicts on how a mentor and mentee create alignment and work together to achieve shared goals (Gunn & Pistole, 2012). An effective working alliance should include a strong emotional connection between the mentor and the mentee, rapport, apprenticeship, and identification (Johnson et al., 2014). Research has suggested that the most salient variable contributing to the formation of a strong working alliance is psychological safety, as high levels of trust predict a stronger interpersonal connection between mentor and mentee (Wang, Tomlinson, & Noe, 2010). As trust grows and the working alliance becomes more transformational, the mentor and mentee form implicit “psychological contracts” that include relational obligations, such as loyalty and mutuality (Johnson, 2016). As mentoring relationships become more transformational, mentors provide more social support. Social support includes emotional support, appraisal support, informational support, and instrumental support (Higgins and Thomas, 2001). Once this final level of transformational relationship is achieved, the nature of the work conducted by the mentee will greatly improve, and the mentee will experience substantial personal and professional benefits in the short and long term (Johnson et al., 2014).

**Teamwork**

There are a number of definitions of a team, but the most relevant to this discussion came from the work of Alderfer (1977) and Hackman (1987), which stated that a team is at least two individuals who work interdependently on tasks, share responsibility in task outcomes, self-identify, and are seen by others to act as a social entity rooted in a larger organization (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Hare, 2010). Effective teams must be able to perform both taskwork and teamwork (Salas, Shuffler, Thayer, Bedwell, & Lazzare, 2015). Taskwork is the execution of tasks required for team goal accomplishment whereas teamwork is the shared behaviors, attitudes, and cognitions needed for teams to be successful (Salas et al., 2015). No level of taskwork ability can make up for the absence of effective teamwork processes (Salas et al., 2015).
Marks et al. (2001) determined that previous definitions of team processes from were too limited and developed a temporally based team processes framework. This framework included a separation of team process variables and classified constructs, such as collective efficacy and cohesion, as emergent. Emergent states are results of team behavioral experiences (such as building trust or team cohesion) and serve as inputs for future team outcomes. These inputs influence the execution of teamwork behaviors and then alter future emergent states in a constant cycle that continues until a team reaches a final outcome (Marks et al. 2001). Emergent states can vary frequently or remain stable over time depending on the history of the team and the type of emergent state. The temporal aspect of teamwork processes was included, because many episodes of team behavior are impacted by the consequences of previous team outcomes. Marks et al. (2001) identified ten behaviors (see table 2) and three different teamwork processes that led to emergent states. The three teamwork process categories included action phase processes, transition phase processes, and interpersonal processes (Marks et al., 2001).

Action phase processes included periods where teams engage in behaviors that lead directly to goal accomplishment (Marks et al., 2001). Transition phases occur when teams evaluate performance, conduct planning activities, and alter or determine new goals for mission accomplishment (Marks et al., 2001). Interpersonal phases occur during both transition and action phases and are necessary for those behaviors to be effective (Marks et al., 2001). Competence in these behaviors makes up the team’s capacity to combine its different backgrounds in an integrated method (Salas et al., 2015; Salazar et al., 2012). This combination of states, skills, and processes is referred to as integrative capacity, and it represents the groups’ ability to overcome compositional, team, and contextual obstacles that prevent the generation of new objective knowledge (Salazar et al. 2012).

Salazar et al. (2012) provided an ecological perspective of integrative capacity in research-based teams to demonstrate how compositional, environmental, and contextual factors influence teamwork. The ecological perspective of integrative capacity accounts for surface-level differences between team members and also higher order differences, such as knowledge, cultural, and social diversity, which have been shown to hinder knowledge integration (Harrison et al., 2002; Harrison & Klein, 2007). Knowledge integration, the final outcome of the model, requires teams to develop a shared model that addresses the problem in question, identifies team roles, and adapts communication processes to efficiently complete the project (Salazar et al. 2012; Salas et al. 2015). According to Kuhn’s (1962) seminal work, the social relationships and interpersonal mechanisms of scientists are essential to the process of knowledge creation. Without the moderating social processes, the chances of successful knowledge integration are critically reduced (Salas et al. 2015).

Raes, Kyndt, Decuyper, & Van den Bossche (2015) suggested that knowledge integration is only possible if teams progress through stages of development. Similar to mentoring, teamwork also has sequential stages of development that require certain behaviors and processes to be present. Early team interactions occur in a forming stage which includes group members trying to understand the nature of the task and the behaviors that are acceptable (Tuckman, 1965). The second phase is the storming stage, which includes group members engaging in conflict and resisting formation and structure (Tuckman, 1965). After the conflict of stage two, group members should develop trust which leads to the norming stage. This stage is characterized by
group members sharing personal characteristics and developing harmony with fellow members of the group and a renewed commitment to the shared task (Tuckman, 1965). The fourth phase, performing, includes an understanding of group and individual behavior and modifications to accomplish shared goals (Tuckman, 1965). The final phase is the adjourning stage, which can end in friendship or a simple termination of the relationship. Wheelan, Davidson, and Tilin (2003) suggest that only about 25% of teams successfully progress through these stages to reach their potential. This suggests that many teams do not practice effective behaviors that allow for the development of beneficial emergent states that lead to higher levels of team learning behavior and knowledge integration.

### Table 2: List of Effective Teamwork Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission analysis (transition)</td>
<td>Interpretation and evaluation of the mission, identification of main task, environmental conditions and team resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal specification (transition)</td>
<td>Identification and prioritization of goals and for mission accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy formulation and planning (transition)</td>
<td>Development of alternative courses of action for mission accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring progress towards goals (action)</td>
<td>Tracking progress, interpreting information regarding current goals, transmitting progress to team members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation monitoring (action)</td>
<td>Tracking team resources and environmental conditions; includes internal systems monitoring, and environmental monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team monitoring and backup behaviors (action)</td>
<td>Assisting team members - providing verbal feedback, behavioral assistance in carrying out, or assuming and completing a task for a teammate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination (action)</td>
<td>Orchestrating sequence and timing of interdependent group actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict management (interpersonal)</td>
<td>Preventing, controlling or guiding team conflict before it occurs, and working through task, process, and interpersonal disagreements among team members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating and confidence building (interpersonal)</td>
<td>Generating and preserving a sense of collective confidence, motivation, and task-based cohesion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect management (interpersonal)</td>
<td>Regulating member emotions including (but not limited to) social cohesion, frustration, and excitement</td>
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</table>
Description of Theoretical Approach:

The preceding literature review provides points of comparison and intersect between mentoring and teamwork theory. Both require certain processes, behaviors, attitudes, and cognitions in order to be effective. Mentoring has been shown to be a process that includes career, psychosocial, and relational functions that mirror the action, transition, and interpersonal functions necessary for effective teamwork (Marks et al., 2001; Ragins, 2012). Mentoring and teamwork were shown to include stages that change over time and both possess functions that act as inputs in temporally based models that lead to group outcomes. Although emergent states are not discussed in mentoring literature, we propose that this model is at work in both team and mentor relationships. Both mentoring and teamwork require trust, mutuality, and the development of shared models that require specific antecedent behaviors and processes in order to form (Johnson, 2016; Salazar et al., 2012). We also assume that knowledge integration is one of the final outcomes of both mentoring and team relationships. Literature shows us that emergent states required for knowledge integration in teamwork are similar to behavioral outcomes necessary for successful mentoring relationships (Johnson, 2016; Salazar et al., 2012). Given the connections that exist, we propose a combined model of mentoring and teamwork (see Figure 2).

**Figure 1: Overlapping Mentoring and Teamwork Competencies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mentoring Competencies</th>
<th>Combined Competencies</th>
<th>Teamwork Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promoting professional development</td>
<td>Maintaining effective communication</td>
<td>Monitoring progress towards goals</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team monitoring and backup behavior</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Conflict management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Affect management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Coordination</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Aligning expectations</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mission analysis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Goal specification</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Assessing understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy formulation and planning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Situation monitoring</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Fostering independence</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivating and confidence building</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Addressing diversity</td>
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The processes in this model are a combination of behaviors from previous mentoring and teamwork literature (see Figure 1). The primary mentoring and teamwork processes for this model were adapted from Varela and Mead (2018) and Fleming et al. (2013). The instruments developed by these researchers were found to have high validity and reliability in repeated testing. We examined the core behavioral processes necessary for effective teamwork and mentoring in order to detect similarities across contexts. Only one mentor and one teamwork
competency were excluded from the list of behaviors that we believed would be effective in both contexts.

**Figure 2: Combined model of Mentoring and Teamwork Competencies**

Maintaining effective communication includes behaviors such as providing feedback, pursuing strategies to improve communication, building trust and coordinating with other mentors (Fleming et al., 2013). These behaviors align with conflict and affect management, team monitoring and backup behavior, and coordination from teamwork literature (Varela & Mead, 2018). Aligning expectations includes skills such as setting expectations and developing strategies to meet goals which are similar to mission analysis and goal specification (Fleming et al. 2013; Varela and Mead 2018). Similarly, assessing understanding includes creating strategies to enhance skills, estimate abilities, and estimate knowledge (Fleming et al., 2013). Situation monitoring includes assessing internal team ability and strategy formulation and planning requires development of alternative courses of action which can only be done when team members and mentors have a good understanding of each other’s knowledge and abilities (Varela & Mead, 2018). Fostering independence includes building confidence and motivating mentees, which lines up perfectly with motivating and confidence building (Fleming et al., 2013; Varela and Mead 2018). Although addressing diversity doesn’t align with a specific teamwork behavior, is important in all group and team settings regardless of whether the relationship is a team or a mentoring relationship (Fleming et al., 2013; Salazar et al., 2012). Future research should be conducted to determine how similar these behaviors are across team and mentoring
contexts, but a simple analysis of the operationalization of these terms provided in the literature suggests significant overlap.

In this model we presume that cognitive integration is only possible as mentoring relationships and teams move through progressively higher stages of development. Higher stages of development require positive emergent states in both mentoring and teamwork relationships. Therefore, failed teamwork or mentoring processes that produce negative emergent states like lack of trust will prevent the group from advancing to a higher stages of group development. These negative emergent states will then impact future teamwork and mentoring processes making future positive emergent states more difficult to achieve. Groups that can achieve successful outcomes will receive positive feedback that should continue to support group development at a high level and help to ensure effective teamwork and mentoring processes that generate positive emergent states.

**Future research:**

Despite the immense popularity and general agreement regarding their importance, mentoring and teamwork have rarely been researched together (Janssen, Tahitu, van Vuuren, de Jong, 2018). However, both constructs possess similar elements and seem to overlap significantly. Perhaps more interesting for future research, these relationships have significant impact on each other. Ineffective teamwork processes can prevent mentoring relationships from becoming transformational and reciprocal. Ineffective mentoring relationships can create stressful environments without trust that inhibit effective teamwork processes. In addition, transformational and highly dysfunctional mentoring relationships have the capacity to greatly enhance or disrupt teams connected by organizational social networks. How these two constructs are connected and how they influence each other provide researchers an incredible breadth of future topics to investigate in order to better understand the nature of both teamwork and mentoring. The most important direction for research may be to verify the underlying set of competencies that are essential to the success of both mentoring and teamwork for the purposes of more efficient leadership education.

**Conclusion:**

Mentoring and teamwork are universally important leadership behaviors, but few are trained to be effective in both competency areas. Mentoring and teamwork both provide career benefits, improve relationships at work, improve performance and satisfaction, and rely on similar social-behavioral interactions that require emotional intelligence, mutuality, trust, and authenticity (Hetty van Emmerick, 2008). Effective mentoring and teamwork include similar behaviors, especially along interpersonal dimensions, where “people smarts” and emotional intelligence have been of paramount importance to both skill sets. The goal of this research synthesis was to suggest a shared set of teamwork and mentoring competencies that lead to effective teamwork skills and the ability to form strong reciprocal mentoring relationships. The end goal would be to generate leadership education that could provide guidance for leaders across sectors that will inevitably need to practice both behaviors.
References:


What leaders can learn from a fresh look at the ancient philosophy of Stoicism

Abstract

Stoicism is often negatively referenced in articles addressing emotional intelligence. Modern-day authors claim being stoic means expressing no emotion, the act of being emotionless (Grewal & Salovey, 2005; Vorster, 2017). Yet, as we find ourselves in a volatile and uncertain world with no easy solutions, it seems appropriate to revisit a philosophy cited by leaders who attribute Stoicism with overcoming adversity, promoting resilience and a sensitivity to others. In the researcher’s initial examination of Stoic doctrines there are indications that much is to be gained for leadership education. Most significantly is the proper correlation of Stoicism and emotion, but beyond that, we see lessons in decision-making, critical thinking, and followership to name a few. While an immediate and succinct understanding of the philosophy can be challenging due to lack of original works, a more in-depth examination is justified to examine an ideology that provided comfort to ancient Romans in turbulent times (Sandbach, 1989). This roundtable serves to start a conversation for leadership educators to share their own interpretations on the topic and participate in a discussion: Can a fresh look at Stoicism introduce opportunities for leadership educators?

Introduction

Stoicism is often negatively referenced in emotional intelligence articles and portrayed as the emotionless alternative to be avoided in leadership (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). A brief review of recent literature reveals misleading generalizations, claiming the philosophy itself endorses the notion that emotions are too irrational and unpredictable to be used for rational thought (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). The Oxford Dictionary cites stoicism as, “austerity, repression of feeling and fortitude” (Sellars, 2014, p. 1). This numbing of emotion in response to adversity is a common theme and misinterpretation of the intention of the philosophy over the past two centuries. In revisiting the original teachings of Stoicism’s early founders, it is clear the doctrines have been watered down over time. At its core, Stoicism grounds itself in a basic understanding that man is a part of nature and interconnected to all things. Man’s main purpose is to embody one’s position within a greater system and through the lens of accepting what is and is not in our control, pursue a good and virtuous life. This mindset does not reduce one’s ability to exercise free-will; far from it, Stoicism openly addresses choice and bases its doctrines on executing daily practices related to self-awareness and decision making that promote being the best you can be. As a member of a natural order, death is inevitable, therefore emphasizing a focus on the present moment, living fully for today.

