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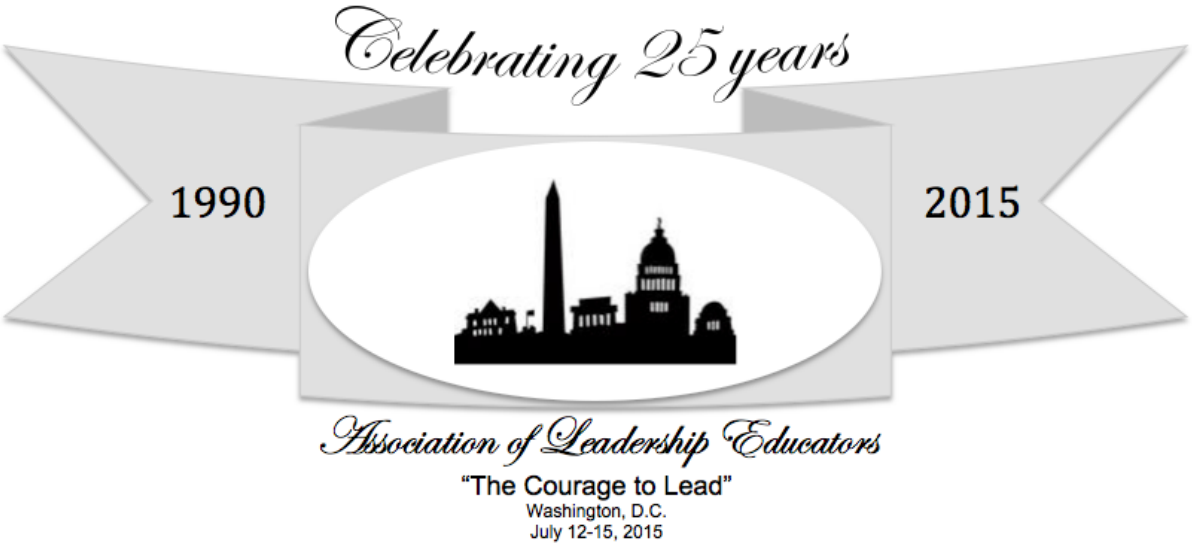

The Association of Leadership Educators
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EDUCATOR WORKSHOPS

Developing Emotionally Engaged Thinking: Understanding and Application for the FACE Approach

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Abstract

This workshop demonstrates the power of Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) as means of enhancing the decision---making process. The FACE Approach will allow participants to address complex adaptive challenges and learn the process for replicating this methodology with their learners to develop leaders capable of addressing our world's greatest challenges.

Introduction

The human race is responsible for two things, identifying the problems that we face and solving them. In the last five years, there has been a growing emphasis on what are called the grand challenges. These grand challenges, such as climate change or the AIDS pandemic are complex in nature, requiring a different style of problem solving and leadership.

The White House refers