Background

Much like the original Greek philosophies that focused on providing a foundation for the best possible human life, Stoicism was born of the Hellenistic period that gave way to philosophical sects that an individual could accept as a whole and were designed to explain the world in its totality (Aurelius, 2002). For Stoic expert John Sellars (2006), “Stoic philosophy is not merely a series of philosophical claims about the nature of the world or what we can know or what is right or wrong; it is above all an attitude or way of life” (p. 2). Stoics believe that all
living beings are interconnected, born of nature, and a part of a cosmic order implemented by Zeus, God, reason, mind or fate. Human beings hold a unique dignified status as rational beings, and share the innate capacity for goodness. For the Stoics, man is meant to live in pursuit of a good life and rationally perceive the irrelevance of external goods and circumstances not born of nature in that pursuit (Long, 2002, Sandbach, 1989). They argued that our negative emotions are merely the product of mistaken judgements and can be eradicated by practiced response management. The key was reminding oneself that the desire for things out of our control are not in-sync with the plan (Gass, 2000, Sellars, 2012).

Epictetus, a founding Stoic thought leader, established three doctrines for the pursuit of a happy life: the discipline of desire, the discipline of action, and the discipline of assent (Sesson, 2006). These guiding principles are often cited in modern day works as a means to live the Stoic way – having a proper perspective of self in relation to the world and understanding what you can and cannot control (Holiday 2016, Pigliucci & Lopez, 2019). The discipline of desire addresses monitoring that which is desired by an individual so the appropriate course of action can be determined. Our passions, when well exercised, have wisdom; they guide our thinking, our survival. But they can easily go awry and do so all too often. As Aristotle saw, the problem is not with emotionality, but with the appropriateness of emotion and its expression (Goleman, 2006). The discipline of action calls attention to what we do in order to successfully fulfill those roles. This action is the participation in the logos while striving for excellence, and living virtuously (Aurelius, 2002, Sesson, 2006). The only thing that can be controlled are our own actions, so it is key to stay focused on those actions themselves. Finally, the discipline of assent defines the moment of contemplation following an impression where man asks “is this what it really is” and “what does it have to do with me” (Sesson, 2006). In Epictetus’ Discourses, he states “Just as Socrates used to say that we are not to lead an unexamined life, so neither are we to accept an unexamined impression, but to say, ‘Stop, let me see what you are, and where you come from’” (Sesson, 2006, p. 18). This moment of pause frees us from deception or misinterpretation and creates room to properly choose a response over reaction.

Leadership specifically has much to gain from the Stoic mindset particularly with regard to emotional intelligence, decision-making, followership, and resilience. “Throughout its history primarily offered was a systematic plan of life that would, ideally, assure purposefulness, serenity, dignity, and social utility at every waking moment, irrespective of external circumstances” (Long, 2002, p. 3). The Stoics encourage individuals to build a community of persons who cooperate and respect one another “as rational participants in the scheme of things” (Long, 2002, p.16). By adopting Stoic perspectives, leaders can see the role they play and their influence within it. Combined with the discipline of assent this establishes a mindset aptly prepared to respond to adverse situations.

Great leadership works through emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002). Taking into consideration that suppressing emotion is Stoicism’s current standing in leadership doctrine, it seems fitting to address this distinction head on. Kramer, Page, and Klemic (2019) remind us that even today our leaders need the ability to apply emotional intelligence in a variety of situations (individual, dyad, team, etc.), and in an ever-widening array of cultural and environmental settings. Goleman (2006) directly presents the question to his readers of Emotional Intelligence how we can bring awareness into our emotions. Stoic doctrines provides an approach to this challenge as explained by the use of impressions, self-awareness, and the discipline of assent. Within the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) we know that Emotional Intelligence is the capacity for: recognizing our own feelings and those of others,
motivating ourselves, and managing emotions effectively in ourselves and others (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007). The discipline of desire directly addresses a mentality to recognize one’s own emotions. Secondly, self-motivation is a product of one’s interconnectedness of all things and our own desire for self-preservation from our primitive behavior as a member of nature (Sellars, 2006, Sesson, 2006). Finally, managing emotions effectively is best explained through the discipline of assent when a decision is made upon agreeing with one’s interpretations of their emotions. This connection between Stoic doctrine and leadership practice is only through an initial assessment. Further exploration and research is necessary to solidify this idea and examine other potential connections between the two fields.

Primary Objectives of Presentation

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to start a conversation with leadership educators on the perceptions of Stoicism, as well as contribute initial insights from researching findings thus far. The researcher is looking to connect with others who find the topic interesting to gain a better understanding of limitations and opportunities within the leadership education field. Are professionals curious, disinterested, or already aware of the philosophy of Stoicism and its potential offerings for leadership education?

Foreseeable Implications

The Inter-association of Leadership Education Collaborative (ILEC) challenges leadership educators to reconsider the thinking, attitudes, and behaviors of our field with a disciplinary revolution (Association of Leadership Educators, 2016). As members of the ILEC, the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) has the potential to explore interdisciplinary work within the ancient body of philosophy that is Stoicism. Through the initial examination of Stoicism connections to current leadership areas such as emotional intelligence, followership, risk-taking, and critical thinking and decision-making skills are suggested. Continued research may reveal additional opportunities for leadership educators to draw on an ancient philosophy to support teaching leadership traits and behaviors.

Teaching leadership requires making a link between theory and practice (Association of Leadership Educators, 2019). Stoicism was founded as an approach to life and has been used by many individuals – from Roman Emperor Marcus Aurelius to Silicon Valley tech giants - as a guide for behaviors and actions in turbulent times (Irvine, 2019). Stoic doctrines offer leadership educators a resource to explain leadership behaviors and a potential guide to the process of leadership. The philosophy serves to compliment current research, offering an additional and diverse inquiry for leadership practice over thousands of years. As leadership educators who are committed to collaboration, diversity, and integration, the ancient philosophy poses a strong addition to current research.
References


https://www.tei.org.za/index.php/component/search/?searchword=stoic&searchphrase=all&Itemid=182
The Evolution of Inclusive Leadership Studies: A Literature Review

Herb Thompson

*University of Nebraska Omaha*

Gina Matkin

*University of Nebraska - Lincoln*

**Abstract**

The dramatic increase of diversity on US college campuses has coincided with greater academic interest on the concept of inclusive leadership. The present literature provides a systematic analysis of literature from its forming phases in the early 1990s to its present condition. Priority publications were selected rigorously and then examined in order to better determine what theoretical emphasis each of the three decades might have yielded and which what these studies reveal about the evolution of this relatively new leadership paradigm. From the review themes were identified and observations were made for future research purposes.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the *Journal of Leadership Education*. 
Abstract

Leadership development suffers a plethora of problems: complexity, competitiveness, volatile contexts, pressured stakeholders and unmet needs only start to express the challenges. These issues can be summarized as the meta-problem for leadership development: How to navigate the territory? How can a student of leadership, a middle manager, a L&D specialist or a CLO plot a pathway through such a confusing landscape? The Prometheus Project initiated a cross-disciplinary research team to conceptualize a framework that addresses this meta-problem. This paper describes our method, introduces and discusses the resulting framework, and asserts recommendations for expanding the circle of consent for a clear framework for developing the capacities and skills of leadership.

Introduction

Barbra Kellerman summarizes the state of leadership research and practice in direct language; “there is a lot of stuff out there that is less than wonderful” (in Volkmann, 2012).

She is not alone in her opinion.

A CEC\(^1\) report (2017) noted a profound conceptual confusion about leadership and leadership development. Veldsman and Johnson (2016) write: “To the best of our knowledge, no overall, systemic, integrated and holistic view of leadership exists, and few organizations adopt a systemic, integrated approach to leadership” (p. 2). Likewise, Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall, and Osland (2017) summarize that the research literature in this field has lacked a coherent and agreed upon classification scheme that helps scholars to clearly describe their research samples, compare and contrast their research contexts and findings with other studies and contribute towards a cumulative and growing body of knowledge about the predictors, correlates and outcomes of global leadership. (p. 564)

Moldoveanu and Narayandas (2019) identify underpinnings of this confusion related to conflicting motivations, a gap between leadership skills and the actual needs of organizations and incomplete learning cycles, in that skills taught are not transferred or applied.

These issues suggest structural shifts in leadership development as an adaptive problem rather than a technical one (Heifetz, 1994, Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Fritz, 1989). Continuing to spend time and effort with conventional resources are not likely to adequately address these issues and may in fact exacerbate the problem. Rather, a structural shift and alternative approach is necessary to see systematically different results. To this end, the concept of The Prometheus Project was conceived on a sunny July day in Barcelona, 2018.

The Prometheus Project recognized the adaptive nature of its challenges and set a goal to define a navigational framework for leadership and leadership development that is simple, valid and generalizable for any stakeholders, contributors or sponsors of leadership development. For this, we formed a diverse team of researchers to undertake the challenge of answering this question:

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\(^1\) CEC is an association representing about one million European managers. [https://www.cec-managers.org/](https://www.cec-managers.org/)
What would a usable proof of concept for such a framework look like? This paper outlines the theoretical background, method of development, framework and key perspectives involved, as well as recommendations arising from the process.

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The theoretical lenses we used to address this broad field of inquiry crossed all of the domains with which leadership stakeholders might be engaged and from which learning objectives and strategies might be defined. The domains that bound our inquiry, therefore, included leadership theory and practice, learning, pedagogy, and the development of the adult person; and the development of skills and experience in the leadership context.

Leader Development

Day, Harrison and Halpin’s (2009) approach to leadership development integrates adult cognitive development theory with the areas of leadership identity and expertise that “appl[ies] to leader development across a wide spectrum of organizations” (p. 4). They note that leadership development implies growth, or change, over time and “includes topics such as personal trajectories, growth modeling, lag times, end states, and a whole host of other related topics [that have] to be as much about development as leadership” (p. 5).

Drawing on Fischer’s (1980) dynamic skill theory, Day et al. talk about leadership development in terms of “a web with different strands that have varied development trajectories depending on different contextual influences” (Day et al., 2009, p. 220). They highlight the supporting structures that enable competency acquisition, leader identity formation, and the process of identity formation that is supported by adult development. They propose that “the development of complex multifaceted leadership competencies is supported by a web of adult development that is dynamic and nonlinear in nature” (p. 221). The result is a systemic view of supporting leader development over the course of an entire lifetime.

This conceptualization is further elaborated in Day and Dragoni’s (2015) review of leadership development research. They identify four key indicators necessary for leadership development; leadership self-efficacy; self-awareness; leader identity; and leadership knowledge, skills and competencies. Work across these has proximal effects (e.g. more dynamic skills) and distal effects (e.g. meaning-making structures and processes).

Leadership Context and Process

Drath et al. (2008) argue for moving away from an ontological orientation of a leader, followers and a common goal (Bennis, 2007) and towards a process orientation. This means that any activity that contributes to direction, alignment and commitment (DAC), can be viewed as an act of leadership. Similar sets of distinctions for leadership can be found in Heifetz’s (1994) model of adaptive leadership and Grint’s (2005, 2010) approach to matching leadership to context.

We have framed leadership as an attribute of the person, not a role or a position in the hierarchy. Leading is thus applicable to any person given a match to their context. More complex contexts
require more complex capacities. Building those capacities is a life-long journey which can start at a young age. Navigation through development is unceasing, as outlined in Vaill’s (1996) discussion about learning to navigate the *permanent whitewater* of modern leadership challenges.

Contextualization is critical to the action of leadership, assessing the type of leadership that is required in-the-moment, or from a CLO’s standpoint, what is required for a given learner over a given timeframe. A useful example of contextualization can be found in Snowden’s (2007) model of decision-making. His Cynefin model describes a heuristic for helping identify the type of context one is in. On one hand, there are more predictable, either simple or complicated contexts. On the other hand, there are unpredictable, either complex or chaotic contexts, which are likely to increase over the advance of technology. Recognizing the context, leaders can employ a variety of aids to navigate their decision-making and interventions.

**Development Strategy**

The third research contextual theme was the cadence for development across the lifetime of leaders, while maintaining enough flexibility to adapt to new insights and unexpected challenges in an organization. The final framework should also maintain utility these complex challenges.

Stage-based interpretations of leadership (e.g. Kegan and Lahey, 2016; Torbert & Associates, 2004; Joiner and Josephs, 2007; Kuhnert and Lewis, 2006) spotlight a significant practical problem. These models all note that very few people, perhaps no more than 2-5% of the population, ever achieve the highest levels of adult development, which are found to correlate with leadership having the capacity to best address the most complex challenges. Collins (2007) writes that only 12 of the 14,000 leaders he observed reached his criteria for a Level Five leader. The development process to these higher levels takes long, is costly, and too risky for many companies experiencing the war for talent, job-hopping, and disruptive phenomena of the modern and future world.

Secondly, organizations must be able to map the leadership competencies of job-hoppers, new members, and joint-venture members, so they can rapidly place them and use them appropriately.

Thirdly, with a limited supply of high-functioning members and the unpredictable and emergent demand for high-challenge, there are likely to be even more frequent mismatch conditions between individual leaders and their contexts,

Therefore both the leadership capabilities framework and the development strategy should allow for flexibility in development AND in leaders’ responses suitable to their context.

*Development* will maintain two complementary but distinct practices – long-term and just-in-time. Long-term development involves the life-long navigation of individuals with the potential goal of reaching the high levels of leadership outlined in stage-based models. For long-term development this to be useful, three things need to happen. The locus of long-term development cannot only be with the organization. Members must be able to plan their own developmental journey and take it with them as they change organizations. Lastly, objectives for development
need to encompass an assumption of flexibility and agility about who a leader is and leadership itself.

Just-in-time development, which includes a conventional approach to use teachable moments as learning contexts, will have to encompasses full-cycles of learning as described in Dawson and Stein (2011) and continuous incremental development, as described in Kegan (2006). Turning conventional strategy on its side, just-in-time deployment, relates to the possibility of an organization being able to select and rapidly deploy contextually appropriate leadership teams to emerging leadership challenges, and a concept we have dubbed spiky leadership, where a much greater emphasis is given on collective leadership capacity that can be realized through the aggregation of individual ‘spikes’ of talent or competency into co-leadership teams that are creatively selected, deployed and dissolved as and when needed.

Methodology

Mortimer Adler was faced with a similar dilemma to ours in the field of western philosophy, which spurred a lifetime of scholarship. When faced with the problem of existing terms being irreconcilable, Adler (1967) postulates a necessary re-synthesis of topics in a process he calls “syntopical analysis” and “coming to terms.” Literally, the process of choosing the best representative terms across complex diversity.

Constructivist Grounded Theory

Our “coming-to-terms” research was designed as Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT) (Bryant, 2017 & 2009; Charmaz, 2000; Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Mills, et.al., 2006; Thornburg & Charmaz, 2010).

Bryant (2017) asserted that insightful research is often dependent on adopting one or more methods complementary to their specific project and context. Our CGT adopts contemporary deliberative practices of Collective Intelligence (Engle, et al., 2014), Lateral Thinking (De Bono & Zimbali, 1970) and Creative Problem Solving (Treffinger, 2005).

Bryant also asserts that CGT is often quite varied in its details, yet should be consistent to its core principles. In an interview late in his life, Strauss, one of the founders of the Grounded Theory methods, identified three elements necessary to meet Grounded Theory requirement (Legewie & Schervier-Legewie, 2004). Our research intentionally addressed each of these:

- Theoretical sensitive coding. This means that there is a strong instinct and capacity to ‘listen’ to the essential stories underlying the ground, and to construct useful parts to be used in sense-making and organization of the ground (data).
- Theoretical sampling. This means choices of data are well considered to advance the learning and creative formation spiral.
- Comparison. Choices for what to compare are fearless so as to stretch the theories, test them, sharpen thinking, and cull bias.

The mechanics of CGT have been described as a spiral (Mills et al., 2006) of learning and discovery that materialize with many variants. Our spiral is expressed as:
• **Green-field.** Theorizing as much as feasible without bias or pre-condition of existing structures.
• **Sample.** Data choice and acquisition, which can be any kind of source or medium that is chosen to inform the theoretical process.
• **Conceptualize.** Building the linguistic components, from which an overall theory will be constructed, technically referred to as coding.
• **Frame.** Positing exploratory and partial concepts and segments of theory, technically referred to as memoing.
• **Form.** Expanding or synthesizing a more integrated theory or model.
• **Test and Compare.** Constant comparing and lateral thinking to cull out bias, pre-conception and refine thinking and articulation of the theory.

While inductive and deductive reasoning are prevalent as part of the creative process (Treffinger, 2006), CGT especially emphasizes the essential process of **abductive reasoning** in which the theorist creates the simplest and most likely explanation for making sense of the grounded observations. This result is ‘plausible and useful’ (Bryant, 2009, np) but is qualified as uncertain or provisional pending experience and confirmation in use.

How do you know how flexible your process mechanics should be? CGT practitioners consistently remind us that the **principles** of the process are primary to the **mechanics**. Balancing orthodoxy with the pragmatic, if your sources are reams of paper, emails or physical evidence, then meticulous tagging and organization are a pragmatic requirement to make sense of the data. In our methods we adjust to the age of virtual communication and collaboration, and leverage the practices and technical tools to expose our primary, secondary and tacit knowledge into discrete parts. We were intentional, conscious and methodical, but also agile and pragmatic.

How do you know when you are done with spiraling? Following Eisenhardt (1989), our perspective is that you are sufficiently done when you have consistent experience as you test and compare. In other words, “we have seen this before” or “this fits well.” Interdisciplinary comparisons led us to conclude sufficient consistency to warrant a release of the framework, opening further experience and confirmation in practice and research.

**Data Choice and Theoretical Sampling**

Our data and theoretical sampling included three classes of sources. First, the intentionally diverse experience of the research team. Second, a selected extended reference group to provide feedback for bias and critical thinking. Lastly, published and unpublished scholarly work, selected based on preliminary rounds of analysis (see below).

The analytical team members hold two PhDs and three Masters, have decades of practice in leadership development, education, business transformation, coaching, training. They have depth of knowledge across disciplines and roles in the leadership development context and have methodology experience with dissertation chair and committee experience. Members were located from Asia, Europe and North America. All are English speakers.
The extended reference group included some who were ancillary resources. In other cases, these resources represented specialization that we targeted for exploration.

A cross-disciplinary theoretical comparison included; learning objectives and processes in Learning Theory, from Bloom (1956) through Gagné (1985) to Dawson and Stein (2011), psycho-therapeutic development objectives synthesized across the major psycho-therapeutic disciplines by Basshes & Mascolo (2009), leadership development practice from the US Army, (e.g. (Day et al., 2009)) whose programs range from the ranks to top echelons (Gavin & Watson, 2019), executive leadership education from Moldoveanu & Narayandas (2019) and finally, leadership assessment models of Anderson & Adams (2016) and Warren (2017) which infer leadership attributes and developmental factors from observed traits.

**Pedagogical Considerations**

Pedagogical learning objectives and pedagogical sequence were weighed to support the clustering phases and the cohesiveness of the framework groupings. The framework is intended to facilitate setting and sequencing learning goals and objectives from general to detail/micro-learning and from fundamental to advanced development objectives.

**Theory Finalization**

Comparisons and refinement are a key part of meta-framework finalization. To this end, each team member applied the framework in small field-tests or reviewed the framework with peer advisors and experts to gauge any indications of change or refinements. In addition to the peer/expert feedback, the frameworks’ systems and subsystems were cross referenced to a sample of independently defined inventories of leadership development and curriculum subjects from public and private executive development programs. Notably, we leveraged the extensive anthologies of leadership knowledge from Bass (2008) and Nohria & Khurana (2010) to confirm the grounded field of our consideration and inform design choices.

In finalizing the framework, the structure evolved from an initial three to five and then six meta-categories identified as leadership systems and spanning the whole of the leadership phenomenon (figure 1). The same process was used to further divide these system categories into a second level of detail sub-systems (figure 1). We held a constraint of no more than five of these subsystems in each of the six level meta-categories. This constraint was not easily fulfilled, but ultimately led to satisfying abstractions that can have resonance across the stakeholder spectrum, from academic, to clinical to popular consumption.

This research did consider many samples to form a hypothesis of the nature and composition of a third level of detail in the framework. But we did not attempt an inventory and organization of the large number of leadership topics that fit into level 3 and defer this to further research. However, we did define this as a level in the framework.

In conclusion, this release of the framework meets its goal of providing simple, valid and generalizable (useful) meaning-making that can open communication and hold focus on these complex topics which are otherwise often deflected or bogged-down. Our goal is a semi-stable
standard reference that is usable by all stakeholders and that allows orderly evolution. We invite engagement and refinement as we expand the circle of contributors and the complexities of the Level 2 and 3 domains, what Kockelman et al. (2007) refer to as flexibility and accountability.

Results

The results are expressed as the Prometheus Leadership Commons™ framework (PLC):
- “Prometheus” because it represents “forethought,” the Greek archetypal meaning.
- “Leadership” because this is the concept that we wish to unchain and maintain.
- “Commons” because, even as it is facilitated and governed by a central organizing group, it will become a shared open-source resource for all stakeholders’ uses.

The PLC is structured in ‘levels’, with the highest level as the most generalized and supported by additional details in level 2 and level 3, respectively. There is also a construct of level 0, which acts as a reference frame between the PLC and other disciplines.

Level 1 and Level 2

The heart of the framework is level 1 and level 2, shown together as nested categories and sub-categories immediately below (figure 1).

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Figure 1. Prometheus framework core levels 1 and 2.
In level 1, there are six domains that each represent a meta-category, or system. Categories A, B, and C are personal capacities of leadership. Categories X and Y are skills adaptive to engaging in contexts of leading relationship or task. Category Z are the skills adaptive to the action of leading.

In level 2 there are 4 or 5 subsystems for each of the level 1 systems; a total of 29 overall. Examples of the subsystem level include one-to-one engagement skillsets vs. the skills to engage in groups.

The level 2 sub-systems are defined with sequence and complexity in mind, where more advanced or complex skills can be prioritized differently. The above two subsystems (one-one and group) also illustrate a sequence relationship, where mastery of the former is a substantial prerequisite for the later.

Reading figure 1, it is natural to read from upper left to lower right. We recommend also reading from the lower right. Starting from LEAD RESULT can offer the perspective of performing as a leader and asking how your skills and inner capacities serve or derail the action of leading. Walking backwards through the level, then brings you to each of the level 1 or level 2 domains that are more clear areas for exploration as development goals and objectives. This walk-back might be facilitated by developmental assessment techniques or mentors.

**Level 3**

Level 3 is reserved for the many constructs of leadership capacities and skills that are the elements typically found in most popular, business, and some academic content.

We provisionally classify the elements for level 3 as topics or composites; topics being made up of single subjects that are seen as first-order constructs used for higher-level abstractions as well as for assembly into composite elements and composites being compound and complex attributes of leadership that span the level 1 and level 2 systems.

The PLC design acknowledges these vast topics and constructs in the knowledge-sphere of leadership. The sheer numbers, and the absence of an aligning or comparative framework, make

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2 The most unique category (relative to comparative frameworks) is a focus on the Capacity to LOVE (to be gracious or serving) and is the ‘object’ of our self-consciousness in contrast to the Capacity to BE as ‘subject’.  
3 We observe that many resources on leadership express differences in practice or types of leaders, but not as frequently express the act of leading. In the PLC LEAD RESULTS domain, the processes of leading are present with the skills and capacities brought to leading. The domain is a synthesis of the essential practice of leading from well-researched models including Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz, 1994), Change Leadership (Kotter, 1999), social anthropology concepts of agency (Kockelman, 2007), leading practices of Drath (2008), and learning cycles of Dawson and Stein (2011).  
4 There are some PLC sub-systems that may stand out against convention. These include a category for collective transpersonal identity which may include spiritual traditions, physical capacity that includes connection to the idea of personal energy fields, instinct and intuition as a component of intelligence, inclusion of business or technical domain knowledge as a leadership attribute, the reality of people, culture and power as a context, and the identification of love as a leadership capacity.  
5 An example of a composite element may be the popular concept of “grit,” which may be composed of topical elements such as emotional maturity, persistence, goals setting and holding dedication to principles.
these difficult to adopt and integrate. These topics and constructs were the research ground used to conceptualize the meta-structures of the PLC. Organizing or cataloguing these further, articulating explicit relationships, and sorting the more valuable from the questionable, will be explored in further research and in The Prometheus Projects’ structured communities and initiatives.

**Level 0**

The PCL research included cross-discipline comparison as well as developmental theory. The comparisons and the observations that we made were fundamental to the analysis process, and yet we also recognized that they have usefulness even though they are not explicitly part of the PLC framework. Therefore, we provide these as “prompts” in level 0 (figure 2).

**Figure 2. Prometheus framework’s contextual framing level 0.**

**Discussion**

We regretfully but necessarily limit the scope of our discussion to two key issues; language and assessment and navigation.

**Language**

The framework is intended to help you navigate the complexity of leadership and leadership development. It helps you to answer the questions: What part of leading are we talking about?

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7 A use-case example: I have a series of proposals (internal or external) for program content such as ‘resilience’, ‘coaching’ ‘grit’, ‘emotional intelligence’ or ‘engagement’. How do they fit into the rest of my program? Should we adopt them all? How will we (and the trainees) reconcile all of the topics and the language that is used? How have
What part of leading are we observing? What part of leading does this program address or not address? What do executive leaders and front-line leaders have in common and what distinguishes their leadership capacity?

The language used for the framework has to be pragmatic in these ways: first, to be sufficient for consent by a wide spectrum of stakeholders; second, to allow for sensible use in everyday language in any context; third, to allow for flexibility and orderly evolution.

We have chosen single terms for the framework so that they can be used in conversation and writing. Since no single term can be perfect (literally, one term could not do the underlying meaning justice), there is room reserved for alternatives and aliases. To borrow from Waterman and Peters (1982), the language of leading and development requires ‘simultaneous loose-tight properties.’ The right terms should fit the context, but without losing the rich meaning in the minds of the stakeholders.

We use the term “capacity” to represent the personal resources to “BE”, “KNOW” and “LOVE” at the levels of maturity or complexity that match their circumstances. However, leading is also about using contextually appropriate “skills” to reach an outcome and follow Fischer’s (1980) conception of skill as “the capacity to act in an organized way in a specific context. Skills are thus action-based and context specific” (Mascolo & Fischer, 2010, p. 321).

Assessment and Navigation

Navigating the framework to build leadership capacities or skills raises the topics of assessment, and the following questions: How can a person find their location within the framework? How can they use it to determine how to further engage in their journey?

The framework is a real-world example of Piaget’s (1970) concepts of epistemological and cognitive structures, and of the hierarchical complexity of task accomplishment (Commons, Trudeau, Stein, Richards, & Krause, 1998). In other words, the framework serves as the mental structures to navigate the objectives for learning as well as to navigate the steps of learning-cycle paths:

a) Orient oneself in terms of the skills and capacities across the framework.
b) Formulate and prioritize specific intentions for learning goals or objectives.
c) Gain suitable information, explore and observe.
d) Experiment through practice in context.
e) Reflect on experience to connect new internalization or knowledge.
f) Revise goals and iterate the cycle.

This type of learning is exemplified by the learning cycle models of Dawson and Stein (2011). And, adopting the perspective of continuous improvement practices, this action-reflection
process generates micro adjustments enabling a robust and agile acquisition of the new level of performance capacity or skill.

Recommendations

From the development process of the PLC framework and considering the discussion items above, we outline four recommendations: additional research, reciprocal sensitivity, governance and assumptions.

Additional Research

Additional research might delineate the criteria that form the boundaries and inter-relationships between level 1 and 2 domains. We invite this additional delineation and assert that its exploration will be most effective comparing the detail topics and constructs of level 3.

As more detail is deployed and organized at level 3, there will be constructs to use for more pedagogical sequencing and individual learning protocols. Guidelines for navigating pedagogical strategies, objectives and methods in this context is a further goal of the project. This is a manageable effort with sufficient supporting structures and professional representation. With regard to this, we have initiated broader engagement through the continuing programs and we make recommendations related to a variety of these challenges.

Reciprocal Sensitivity

The PLC is sensitive to the inevitable plurality of language and diversity of knowledge in the globalized world. We are respectful of contemporary ideas and the depth of work in theories and models that pre-existed today's discourse. Unrecognized differences, personal tendency to fix perspectives, familiar or past context cannot and should not be discounted, even if they seem challenging, clumsy or outdated. Consequently, the evolution of the framework must strike an elegant balance between useful theories of the past and multi-cultural sensitivities and new knowledge of the present. From this, it is our recommendation (and a principle of operation for us) that the framework is not meant to dominate or over-take other constructs but with align them and increase approachability for them across the whole of the range of stakeholders.

Governance

Deft choices of governance will be critical to the adoptive challenge of a common accessible leadership framework. Its evolution cannot be dominated by one community, discipline, profession, economic class or culture. We recommend that there be a governance composition and process that represents the best aspects of a purpose driven community, using collective intelligence, innovation and design-thinking principles and practices.

8 We have opened a way to engage in stakeholders’ collaboration through additional Prometheus Project initiatives of We Lead Global and The Clear Council, For more information please go to www.weweaglobal.info.
Assumptions

Finally, there will be continuing attention to cultural adaptive change. For example, we have repeated experience speaking to executives who are impatient with program recommendations from mainstream leadership sources. We also notice how the capabilities required to be an individual leader are idealized by both individual and social norms. Sponsors of leadership development are holding a hidden assumption of the leader as an uber-influencer and a flawless super-hero. We recommend the combination of governance, practitioner, sponsoring and professional bodies to explicitly place this shift from a positional super-hero model of leadership to a model of leadership as a process involving humble collections of humanly flawed yet spikily talented people. We assert that these and other cultural assumptions are severely limiting and stand to be overturned.

Conclusion

Speaking about the demands of leading in today’s complex contexts, John S. Kem, (Major General, U.S. Army War College, who led the US Army officer leadership development programs) says it well: “the environment rewards clarity and punishes those who wait for certainty” (in the forward Gavin & Watson, 2019, np).

This quote epitomizes the imperative for leading in complexity. Therefore, since we are collectively leading the field and practices of leadership development, our priority must be to create and consent to a clear framework of the very capacities that we want to develop.

Naturally, some are disposed to wait for more confirmations; however leaders must create sufficient information for action. Reiche (2019) writes of the phenomena of the Fear of Better Options (FOBO) that also applies to leadership, where consent and action are wrongly withheld in deference to diffusion of efforts or paralyzing detail. Often, there is sufficient knowledge for consent to action and attention to learning.

To reach the point of our collective ambition, where leadership is understood, accessible, and normalized, then we must engage in adaptive work that is fueled from collective knowledge and collective influence.

This is why we are advocating two continuing structures, the engagement of a larger circle of stakeholders through We Lead Global, and the open, diverse, independent governance for The Prometheus Project, aptly named The Clear Council.

We invite you to join us on this adventure!
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Developing a Behaviorally Anchored Assessment for Critical Thinking: Becoming the QUEEN

Abstract

As leadership educators, we know one of the moral purposes of education is to help students develop essential skills, such as leadership, communication, and critical thinking, to prepare them to lead after college. We also have experience with self-reported data not giving us the true measure of these skills. In order to solve this problem, we created a behaviorally anchored assessment for critical thinking (the QUEEN model) to aid leadership educators in their assessment of students’ critical thinking. By measuring students’ abilities to Question, Understand, Evaluate, Explain, and put together Neoteric ideas, educators can measure not only critical thinking competency but also critical thinking growth.

Introduction

The moral purpose of education is to prepare students with essential skills that enable them to be productive contributors upon graduation. Kivunja (2014) notes critical thinking and problem-solving is chief among these skills. Employers expect colleges and universities to prepare work-ready graduates. Key among the skills sought by employers is the ability to think critically (AAC&U, 2018; Burnett, 2003; McMurtrey, Downy, Zeltmann, & Friedman, 2008). More than three-fourths of employers want colleges to place more emphasis on key learning outcomes like critical thinking and complex problem-solving (AAC&U, 2018). This emphasis on critical thinking by employers is seen as a way to increase the competitiveness of the United States in a global market. Workers who can think are essential for a leading-edge economy (Paul & Nosich, 1992). In addition, graduates with critical thinking abilities land better jobs than those without good thinking skills (Jahner & James, 2015).

Perhaps the most agreed upon consensus of critical thinking came from the 1990 APA Delphi Study led by Facione that developed a definition still referenced today. From this study, a consensus defined critical thinking as the “purposeful, self-regulatory judgement which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgement is based” (Facione, 1990).

However, colleges and universities do not appear have a firm grasp on developing critical thinking skills in their undergraduate students. Casner-Lotto, et al. (2006) noted less than 28% of employers rated college graduates’ critical thinking abilities as excellent. In their 2018 report, the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AACU, 2018) found only 34% of employers believe students to be prepared for the workforce in the area of critical thinking and analysis. This represents a 40 point gap between the importance of this skill set and the preparedness level of college graduates. It is imperative leadership educators play a role in increasing critical thinking in higher education to create leaders who are able to be effective problem solvers.

In addition to teaching critical thinking, universities must also be adept at measuring or assessing critical thinking. Previous studies have shown most faculty think they are assessing critical
thinking skills, but in reality are not (Burbach, et al., 2012; Stedman & Adams, 2012). There is a need for a tool that instructors can use to assess critical thinking in the classroom and track students’ growth as thinkers.

**Review of Literature**

While many faculty claim to be developing critical thinking skills in their students, Stedman and Adams (2012) found faculty have little knowledge on the intricacies of critical thinking. To add to the problem, Tsui noted many faculty lack instructional training to help students gain critical thinking skills (2007). Faculty at the University of Florida identified competencies for teaching students to think critically as one of their greatest teaching needs (Harder, et al., 2009). Ewing and Whittington (2009) found professors in 12 classrooms at The Ohio State University taught at the two lowest levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy; knowledge and comprehension. The gap between perception of ability and actual results is too great to ignore. A recent study concluded instructors who are well-trained in critical thinking methodology can positively influence students’ critical thinking disposition, even within the time limits of a college semester (Burbach, Matkin, Quinn & Searle, 2012).

Although many researchers have written and defined some of the dispositions students show while displaying critical thinking, Facione’s Delphi study set the standard (Facione, 1990). The consensus of the study showed students who exhibit critical thinking skills are truth seeking, as in constantly seeing the best knowledge in a context. Facione’s critical thinkers show an open-mindedness that practices tolerance to opposing views while self-monitoring for possible bias. Additionally, critical thinkers are constantly displaying analyticity by demanding the application of reason and evidence by staying alert to problem situations and being inclined to anticipate consequences. Critical thinkers systematically maintain organization and focus in complex problems. Critical thinkers display self-confidence by trusting their own reasoning skills. Critical thinkers stay inquisitive, always enthusiastic to acquire knowledge and to learn explanations even when not immediately clear or available. Finally, critical thinkers are mature, namely in understanding and accepting that multiple solutions are acceptable, and sometimes even necessary to the solution of a given problem.

Paul and Elder (2012) argue the application of critical thinking often can be best found when students are both reading and writing in an assessment. According to Paul and Elder, students are displaying these skills when they are clarifying purposes, formulating clear questions, distinguishing accurate and relevant information from inaccurate and irrelevant information, reaching logical inferences or conclusions, identifying significant and deep concepts, distinguishing justifiable from unjustifiable assumptions, tracing logical implications, and finally identifying and thinking within multiple viewpoints.

Paul and Nosich (1992) identify 21 criteria for higher order thinking assessment. Among these criteria, the assessment must lead to the improvement of education. It should assess the skills, abilities, and attitudes important for sound decision-making, and it should enable educators to assess the gains they are making in teaching higher order thinking. Paul and Nosich recommended the use of universal intellectual standards.

**Measures of Critical Thinking**
While evaluating capacity for students’ critical thinking has been well researched and measures have been developed, there is currently not an assessment measure which evaluates critical thinking in the classroom with the ability to identify deficits in critical thinking behaviors on individual students.

Today’s instruments used to measure critical thinking range from older national assessments that have been well researched to relatively new innovations that require replication. The International Critical Thinking Reading & Writing Test developed by Foundation for Critical Thinking measures students capacity to use reading and writing tools as a means for acquiring knowledge (Paul & Elder, 2006). Outside of the Critical Thinking Foundation, many other critical thinking assessments exist. The Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal is a 40 item multiple-choice instrument that assesses the ability to analyze, interpret and draw logical conclusions from written information, recognize assumptions from facts, evaluate the strength of arguments, and draw correct inferences (Pearson TalentLens, 2020).

The California Critical Thinking Skills Test: College Level (Facione, 1990) is a standardized test targeting college level critical thinking skills. It is a 34 item multiple-choice test developed from a two-year Delphi study using a national panel of experts to identify critical thinking behaviors.

The Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test (Ennis & Weir, 1985) is an essay instrument used to measure general critical thinking skills. Students are asked to choose a solution to a situation and then write a defense of their reasoning.

The Halpern Critical Thinking Assessment (HCTA) (2007) uses both open-ended and multiple-choice questions to assess subcategories of critical thinking that include: (a) verbal reasoning skills, (b) argument analysis skills, (c) skills in thinking as hypothesis testing, (d) using likelihood and uncertainty, and (e) decision making and problem solving skills. Students analyze and critique 25 everyday scenarios.

The University of Florida Engagement, Maturity and Innovativeness Test (UF-EMI) uses three constructs, engagement, cognitive maturity, and innovativeness, to assess students’ disposition for critical thinking (Lamm, et al., 2012). The UF-EMI identifies students’ tendencies towards critical thinking behaviors such as looking for opportunities to use reasoning skills, openness to new ideas, and seeking new knowledge and the ability to question present beliefs.

The Critical Thinking Skills Test (Ricketts, 2005) is a multiple-choice assessment that measures students’ skills of analysis, inference, and evaluation.

At issue is most of these assessments are suitable for measuring critical thinking at a point in time, but are not useful in the classroom to look at individual assignments to assess thinking. They also fall prey to the self-measurement and reporting error where students because of subjective bias, overestimate their abilities. Most are also not suitable for tracking students’ growth as thinkers.

There are a range of discrepancies with how critical thinking has been assessed both in the past and today. Ku (2009) highlights there has been an ambiguous definition of critical thinking from the beginning of critical thinking assessments. Researchers cannot uniformly measure an element that has no agreed universal definition. However, Ku combined researchers’ previous definitions, and then theorized the most agreed consensus of critical thinking is the combination of a cognitive component and a dispositional component. Today’s assessments may recognize this is
a part of critical thinking, but Ku argues these tests fail to measure both components adequately. Ku emphasizes the importance in developing assessments that can measure both components, and how today’s assessments fail to do so. For instance, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal was found to have no clear subscale in meta-analysis (Ku, 2009). The Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test claims to have high reliability (.82-.86), but Ku points out that the test’s scoring is highly subjective, and at times restrict test takers to a highly specific context and thus frame of answer (Ku, 2009). The California Critical Thinking Skills Test was noted to have unstable reliability, low internal consistencies, and subscales that varies only from .21-.51 (Ku, 2009).

Ku explains that the next assessment that is developed should combine both open-ended and multiple-choice responses to measure both cognitive and dispositional critical thinking. Furthermore, Ku recommends that future research should compare single-response formats and multi-response formats to support the argument she’s asserted.

Paul and Nosich (1993) note that multiple-choice questions have some issues in measuring critical thinking and most questions should be multiple rating rather than multiple choice. To assess the full-range of critical thinking, instructors must use student writing. Aboslaem (2016) states using many sources of assessments gives the teachers a comprehensive view of student progress, and can help them gain an understanding of how students think and learn new skills. He notes that performance-based assessments afford instructors with information about the students’ daily improvement because this type of assessment requires students to demonstrate that they have mastered specific skills and competencies by performing or producing something.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this project was to create behaviorally-anchored, competency-based critical thinking assessment for faculty utilization in the classroom to enhance undergraduate students’ critical thinking ability. This assessment tool is designed for use in the classroom to assess critical thinking behaviors of students by examining assignments and observations of classroom participation.

**Conceptual Framework**

Behavioral anchors are defined as characteristics of core competencies associated with the mastery of content. Competency-based behavioral anchors are defined as performance capabilities needed to demonstrate knowledge, skill, and ability (competency) acquisition (Buford and Lindner (2002). Behaviorally-anchored competency-based models are more accurate in assessing skills gained because they look at specific behaviors that are tied to each competency (Dooley & Lindner, 2002). Further, such anchors provide teachers and other expert raters with behavioral information useful in providing assessments and feedback to students. Such information can help students better understand their unique bundles of competencies and increase student satisfaction, motivation, learning, and ultimately success in a course (Drawbaugh, 1972). Competency-based feedback based on behaviors can provide a foundation for student-centered learning plans. Behavioral anchors can also be used to describe minimally acceptable knowledge, skills, and abilities on identified core competencies, thus, giving teachers tools and information needed to improve curricula, teaching materials, evaluation processes, and instructional delivery methods.
Methods

Because of the grounded-theory approach, the researchers used literature content analysis as well as a modified expert Delphi. The Delphi technique uses a panel of experts in a given field to develop consensus of opinion regarding the answer to a specific question or series of questions. Guidelines used in this study for using the Delphi method followed those proposed by Linstone and Turoff (1975). The panel of experts was chosen purposefully to be experts in teaching critical thinking who had conducted and published extensive research in the field of critical thinking or had published books on the topic.

The initial round required the jury of experts to respond to five open-ended questions: (1) what behaviors do students demonstrate when they are thinking critically, (2) what behaviors do students demonstrate when they are not thinking critically, (3) how do you assess critical thinking in the classroom, (4) how do you think faculty are trained in critical thinking, and (5) how do you think faculty should be trained in critical thinking? Eighteen experts responded to Round 1.

Round two consisted of the summarized and clarified answers from round one per question. Clarified statements from the entire panel were then sent back to the panel, who were asked to determine the level to which they agree with each answer to the five questions using a six-point Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, and 6 = Strongly Agree.

Round three began the process of building consensus. All statements from round two that received a score of five or six from two-thirds of the experts were retained for round three. These statements were used for a third iteration of the survey. In this round, experts were asked to re-evaluate the remaining statements for each question and respond again using the same six-point Likert-type scale. Each statement was then be evaluated by the researchers using the same criteria as round two: those statements receiving a score of five or six from two-thirds of the panel was retained. When consensus occurs from the expert panel, no further rounds were used. Consensus was reached in three rounds of inquiry. The use of more than three rounds often results in fatigue among the experts from having to repeatedly answer the same questions (Landeta, 2006).

Upon completion of the Delphi and content analysis process produced a multitude of data chunks. Operational model diagramming (Saldana, 2013) was utilized to pictorially represent the key themes and give a visual representation of how the themes intertwined. There was a clear need for instructors to be able to identify critical thinking behaviors including questioning, understanding, evaluation, explanation, and synthesis. Upon further refining of the thematic names, the researchers gave each critical thinking thematic competency the titles of Questioning, Understanding, Evaluation, Explanation, and Neoteric (spelling QUEEN). The use of operational model diagramming allowed us to see how each data chunk and theme worked in congruence as a uniting front for critical thinking, not as simply separate competencies. Face validly was then conducted using experts in the fields of critical thinking, educational pedagogy, and leadership education.
Results

To fully exhibit the behaviors of a critical thinker, one must engage in behaviors fit for an effective QUEEN. History has proven the expansion or depletion of a country is largely consistent with the impact the monarch had and his/her ability to think futuristically and critically (Vial, Napier, & Brescoll, 2016).

Questions

In order for a leaders and students to exhibit critical thinking skills, they must be able to not be afraid to ask the Five W’s many of us were trained in as a child, yet No Child Left Behind and similar government programs in the United States slowly took our ability to engage in such questioning. For the QUEEN model, questioning is not just about asking the “if” of their actions but the depth and understanding of the questioning. Instructors look to see if they can identify behaviors which exhibit students (1) asking clarifying questions, (2) stating those questions clearly, (3) understanding the main questions/problems of the issue, and (4) questioning their own initial perceptions of the issue.

Understanding

Looking for behaviorally anchored examples of understanding may be difficult on the surface, but instructors just need to dig a bit deeper as they engage their students in written and oral discussions and projects. Understanding the holistic context of the situation is paramount. Understanding also involves the understanding of self and others as a step in critical thinking. Does the student exhibit the ability to (1) have a clear purpose, (2) understand the purpose of others (either other students or authors and instructors, (3) understand alternative views, (4) understand their own personal assumptions, (5) understand the complexity of the issue, (6) seek accurate and trustworthy information, and (7) seek relevant information.

Evaluation

As we move up the levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy (which many universities rely on for creating course and project objectives which match the level of the course), evaluation becomes an essential element of critical thinking. For the QUEEN model, the behaviors students should be able to present to show their critical thinking abilities include (1) judging the credibility of sources, (2) judges if information is relevant or “white noise”, (3) draw appropriate conclusions using the data/information chosen, (4) identify potential consequences of decisions, (5) identifies AND examines own assumptions as well as others, and (5) has the ability to recognize the differences between fact and value claims.

Explanation

As leaders, it is not enough for us to merely understand and critically think about topics, it is imperative we are able to communicate our thoughts and thought processes to our followers (Cunningham, 1985). Explanation allows students to show their ability to effectively communicate their thinking to their followers (as well as to us, the instructors). Can students (1) state results or their conclusions clearly? (2) justify or defend their positions based on fact, (3)
create alternative answers/solutions, (4) use examples to connect points, (5) explain their reasoning process, and (5) use models or theoretical frameworks to back their conclusions.

Neoteric

Critical thinkers who engage in neoteric critical thinking can not only connect information to current events and stable application examples as those high in explanation can, they have the added layer of advocacy. These new and critical thinking ideas go nowhere if they do not have a champion to advocate for these new ways of thinking and doing. Students who exhibit behaviors high in neoteric are able to (1) synthesize new solutions/products/ideas, (2) promote these new concepts, (3) stay open-minded to new ideas or crucial viewpoints, and (4) engages in self-examination and reflection to become a deeper critical thinker and more effective learner.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Many institutions of higher education stress the building of critical thinking capacity as an essential measurement tool. As leadership educators, we know the limitations of self-reported data. Creating a behaviorally anchored measure of critical thinking will allow instructors as well as peers to actually “see” the critical thinking of students as well as giving the instructor legitimate and concrete behaviors to train for and skills to develop within their students. The QUEEN model of critical thinking has been taught in an upper-level leadership and ethics course at [University] and data collected on the impact of teaching these five specific competencies. Non-imperial data show an increase in students’ abilities to critically think.

The next step of this grounded-theory model development is additional testing. As we move forward in testing the model for statistical reliability, we expect some of the measures may need to be modified to give us the alpha level we desire. We are also running experimental design studies to test the impact of teaching the QUEEN model as a one-shot leadership training, as a course-long application, and a control group to see what method is best for instruction. For leadership educators, teaching the QUEEN model to new students and then reinforcing the concepts throughout their leadership curriculum can (and we believe will) give our students the ability to stand out in a crowded job landscape and be those industry leaders we know they can become.

References


Exploring Leadership Education & Professional Development in Leadership Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs)

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Abstract

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) are a form of distance education courses. They have been celebrated as revolutionizing the way learners access education and the way colleges and universities could expand education on a global scale beyond their traditional campuses. The purpose of this study is to identify the pedagogical strategies used for instruction and assessment in leadership-oriented MOOCs and gain a more refined understanding of the current state of MOOCs in leadership education. This study examines 96 leadership MOOCs across the platforms of Coursera, EdX, FutureLearn, Canvas.net, and Stanford Online through a content analysis research framework. The study concludes with a discussion of leadership MOOC pedagogy and presents the current state of MOOCs among leadership education and professional development on a global scale.

The author has elected not to publish the full paper in the conference proceedings.
A Systematic Literature Review of the Impact of National Culture on Followership

Abstract

The inclusive and diverse nature of today’s society requires leaders and followers to be adaptable to different environments quickly; leaders must be able to partner, manage, and lead individuals of different cultural backgrounds. Additionally, gaining an understanding of cultural expectations of an exemplary follower enables future generations to be trained and developed in followers meet cultural expectations. Just as there is a list of universally desirable leadership traits, this study aims to make progress in determining how to explore the influence of cultural values and practices on exemplary followership expectations. This research will explore how exemplary follower is defined, what followership themes emerge in the literature with respect to culture, and what cultural competencies have been analyzed with respect to followership behaviors and types.

Introduction

Leadership is a common word that is utilized, described, interpreted, and practiced in various ways across the world. Several multinational studies show followership, often referred to as ‘the other side of leadership,’ lacks the same research attention. Followership, like leadership, is contextual; it is dense and multifaceted (Murji, 2015). Followership and leadership require the role of the other (Kelley, 1988; Kellerman, 2007; Chaleff, 2003; Crossman & Crossman, 2011), the study of leadership without the presence of followers is simply the study of collaboration and teamwork (Shamir, 2007; 2012). Northouse (2016) defines leadership as a “process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal,” (p.6) thus without a group of individuals (followers) to influence one cannot lead. In order to cultivate effective followers, we need to understand what traits, skills, and behaviors are needed to make an individual and exemplary follower (Kelley, 1988.)

Although there have been studies focused on behavioral typologies, situational typologies, and trait typologies surrounding followership (Crossman & Crossman, 2011, we still do not have a universal understanding of what followership is and who is an exemplary follower. Followership includes traits, skills, and behaviors; therefore, followership is something that can be developed (Hurwitz & Koonce, 2017). Cultural values and practices shape desired and effective leadership styles within organizations, but with little emphasis on the cultural impact on follower preference, the same generalizations surrounding cultural preferences cannot be made in the context of followership.

There is a call for research in these followership areas: characteristics of effective followers, identify followership styles and models, and culture and follower qualities (Baker, 2007; Kelley 2008). Cultural norms and differences of followers must be understood so that leaders can be effective in various settings and are able to identify exemplary followers within the setting in which they are leading (Sy, 2010). Cultural values impact preferred followership styles (Can & Aktas, 2012) however, the primary research focus has been on leadership and culture with limited research addressing the impact of culture on followership.

Literature Review

As this research is a systematic literature review the pertinent literature is included as findings.
Conceptual Framework

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project (House, 2004) surveyed 1700 middle managers in 62 societies to develop nine cultural dimensions (see Figure 1). The nine cultural dimensions are: performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance (House, 2004). The GLOBE project analyzes each society’s ranking of the nine cultural dimensions to determine which leadership types are preferred and will be the most effective within each cultural cluster. As a result, the GLOBE studies have produced the Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory (CLT) leadership theory which outlines six global leadership dimensions and twenty-one sub dimensions. The Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory provides evidence that preferred leadership profiles can be determined based on national culture, thus suggesting that preferred followership profiles may also be influenced by culture.

Figure 1

GLOBE Cultural Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Dimension</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are (and should be) assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationship with others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Orientation</td>
<td>The extent to which individuals engage (and should engage) in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humane Orientation</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Collectivism</td>
<td>The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) collective distribution of resources and collective action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-Group Collectivism</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals express (and should express) pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Egalitarianism</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective minimizes (and should minimize) gender inequality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance</td>
<td>The extent to which the community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Avoidance</td>
<td>The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies (and should rely) on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events. The greater the desire to avoid uncertainty, the more people seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formal procedures, and laws to cover situations in their daily lives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Methods
This research uses a systematic literature review to determine what scholarly research on followership has been conducted and to explore the connection between cultural values and practices and expectations of follower behaviors, skills, and traits. A systematic literature aims to use a search process that is transparent, replicable, objective, and systematic to identify studies which will address a particular research question (Siddaway et al., 2019). The purpose of this research is to explore the influence of cultural values and practices on exemplary followership expectations. This review aims to answer three main research questions:

1. How do current followership models and typologies define exemplary followership?
2. To what extent followership is examined in relation to culture?
3. What cultural competencies (House, 2004) have been explored in the followership literature that exists?

Search process

The research questions above were used to drive the literature review process. A boolean search in all databases of EBSCOhost for the term followership returned over 5,000 search results. Interestingly, when I added key term *culture* the results narrowed to 418 results. However in an effort to find relevant articles for this literature review the electronic databases utilized for this search were: Academic Search Ultimate, Business Source Ultimate, ERIC (EBSCO), PsycINFO, and Education Source. Research studies and other scholarly content were found using the specified databases. A combination of follower or followership and culture using boolean techniques were used. When I searched titles for followership or follower and culture 37 results were returned. This search reveals research on followership with respect to culture is limited at best: thus, I ran an additional search for within abstracts which yielded 1,238 results.

Selection Criteria and Review Procedure

I did not limit the search to empirical studies only as it reduced my article selection to two studies classified as empirical works. I used a two phase process of screening for inclusion of the review: phase one consisted of identifying key terms within the title and abstracts and in phase two I will review all articles in their entirety to determine if they met the selection criteria. The selection criteria included:

1. Must be published between 1988 and 2019, or be a seminal work;
2. Must be published in peer reviewed journals
3. Language must be in English
4. Article must identify the relationship between culture and followership.

The criterion dates were selected as the first seminal work in the area of followership was first published in 1988, thus research conducted past this date likely includes the recognized models or emerging followership typologies. By reducing the search to only articles of peer reviewed journals, I believe the rigor of the articles increased. If articles did not meet the criteria they were excluded from the review. There are in total 14 articles I identified for the literature search and used for my literature review. Refworks was used to manage all data.

Results

Review of the literature revealed that researchers define exemplary follower in many ways: exemplary follower, good follower, and courageous follower. Researchers have explored followership in relation to culture and have found relationship between followers dissent,
commitment, performance, and cross-cultural leader follower relations. Of House’s (2004) cultural competencies, power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance were explored in these literature. Although there have been studies that have looked at a cultural competency impact on followership, there are currently no studies that have explored how all nine competencies impact followership. Additionally, to date there is not a published study for each cultural competency that explores the impact on preferred followership types.

**Typologies and ‘Exemplary’ Follower Profiles**

Kelley (1988) explored the reality that most individuals often act and fulfill the role of a follower more often than its widely explored and praised companion leadership. Kelley (1988) states what “distinguishes an effective from an in-effective follower is enthusiastic, intelligent, and self-reliant participation – without star billing – in the pursuit of an organizational goal” (p. 3). Kelley (1988) expressed the differences between ineffective and effective followers as the: ability to manage themselves, level of commitment, competence level, the focus of efforts, and courage. In his followership model, Kelly (1992) identified five followership styles based on the combination of follower engagement and critical thinking ability, these styles include: Conformist, Passive, Alienated, Pragmatist, and Exemplary. The Conformist tends to follow organizational order and believe the leader holds all of the decision-making power (Kelley, 1992). Passive followers are often viewed as lazy or unqualified; they tend to lack development in followership skills (Kelley, 1992). The Alienated follower typically starts as an exemplary follower, however, over time and exposure to conflict, develop anger or feel hurt toward the leader and tend to disengage (Kelley, 1992). Pragmatist followers tend to have a “better safe than sorry” mentality as a result of unstable leadership or organizational structure and are viewed as just surviving (Kelley, 1992). The Exemplary follower falls high in critical thinking and active engagement, they are independent visionaries but still support the organization and leader (Kelley, 1992). Kelley (1992) offers solutions for each type of follower to reach exemplary follower status.

Kellerman’s (2007) leadership typology is grounded in the idea follower involvement is indicative of followership type. Kellerman (2007) identified follower styles based on a continuum of the level of engagement. These styles, from the lowest level of engagement to the highest level, are Isolate, Bystander, Participant, Activist, and Diehard followers (Kellerman, 2007). Kellerman (2007) notes good followers “invest time and energy in making informed judgments about who their leaders are and what they espouse” (p. 91) before acting. Isolates are passive and alienated; they tend to unknowingly support the hegemonic norm. Bystanders, like isolates, can also harm an organization; however, they are aware of the leader and organizational norms and choose not to act (Kellerman, 2007). The participant followership type consists of those who are invested in the leaders in organization and clearly either stand for the leader or against the leader (Kellerman, 2007). Activist, like participants, stand for or against leaders but are passionate about their stance, thus they act purposively to support their beliefs (Kellerman, 2007). Those individuals who align with the Diehard typology are extreme in their actions and loyalty to their causes, they tend to be either huge liability or asset to the leader and organization as a whole (Kellerman, 2007).

Chaleff (2003) takes a different approach to followership style as he focuses styles based on the degree to which the follower supports the leaders and the degree to which they challenge the leader. Chaleff (2003) identifies four followership types; these include Resource, Implementer, Individualist, and Partner. The partner offers both high challenge and high support of the leader, the implementer offers high support but low challenge (Chaleff, 2003). The individualists offer
low leader support and high challenge, and those followers who fall in the resource category offer both low support and challenge (Chaleff, 2003). Chaleff (2003) believes a good follower will both support and challenge the leader, as they feel they have a stake in the leader’s decision, this follower would be the partner type identified in his model and would offer the leader the most overall support.

**Followership Themes**

Followership themes that were highlighted by the selected literature are: proactive followership, followership dissent, followership commitment, preferred followership profiles, cross-cultural followership, and leader behavior impact on followership level/types (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2**

*Followership Themes Identified by Selected Literature*

Blair and Bligh (2018) explore proactive followership and followership dissent as it relates to power distance and cultural tightness. Proactive followers are those who are courageous, committed to excellence, and support their leader (Blaire & Bligh, 2018). Blaire & Bligh, 2018, propose a positive relationship between proactive followership and follower dissent. In societies where individuals are viewed as equals and cultural norms are not mandated followers are more likely to be proactive followers and their ability to share various, potentially unpopular decisions and viewpoints increases (Blaire & Bligh, 2018). Averin (2019) found that follower commitment to leaders differs from individualistic cultures to collectivist cultures and that uncertainty avoidance also impacts follower commitment. Lee and Reade (2018) similarly found that followers who are more cosmopolitan, or transcend beyond local cultural identity, and those who follow cosmopolitan leaders tend to be more committed to the leader and organization than those following leaders strictly bound to their local cultural norms. Cross-
cultural followership is also enhanced when both the leaders and followers have a cosmopolitan mindset (Lee & Reade, 2018). Thomas, 2014, explored preferred followership profile differences between American and Rwandan cultures with respect to critical thinking and active engagement using Kelley’s Followership Model. Results of Thomas’s research showed that although preferred followership profiles differed significantly between American and Rwandan Culture, critical thinking and active engagement preferences remained the same for both cultures (Thomas, 2014). Schuder (2016) addresses leader behavior impact on followership, finding that followers in high power distance communities are very passive, obedient, and are taught to respect their superiors. Schuder (2016) challenges leaders to emphasize the role of the follower to empower them and to engage in meaningful and constructive conflict that may help society thrive.

**Culture Competencies and Followership**

House (2004) examined nine cultural competencies, of these nine three were explored empirically in the literature: power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance. Additionally, tightness–looseness cultural norms, and maternal vs. paternal practicing cultures were evaluated to determine relationship with followership. Cultures with high power distance are less likely to cultivate proactive followers (Blair & Bligh, 2019), lack of encouragement to think critically and actively engage with the leader discourage exemplary followership (Thomas, 2014). Thus “cultures that accept or place higher value on inequality likely have more passive constructions of followership, while those that value equality likely have more proactive constructions of followership and foster a more collaborative approach to the leader–follower relationship” (Blaire & Bligh, 2018, p.133). Follower dissent is low within high power distance cultures with tight cultural norms due to lack of exemplary and proactive followers who are willing to challenge authority or stray from cultural norms (Thomas, 2014). Followership commitment is dependent on several cultural dimensions; follower commitment is high in cultures where power distance is low, uncertainty avoidance is high, and in-group and institutional collectivism are high (Averin 2019). Lee and Reade (2018) address the importance of cross-cultural leader-follower efforts to collaborate to utilize leader and follower styles that are relative to the culture in which they are being practiced in. Furthermore, within organizations with multinational leadership those followers that practice cosmopolitanism also tend to be more committed to the leader and organization (Lee & Reade, 2018).

**Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusions**

After reviewing the literature on followership and culture that has been published in the last 21 years, and specifically the last five years, there is one common theme: followership is influenced by culture. Based on the literature there is no universal term that expresses what an exemplary follower is, much less the skills, traits, and behaviors that an exemplary follower must possess. Followership expectations and preferred follower profiles will vary from culture to culture and likely from leader to leader. Active engagement and critical thinking were identified several times in both the typologies and followership profiles as desired followership characteristics across cultures.

Cultural competencies are also a consistent marker across cultures, by determining where national cultures rank in these nine competencies there is the potential to determine what their expectations are of an exemplary follower. Power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance are just three areas that have been explored but each have shown to impact
followership behavior and style, thus providing a case that the other competencies will likely impact followership as well.

Much of the literature examined followership in the context of organizational culture and societal culture, however for this research I was focused on national culture, thus excluding articles solely focused on organization culture. GLOBE 2020 study is underway; however, it does not include a focus on followership. There is much in terms of teaching and research that needs still needs to be explored. Although some leadership education programs devote one class period to half of a course on followership, there needs to be more courses specifically developed on followership that are taught globally. Future research should include exploring factors such as age, gender, emotional intelligence, education level, and active involvement to determine significance developing exemplary followers (Chai, 2011; Hoption, 2014; Sy et al., 2006). GLOBE 2020 is exploring some of these factors in terms of leadership, however, it does focus on followership. Further quantitative research of the cultural competencies to determine impact on followership expectations needs to be conducted and exploration of national, societal, and organizational culture impacts need to be measured.

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The Places and Spaces for Student Affairs Practitioners to Learn and Practice Leadership Educator Competencies

Allison Dunn
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Abstract
Although leadership education typically is not explicitly incorporated into student affairs preparatory programs, student affairs practitioners are expected to facilitate the leadership development of their students. Thus, through two simultaneous Delphi panels, Group A (n=17) student affairs practitioners and Group B (n=20) student affairs preparatory program faculty, this study explored where student affairs practitioners should learn and practice leadership educator competencies. Both expert panels agreed on the most important places and spaces to learn and practice the competencies needed to be a leadership educator. Yet these findings demonstrate a gap between theory and practice. Three recommendations are provided to strengthen the professional preparation of student affairs leadership educators.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
Competencies Needed for Entry-level Student Affairs Leadership Educators

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Lori Moore
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Gary Briers
Krista Bailey

Texas A&M University

Abstract

While student affairs practitioners are characterized as leadership educators, leadership education traditionally is not part of a student affairs preparatory program. Using two simultaneous Delphi panels, Group A (n=17) student affairs practitioners and Group B (n=20) student affairs preparatory program faculty, this study explored the competencies required of entry-level student affairs leadership educators. Between the two panels, 128 unique competencies were identified. These findings support previous research on the disagreement over the necessary competencies for student affairs practitioners. Four recommendations are provided to strengthen the professional development of student affairs leadership educators.

The authors have elected not to publish their full paper in the conference proceedings.
The Influence of Being a Mentor on Leadership Development: Recommendations for Curricular and Co-Curricular Experiences

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Lindsay Hastings

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

While there are well-established personal benefits to being a mentor, such as increased life satisfaction and job performance (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007), how mentors grow and develop requires exploration. The current paper meets this need by presenting six key themes from two recent research studies related to the experiences that mentors perceived as contributing to their development. The growth of two leadership theories in particular were explored: (a) generativity and (b) Psychological Capital. The themes that emerge offer insights on how curricular and cocurricular experiences might maximize leadership development of students and ground leadership interventions, such as mentoring, in theory and research.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
Developing Positive Psychological Capacities for Authentic Leadership

Abstract

The positive psychological capacities of confidence, resilience, hope, and optimism must be developed in students prior to engagement in authentic leadership. However, research on the generation that makes up the majority of current undergraduate students indicates that they are particularly lacking in these capacities. This study examines the difference in students’ development of confidence, resilience, hope and optimism across two semesters of a course centered on authentic leadership through comparison of two course assignments. Students in the first iteration of the course received minimal instruction and no assignments related to the capacities while students in the second participated in five class sessions and four assignments designed to promote their development of the capacities. (Complete data will be available and analyzed before the conference).

Introduction

Positive psychological capacities – confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience - pre-dispose and support individuals in their development of authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). As these capacities are states rather than fixed traits, it is appropriate to examine how they can be fostered in an individual and to develop strategies for doing so in courses centered on authentic leadership development. Positive psychological capacities allow individuals to experience and express authenticity. Individuals who report high levels of true-self behavior, coupled with the acknowledgement that they know or understand who they are as a person, report much higher self-esteem, more positive affect, and more hope for the future (Harter, 1999). Building these strengths within individuals will provide them with the foundation to become effective and influential future leaders.

Recent studies on the current generation of college students indicates that they have not developed strong positive psychological capacities (Seemiller & Grace, 2017). Yet these capacities are essential for the development of authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Thus, it is imperative that leadership educators provide opportunities for the development of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience to prepare students to engage in authentic leadership.

In the Spring 2019 semester, the instructional team for a newly re-designed personal leadership development course at a land-grant university used one class meeting to teach about positive psychological capacities - hope, optimism, confidence, and resilience - as a precursor to authentic leadership. As they worked with students throughout the semester, the instructional team came to suspect that the students had not developed these capacities before the course began and that the lack of development would hinder students’ efforts to develop as authentic...
leaders - a stated course objective. Additionally, research on the current generation of students indicated that they tend to lack development in or related to these positive psychological capacities (Seemiller & Grace, 2017). Armed with the knowledge that positive psychological capacities can be developed, the original instructional team - assistant professor and teaching assistant - began a partnership with a faculty member who is a clinical counselor by training and a leadership educator (Luthans, Luthans and Luthans, 2004). They worked together to include five, 75 minute class sessions on positive psychological capacities and a structured activity for each - confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience - for the Spring 2020 semester.

**Literature Review**

As authentic leadership is both rooted in positive psychological capacities and promotes their development among followers, it is essential to understand these constructs and how they may be developed intentionally (George & Sims, 2007; Walumbwa, et al., 2008). These capacities - hope, optimism, confidence, and resilience - serve as resources as they can facilitate the self-awareness and self-regulation necessary for the development of authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Herein, we rely on Luthans and Avolio’s (2003) definition of 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,” (p. 243).

Hope requires having the agency to pursue one’s goals and being prepared for obstacles that may occur (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Snyder, 2002). In order to have hope, one must perceive that they have the will to accomplish a task and the means to do so (Luthans, et al., 2008). Studies of hope as an antecedent to authentic leadership posit that personally designed and valuable goals, pathways to follow, energy or motivation toward the goal, contingency plans to address obstacles and the ability to implement them, as well as positive self-talk, support the development and maintenance of hope (Luthans, et al., 2006; Luthans, et al., 2008; Snyder, 2002).

Optimism can be seen as the counteracting of pessimism and the embracing of a realistic assessment of what one can accomplish in a given context with the resources available (Luthans, et al., 2006; Luthans, et al., 2008). Further, optimism requires that one has a positive attributional style such that one interprets bad events to be external, temporary, and local (Luthans, et al., 2006). Luthans, et al. (2006) propose that self-efficacy training can help people develop optimism.

Resilience is the ability to cope with and adapt to significant adverse and positive events (Luthans, et al., 2008; Masten & Reed, 2002). Truly resilient individuals can resolve set-backs and end up in better positions than before the negative (Luthans, et al, 2006). Resilient people maintain a staunch view of reality by viewing all setbacks in terms of their impact, the individual’s levels of control over them, and the options for resolving the situation (Coutu, 2002;
Luthans, et al., 2006). Asset factors, such as coming from a stable home, predict higher levels of resilience while risk factors such as an abusive home or a lack of mentors predict lower levels of resilience (Masten, 2001); however, as many of these factors are stable and outside an individual’s control, there is a need for other approaches in order to develop resilience. Resilience can be developed in spite of risk factors, and opportunities at the college level to increase resilience are needed as it is often the case that students’ worldview and experiences change once they leave their childhood home (Craig, 2006).

Confidence refers to the degree to which one believes their actions will result in positive outcomes (Craig 2006). Confidence in one’s abilities increases from experiences of having mastered particular activities (Snyder & Lopez, 2009). Confidence is evident when one has belief in who they are and their abilities to perform tasks successfully (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). Internal locus of control reflects a general attitude that outcomes in the world depend on the self (Rotter, 1966). Self-efficacy differs from confidence in that confidence is a generalized personality characteristic and self-efficacy is focused specific tasks (Maslow, 1987; Bandura, 1997).

As the development of positive psychological capacities is essential to the development of authentic leadership and research on the current generation of students indicates they are lacking these capacities, the researchers seek to answer the research question, “What impact does the intentional teaching of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience, and the use of structured activities to support their development have on students’ development of these positive psychological capacities in a one-semester leadership course?”

**Theoretical Framework**

Positive emotions broaden our abiding intellectual, physical and social resources, building up reserves we can draw upon when a threat or opportunity presents itself (Seligman, 2013). According to Seligman (2013) people “like us better and our friendship, love and coalitions are more likely to strengthen when we are in a positive mood,” (p. 35). These are important considerations for leadership development. Further, it is important to recognize that emotions, thoughts, and behaviors are closely linked. Indeed, cognitive behavior theorists have found that emotion is always generated by cognition (Seligman, 2013). A basic premise of cognitive theory is that one can look carefully to find the train of thought that led up to the mood one is experiencing (Burns, 1999). Psychoanalytic theory, on the other hand, views emotions as always driving thoughts (Beck, 1979). The evidence, however, is that each drives the other at times (Seligman, 2013). Drawing upon these views of the relationship between emotions and thoughts, the clinical counselor developed both in-class and out-of-class activities and assignments that: encouraged students to engage with one another; required students to reflect on both their negative and positive thoughts; asked students to identify goals and experiences related to each
of the four positive psychological capacities; and urged the students to mindfully examine how what they were thinking impacted their emotions.

In addition to the focus on thoughts and emotions, the clinical counselor also thought it important to add another dimension to the process of understanding and building positive psychological capacities. Challenges are a fact of life, and it is within these moments of challenge that one can benefit from reflection regarding their emotions and thoughts about themselves and their abilities to overcome what some may perceive as negative encounters or failures. The clinical counselor used tenets from Dweck’s (2016) “growth mindset” theory to encourage students to develop an understanding of how they shape the psychological world of their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. The premise of the growth mindset is that one is better able to achieve their goals and experience success when they believe in their abilities, put forth an effort, and exhibit resilience (Dweck, 2016). Information regarding the “growth” mindset was incorporated into the class sessions on the positive psychological capacities to help students examine their beliefs about their abilities. The goal of this framework was that the students would develop greater potential for authentic leadership having engaged in activities and assignments based on the compilation of theories described.

Methods

To answer the research question, “What impact does the intentional teaching of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience, and the use of structured activities to support their development have on students’ development of these positive psychological capacities in a one-semester leadership course?” we compared the submitted artifact proposals and reflections from two semesters of the same course. The submissions were anonymized and analyzed for evidence of positive psychological capacities.

The students in the Spring 2019 face-to-face and distance sections of the course serve as a control group having participated in one, 75-minute class session on positive psychological capacities with no supporting activities. The Spring 2020 face-to-face and distance sections of the course participated in the treatment - five, 75 minute class sessions dedicated to positive psychological capacities developed and taught by the counselor and semester-long optional self-reflection on their development. The face-to-face Spring 2020 students engaged in lectures, discussions and think-pair-shares on the positive psychological capacities while the distance students received recorded presentations and participated in discussion forums in response to prompts from the instructional team and each other. Both Spring 2020 sections were given optional positive psychological capacity reflection activities. Each assignment involved the student reflecting on their feelings and thoughts and then taking actions to establish a means for learning how to build and strengthen hope, confidence, optimism and resilience. Approximately 25% of the students in both the face-to-face and online sections chose to complete the optional assignments associated with building positive psychological capacities.
For both semesters, all students were required to propose an artifact that would support their development in an area of need they identified from the results of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaires they completed in the first week of the semester. Their proposals - due immediately after the session or sessions on positive psychological capacities - tied their personal needs for growth with research-based interventions to develop a tool that would support their growth. Students worked on their artifacts throughout the semester, received peer feedback, and reflected on the process and their own development in a final reflection paper with a maximum length of five pages.

As per IRB approved protocol, the teaching assistant downloaded artifact proposals and final reflection papers after each semester ended. They used a random number generator to assign each student a participant number and removed all names and identifying information from the submissions. They then provided the anonymized submissions to the research team for analysis. Completed submissions were available for 49 of 51 students in the Spring 2019 sections. The researchers anticipate a similar rate for Spring 2020.

The researchers analyzed student reflection assignments for evidence of positive psychological capacities using a provisional coding scheme with definitions of the positive psychological capacities drawn from the literature (Saldana, 2009); however, they allowed additional codes to emerge as well (Saldana, 2009). A coded segment was included if at least two of the three researchers agreed on its coding. Analysis resulted in segments coded as the presence or absence of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience.

Students’ reflections from Spring 2019 were coded in the Fall of 2019. The Spring 2020 reflections will be coded in May and June of 2020. They will then be compared to answer the research question, “What impact does the intentional teaching of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience, and the use of structured activities to support their development have on students’ development of these positive psychological capacities?”

Results/Discussion

When Spring 2019 students prepared their authentic leadership artifacts, they had completed the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire to identify areas for personal growth and had spent one class period on Authentic Leadership theory - a class session in which positive psychological capacities were discussed as an antecedent to engaging in authentic leadership and one class session on confidence, hope, optimism and resilience. There was no other intentional instruction on these four positive psychological capacities. At the end of the semester, they submitted a reflection on the process of designing and testing their artifact and how they felt it had impacted their development. The researchers sought evidence in the proposals that they had connected a basic understanding of these concepts to their own needs. In the authentic artifact reflections, the researchers sought evidence that they had experienced change in any of these capacities.
Confidence

Students indicated an awareness of low confidence in themselves in the proposal phase. Many wrote of a “struggle with admitting mistakes” (participant 1), that “it’s very difficult to admit [their] mistakes,” (participant 73), or that they “love taking credit when things go right and shifting responsibility when things go wrong,” (participant 10). They indicate that the struggle to accept blame is rooted in a tendency to “take [feedback] like they are condescending or yelling at me for making a mistake instead of using it and trying to fix mistakes,” (participant 18) and that they “tend to hide [their] mistakes due to embarrassment,” (participant 37). Similarly, one participant shared “I often will not ask for help from others, even when I could use it” (participant 29).

Students indicated that their lack of confidence manifested in Imposter Syndrome, people pleasing, and avoidance. Multiple participants addressed a struggle with Imposter Syndrome as “causing [them] to feel alienated from [themselves] and slowly losing more of what makes [them] unique in hopes of being liked,” (participant 10) and that they “struggle with Imposter Syndrome and self-doubt every day,” (participant 56). Wanting to be liked and wanting to make people happy emerged from several other participants’ writing as well. A lack of confidence, “leads [them] to people pleasing, “(participant 10), “[walking] on egg shells to keep the peace in all aspects of [their] life,” (participant 51), and “[telling] people what they want to hear,” (participant 78). One participant, “noticed that I fear my problems, thoughts, opinions are truly too miniscule to truly matter. This leads me to...focusing on others to deflect my personal objectives, (participant 17), while another acknowledged avoiding confrontation with, “I also have a hard time telling others the hard truth,” (participant 78).

Some students reported improvements in their confidence when they wrote their reflections at the end of the semester. One reported learning from use of their artifact that, “if we focus on what we really accomplished while also seeing that we can be both successful and human, we will feel less like a fraud,” (participant 10) and that this helped with their Imposter Syndrome. Another indicated “I was typically the more reserved, but now I am more forthcoming with my opinions or ideas...I am more confident in expressing my unfiltered opinion on nearly any topic,” (participant 16). Another believed they had become better at “admitting when [they] made mistakes,” (participant 39). Finally, one student credited the assignment with improving their confidence and that others had noticed with:

> These changes were stimulated by the need to always improve on myself to grow as a person and as a leader, I feel like I took this project and what I learned this semester so seriously because I have been feeling like I needed to change things about myself and the things that I learned helped grow my confidence. This was noted by the girls I lead, friends, and colleagues at my job. (participant 21).
While some students reported improvements in confidence, many others continued to report a lack of confidence. Statements such as, “I am often afraid to get out of my comfort zone because I am weary of criticism,” (participant 86) and “I am usually worried and scared to get feedback in case it is negative,” (participant 22) indicate that some students have not gained sufficient confidence during the semester. In writing about a leadership challenge, one student reflected “it is my job as their leader to create the environment stated above. I don’t know if I can do it...I get nervous and don’t process things well,” (Participant 99). One student wrote “I am afraid of confrontation with others and this fear inhibits my success as an authentic leader,” (participant 48) indicating that they have learned about the significance of confidence but have not yet developed the capacity.

Student writing indicated some awareness of their lack of confidence as they began the semester and some development of confidence during the semester. Students wrote about addressing their Imposter Syndrome and becoming more confident with groups in which they were leaders. Students’ development of belief in themselves in relation to specific tasks may be more appropriately considered self-efficacy than confidence, but having mastered specific activities can increase one’s confidence overall (Bandura, 1997; Malsow, 1987; Snyder & Lopez, 2009). Thus, this development in self-efficacy may indicate the potential for increased confidence; however, many students reported either no change or did not address confidence in their writing.

Resilience

When proposing their artifacts, only one student wrote anything indicative of being resilient. They described overcoming past obstacles with, “I have always found ways to fix all of my problems in my life, big or small,” (participant 73). This student expressed an interest in continuing to develop resilience as well with, “I’m going to admit where I was wrong and figure out a solution,” (participant 73). Another proposed an artifact to intentionally develop resilience as they noticed they were lacking the capacity. “I feel that I can be supported and further developed by continuing to create ways for myself to get over these obstacles,” (participant 1) indicated an awareness of the need for resilience. No other students addressed resilience in their proposals.

There was minimal indication of resilience in the end of semester reflections as well. One participant reflected that what they learned from their artifact was:

We can have really successful weeks with tons of accomplishments and then turn around and mess up everything we set out to do the week after. It doesn’t matter though because we are learning and thinking of accomplishments. We can set out to complete the next week that will fix those mistakes. (participant 1).

However, the only other participant to address resilience does not appear to have developed it as they wrote, “I feel like my team is not getting along then I automatically feel defeated and as if
there is nothing I can do about it,” (participant 86). Students had some capacity for resilience when they began the course; however, there was no evidence of additional development at the end of the semester.

**Hope**

No participants indicated a capacity for hope in any of their writing. In the proposal, one student wrote, “I frequently think about how I am unqualified for my position, and how I feel I will never be skilled or knowledgeable enough to advance myself in my career,” (participant 56). In the reflection, one student wrote, “I expect the worst,” (participant 86) indicating a lack of hope, while another expressed a need for hope with, “I must have hope that I’ll get better,” (participant 22). There were no other writings about hope.

**Optimism**

None of the students wrote about optimism in their proposals. Similarly, none indicated being optimistic in their reflections. One student indicated an awareness of their need for optimism in their reflection with “I need to be optimistic about my results,” and “I won’t get better...at being an authentic leader if I remain pessimistic,” (participant 22).

There was no evidence of the capacity for hope nor optimism in the Spring 2019 semesters. Twenge (2017), who refers to Generation Z as “iGen”, indicates that this next generation is on the verge of the most severe mental health crisis for young people in decades. Twenge notes that happiness in teenagers has been faltering since 2011, and according to the Monitoring the Future study, only 22% of 12th graders surveyed in 2015 reported being “very happy” (Twenge, 2017, p. 95). College students’ mental health is also deteriorating. In a longitudinal study by the American Collegiate Health Association (ACHA) (2009), college students are now more likely to say they feel overwhelming anxiety and that they felt so depressed they could not function (Twenge, 2017, p. 103). Of the 400,000 students on over 100 campuses who took the ACHA (2009) survey, in 2016, 37% reported feeling so depressed that they could not function, and 59% reported overwhelming anxiety (Twenge, 2017, p. 104). Students in the Spring 2019 semester matched this characterization of their generation.

*The researchers will analyze Spring 2020 proposals and reflections for comparison. This data will be available to the researchers in May and will be analyzed before the conference.*

**Recommendations/Conclusions**

Students in the Spring 2019 course participated in one, 75 minute course session on the four positive psychological capacities. While the students were educated on the meaning of the capacities, and reminded regularly, none of the assignments were structured to intentionally address these capacities. As is typical of their generation, students in a Personal Leadership
Development undergraduate course lack development of the positive psychological capacities necessary for the development of authentic leadership - confidence, resilience, hope, and optimism. The findings from the Spring 2019 semester indicate that instruction and activities for developing authentic leadership are not enough to promote development of these capacities; thus, leadership educators must incorporate intentional teaching for positive psychological capacities in courses intended to develop authentic leadership.

The paper presented at the conference will include conclusions on whether the capacities can be taught rooted in the findings from the data that will be collected at the close of the Spring 2020 semester.

References


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The Impact of Leadership Education and Co-curricular Involvement on the Development of Socially Responsible Leadership Outcomes in Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

Socially responsible leadership (SRL) is a “purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change” (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009, p. xii). This approach to leadership focuses on creating leaders that are capable of tackling the predicted wicked problems the world will face in the next few decades. As the number of leadership education programs continue to grow throughout higher education, it is important to assess the impact leadership education and co-curricular programs are having on students. Utilizing the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, this study aimed to better understand whether higher education leadership development, community service and study abroad programs are successfully developing students with self-perceived socially responsible leadership.

The full paper can be found in a special issue of the Journal of Leadership Education.
Intercultural Leadership: Theorizing Using Arts-Based Critical Reflexivity

Abstract

Through an arts-based analysis, I outline a model of intercultural leadership rooted in four key assumptions of leadership: (1) intercultural leadership is adaptive work with a focus on social change; (2) intercultural leadership requires a deep understanding of sociomateriality; (3) social inequity implicates everyone and social change benefits everyone; and (4) unaddressed asymmetrical power dynamics will hinder any potential progress. I propose that this theoretically grounded understanding and practice of intercultural leadership is needed to address systemic and structural inequity in order to build a more inclusive and socially just society.

In this paper, I frame intercultural leadership through relevant literature, outline an arts-based reflexive analysis of a painting resulting in a theoretical overlay and conceptualization of intercultural leadership, and discuss recommendations for leadership education.

Introduction

They came in covered wagons and on foot. Most of them walked all the way including my Father. He said that he would get so tired from walking, that he would jump on the back of the wagons and tried to ride for a while, but the little old ladies riding in the wagons would fuss at him, pinch him and tell him to get down, so he would get down and start walking again. I don’t think that he ever told us how many miles they walked or how many days it took for them to get to Texas.

(M. Benavides Leal, personal communication, June 30, 2009)

My family is Texan, and we have been for generations. Months before her death in 2009, my great grandmother wrote about her life so her family could remember our roots. In the above excerpt, she shared her father’s story of coming to the United States from Mexico. He was seven years old when they walked the nearly 300 miles to Texas. Five generations of Benavides children have been born since then. My family is Texan. Yet, growing up I was told by white people that I was Mexican. When we reenacted the Alamo, I was the enemy. The Texas history we learned in school praised the white Americans who came to “settle” the land and eventually won their freedom from Mexico. The white immigrants became Texan. Native. I became immigrant. Mojado. This was my first experience negotiating the truth told by my teachers and the truth I heard at home. Almost everyone in Texas has a story of immigration, but some of us never get to grow out of that past. This is why I engage in the work of critically examining the world and the assumptions we make about how it is and how it ought to be. I theorize and teach leadership grounded in mindfulness in the hopes that people like me can find themselves in learning environments where their history, their voice, their pain, their joy, their totality is validated.
Note. This painting was created for a graduate student multicultural art exhibit. The painting is a critique of how white perspectives on knowing and being are privileged and centered in academia and society. The characters are holding up books, which represent human knowledge.

Our cultural and leadership perspectives are comprised of the informal theories that frame our understanding of the world. Yet, many traditional theories of leadership are rooted in systems of power and privilege that are patriarchal, heterosexist, sexist, racist, ableist, and classist (Ferry, 2018). I propose that a theoretically grounded understanding and practice of intercultural leadership is needed to address systemic and structural inequity in order to build a more inclusive and socially just society. In this paper, I will frame intercultural leadership through relevant literature, outline an arts-based reflexive analysis of a painting (See Figure 1) resulting in a theoretical overlay and conceptualization of intercultural leadership, and discuss recommendations for leadership educators.

Literature Review

Critical Leadership Studies

Our ability to engage in the theoretical and practical work of social change depends on our ability to understand and articulate how and why oppressive behaviors, beliefs, and perspectives persist. Dugan (2017) reflects on the limited nature of theory, rooted in the impossibility of exhaustively explaining reality. It could be argued that research centered on objective truth seeks to reconcile with our socialization that the goal of education is gaining knowledge, as opposed to critically analyzing and understanding the history that has privileged some knowledge as more valid than others. Conversely, critical theory focuses on acknowledging and unpacking the complexity of society for the purpose of pursuing social justice. Scholars employing a critical
lens are concerned with power dynamics within systems and their impact on social inequity, as well as how to create a more inclusive and equitable society.

A critical lens is necessary because people both within and outside of dominant cultural identity groups intentionally and unintentionally perpetuate oppressive systems. From a critical race lens, Taylor (2009) describes this phenomenon as the normalization of racism. Racism “is so enmeshed in the fabric of our social order, it appears both normal and natural” to white people (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 11) – and while we are proficient at recognizing when it is done to us, people of color do not always recognize when we are complacent in perpetuating normalized racism. This same complacency can be translated into the other aforementioned oppressive structures. It is only through employing a critical perspective on normativity that we are able to deconstruct and reconstruct our world in more inclusive ways.

Specifically, “critical leadership studies (CLS) draw on dialectical perspectives to examine asymmetrical power dynamics in leadership dynamics” (Collinson, 2019, p. 265). Leaders and followers alike exercise power, though not equally. Critical perspectives take into consideration this asymmetric relationship and other forms of power in the leader-follower relation. The critical paradigm also seeks to critically explore normative ideas, practices, and frameworks in order to deconstruct and reconstruct how we understand the world. To do this, Dugan (2017) asserts that we must examine the “taken-for-granted assumptions related to stocks of knowledge, ideology/hegemony, and social location in leadership theory” (p. 43). Without doing this, theorization and conceptualization are constrained and problematic when “leadership [is] situated as a natural and value-neutral concept” because uncritical approaches do not take into consideration “the biased or exclusionary assumptions within mainstream leadership studies” (Ferry, 2018, p. 604).

Space and Place

A major component of utilizing a critical lens is recognizing that different people navigate and understand physical places differently (Ropo, Sauer, & Salovaara, 2013). From a sociomaterial perspective, place refers to a physical condition that can be understood objectively and subjectively, while space refers to the subjective, experienced place. Liebenberg, Wall, Wood, and Hutt-MacLeod (2019) explain that “our understanding of who we are is largely the result of a process of co-construction between ourselves, the communities we inhabit, and the larger world around us” (p. 2). It can be argued that the physical world and how we make meaning of it contribute to our conceptualization of leadership.

Unpacking this requires the practice of mindfulness as a means of critically reflecting and understanding the embodied nature of space and place. Yeganeh and Kolb (2009) define “two predominant streams of mindfulness research and practice, meditative mindfulness and socio-cognitive mindfulness” (p. 8). Meditative mindfulness is focused on being in the present and encompasses embodied ways of reflecting. Socio-cognitive mindfulness “emphasizes cognitive categorization, context and situational awareness” (Yeganeh & Kolb, 2009, p. 9). Through this mindful practice, we are able to more profoundly understand how “material places lead people through embodied experiences, such as feelings, emotions and memories of the place” (Ropo et al., 2013, p. 381).
Adaptive Leadership for Social Change

Ospina et al.’s (2012) model of social change leadership recognizes current inequities and “is driven by images of both the present and the future” (p. 269). By identifying social issues that inhibit the inclusion of members of a community or organization, actors come together to engage in the leadership action required to conceptualize and construct a reality that dismantles these barriers. As such, the work of social change and equity can be conceptualized as a complex, adaptive challenge, requiring an adaptive leadership approach. Adaptive leadership addresses challenges within an organization, community, or society by enabling the agents within these to “cope effectively with change and uncertainty” (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018, p. 89). It is a “practice of mobilizing others to tackle tough challenges and thrive” (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009, p. 14). Social innovation fits squarely within these ideas. It requires a desire to come together to change systems, and it is rife with uncertainty, challenge, and risk (Parés, Ospina, & Subirats, 2007). Heifetz et al. (2009) explain that adaptation takes time and is not easy. Adaptive challenges often require more than one solution and the involvement of diverse stakeholders, concepts that likely resonate with anyone engaged in the work of social change. Progress on these challenges will be uncomfortable, even painful, and it will be necessary to balance challenge and support to manage these tensions to a level that stimulates adaptive behavior without overwhelming stakeholders to the point of burnout.

Intercultural Learning

Intercultural learning, like leadership, is a complex concept that does not have a universally accepted definition. Deardorff (2011) describes the practice of perspective-taking as one element of intercultural learning and intercultural competence that is widely accepted as a central tenet of the field. Hammer’s (2012) intercultural development continuum (IDC) outlines five mindsets that describe how people navigate cross-cultural experiences and practice perspective-taking. These mindsets are grouped into monocultural, transitional, and intercultural and follow a progression that suggests that constant and intentional effort leads to an increase in capacity and efficacy related to cross-cultural navigation. People who operate from an intercultural mindset intentionally seek out and go through the process of learning how to effectively bridge across cultural differences. The developmental nature of intercultural learning contributes to leadership models and theories that prioritize social change and adaptive work. Acknowledging, identifying, understanding, and adapting to social inequity are all developmental tasks that cannot reasonably be expected of leadership learners and practitioners who have not yet developed an intercultural mindset.

Culturally Relevant Leadership Learning

The model of CRLL “seeks to transgress traditional boundaries of education and reframe leadership learning as a practice of freedom” (Osteen, Guthrie, & Jones, 2016, p. 95). As part of the learning process, students are engaged in the work of unpacking their identity, both in terms of cultural identity and leader identity, and building leader capacity and efficacy (Jones, Guthrie, & Osteen, 2016). This framework situates the learning process of students squarely within historical, structural, and organizational contexts and addresses the behavioral and psychological dimensions of learning. Learning leadership in culturally relevant ways requires students and
educators to utilize a critical lens. CRLL is a transformative approach to pedagogy, which Mezirow (1997) defines as “the process of effecting change in a frame of reference” (p. 5). To this end, transformative learning challenges and transforms the identities of students and promotes “personal development, deeper understanding, and increased [acceptance] and flexibility” (Illeiris, 2015, p. 50).

Methods

Reflexivity

As a person of color, the focus of my painting centers on my own experiences with oppression around racial identity. Understanding and accepting my place in a racialized society has been a journey of growth, pain, and learning. My early experiences with race and racism led to a tendency to minimize racial issues. I kept my multicultural identity hidden and separate from my interactions with white peers as a survival tool, which helped me navigate their world without the relentless hurdle of acknowledging my cultural difference. Constantly recognizing that white society does not support me is exhausting and distressing. Sometimes, it was simply easier to pretend that it did not really affect my life that much. However, the truth is that the real impact of racialization has played a major role in my self-concept and the work I engage with today. It helps me remember that every person of color has their own story that may not fit within the narrative of mainstream culture but is representative of their lived truth. This is reflected in the imperfect focal perspective of my painting.

While I illustrate my image in terms of racial identity, I believe this painting can be translated easily to other narratives of normativity and power. It could reflect the heteronormative perspective that dismisses or minimizes the experiences of queer people. In this case, the white character would reflect a straight person socially placed as the norm. The painting could represent patriarchal structures that privileges cisgender men over other genders. Overall, this painting depicts how the positioning of dominant perspectives should be critically questioned as a foundation for creating a more socially just society. Once we dismantle the infallibility of the dominant narrative, we can begin to accept and integrate non-dominant ways of being and knowing into our collective understanding of the world.

Research Design

As a scholar practitioner, I find that the work of disrupting dominant narratives of normalcy leads me toward research methods that align with this mindset. As such, I utilized an arts-based research approach to understand how and why I have conceptualized intercultural leadership. Following Anzaldúa’s (2015) description of artistic writing as “a process of discovery and perception that produces knowledge and conocimiento (insight)” (p. 1), other art media have become more accepted among qualitative researchers. Art provides an opportunity to explore, expose, and unpack lived experiences (Estrella & Forinash, 2007) and broaden our understanding of our world.

To examine the hidden messages behind my artifact, I employed a critical reflection method of inquiry, which Fook and Askeland (2007) explain “incorporate[s] an understanding of personal
experiences within social, cultural and structural contexts” (p. 3) in order to identify and address deep-seated power dynamics that inform knowledge and practice. Specifically, I analyzed my artifact to explore how intercultural leadership can acknowledge and address the power of dominant narratives in the historical silencing of minoritized peoples.

**Results**

The story of intercultural leadership that unfolds from an arts-based analysis of my artifact reflects its theoretical foundation in critical leadership studies, sociomateriality, adaptive leadership, social change leadership, and culturally relevant leadership learning. The theoretical overlay provides a birds-eye view of how these theories converge throughout the painting to illustrate intercultural leadership (Figure 2).

**Figure 2**

*Theoretical Overlay*

![Theoretical Overlay Diagram](image)

*Note.* This figure illustrates a birds-eye perspective of the painting overlaid by the theories and models that comprise my conceptualization of intercultural leadership.

The critical lens is represented on my artifact in the positioning of the characters on the painting holding up the books representing knowledge. The white character is centered intentionally to represent how white-centric narratives dominate in leadership theory in which people of color become background characters. When viewed from the theoretical overlay, it becomes clearer that there is no rational or right way of determining whose perspective to focus on. From a critical lens, we are able to recognize how the characters are all in a circle, each contributing to
the advancement of knowledge. Acknowledging this, we can then question how and why any particular group’s perspective is privileged over others.

In the theoretical overlay of my artifact, sociomateriality is reflected in the two circles that connect the characters in the image. The inner circle is unbroken as it represents the physical world as it is experienced in a specific context. The physical world connects each of us as we inhabit it, even if our understanding of it vary based on our lived experiences and cultural perspectives. The outer circle symbolizes the socially experienced space of the world. The line is broken by each person’s understanding of their space in the world. Each character in the circles has their own position in the world and their own understanding and corresponding way of navigating it. Through critical reflection and meaningful connections, we are able to gain insights into the experiences of others. Without these critical practices, Ropo et al. (2013) assert that we often rely on pre-conceived ideas about people due to the difficulty of bridging across objective and subjective realities. The theories of adaptive leadership and social change theory occur in the sociomaterial space of my overlay and are represented by the double arrow, reflecting the multi-directional nature of social change.

The critical lens of sociomateriality is represented in the space between the characters in the painting. This is what Ospina (2019) describes as social location. Social location “influences our sense of self in relation to others (our social identity), what we know about ourselves and the world (our knowledge), and our capacity to act in the world (our power)” (Ospina, 2019, pp. 149-150). It is a part of our relationship with space and place and can be measured by the social distance between identities. While in my painting and theoretical overlay, the gaps between characters are fairly equidistant, in reality, this is not actually the case. The power gaps between people of varying social identities can vary based on their histories and corresponding modern legacies. Without critically reflecting on these as a means of deconstructing and reconstructing how oppressive systems operate, these power gaps will continue to adversely affect opportunities for minoritized communities to fully engage in dominant culture spaces.

In my artifact, CRLL is the process of meaning-making that occurs through the connections between the characters. Each person is connected to everyone else in the image through a striped line, which is meant to represent a bridge. This imagery implies the amount of work and the intensity of work that must be done for students of leadership to make meaningful cross-cultural connections. Osteen et al. (2016) explain that “as a process of unlearning and relearning, we must acknowledge that there will be a degree of pain to this process, we must respect this pain in our students’ lives and our own” (p. 100). Render, Jimenez-Useche, and Charles (2017) defined cultural bridge-building as “learning to shift frames, attune emotions and adapt behavior to other cultural contexts” (p. 3). To learn how to engage in this practice is not easy and requires time and practice. The foundation of cultural bridge-building is critical self-reflection, engaging in learning opportunities to understand other perspectives, and practicing intercultural mindfulness. As a believer in the interconnected nature of the world, I imagine that the frames of these bridges already exist. We are already tied to each other through our shared histories and experiences, both positive and negative. However, by fortifying these ties and working together towards collective advancement, we are able to build more meaningful connections and a more socially just world.
Discussion & Recommendations

The model of intercultural leadership presented in this paper illustrates four key assumptions of leadership: (1) intercultural leadership is adaptive work with a focus on social change; (2) intercultural leadership requires a deep understanding of sociomateriality; (3) social inequity implicates everyone and social change benefits everyone; and (4) unaddressed asymmetrical power dynamics will hinder any potential progress. The work of equity and inclusion involves working with minoritized groups, not on behalf of them. Therefore, the practice – and development – of intercultural leadership will require a deep understanding of others’ experiences, beliefs, and values, which are sociomaterially grounded. To foster an environment in which learners can make meaning of intercultural leadership and integrate the concept into their leadership activity, leadership educators must engage in critical reflection on their own and others’ ways of understanding and navigating the world and how these are tied to social and physical location.

Leadership educators, practitioners, and learners must also recognize that in social inequity, we are all stakeholders. Parés, Ospina, and Subirats (2007) discuss how leadership for social innovation and social change must consider the relational ways that “the self and others are inseparable and coevolve as they coexist” (p. 14). Social issues are interconnected and social change leads to the advancement of society as a whole. To do this, leadership learning and practice must involve a commitment to confront the reality of inequity and sit in what Heifetz and Laurie (1997) call the holding environment. By implicating ourselves in the persistence of oppressive systems, we take away our ability to withdraw from the conversations because we acknowledge that we are indeed not outsiders. This will be uncomfortable and painful, but by working through the heat of these conversations and this work, we can make progress towards social change.

Finally, in leadership education and practice, we must also recognize and address the power dynamics involved in the adaptive challenge of social change. Ospina and Foldy (2010) explain how this minimizing of power inequities “give[s] coherence to the bridge-building work of leadership” (p. 297), thus fostering collective capacity for people to advance together.

Intercultural leadership is not a top-down hierarchical structure of management. It is a collective, relational, and emergent approach that shares the work of leadership and the responsibility for social change across social locations. Because of our socialization to look for a leader to give direction, dispersing power and destabilizing traditional structures will require collective work, patience, and dialogue. It should be noted that by critically examining and addressing the power dynamics at play in the adaptive challenge, leadership educators are modeling how to simultaneously examine and address the inequitable power dynamics that create and sustain social inequity.

Conclusion

Through an arts-based analysis, I have outlined a conceptualization of intercultural leadership that recognizes that the ways in which we understand and practice the social construct of leadership are rooted in our cultural perspectives and experiences. As we seek to deconstruct and reconstruct existing knowledge and create new knowledge around leadership that strives for
social innovation and a more socially just world, I believe the greatest advancements will be
done together through bridge-building. To effectively build these bridges, we must engage in
formal and informal culturally relevant leadership learning experiences in which we unpack
social location and sociomaterial understandings of place and space and enable adaptive space
by embracing tension and bringing together diverse stakeholders. My conceptualization of
intercultural leadership illustrates an opportunity for the leadership community to intentionally
engage in the work of addressing systemic and structural inequity in order to build a more
inclusive and socially just society.
References


Parés, M., Ospina, S. M., & Subirats, J. (2017). Social innovation and relational leadership: Opening up new perspectives on social change. In *Social innovation and democratic leadership: Communities and social change from below* (pp. 3-20). Edward Elgar.


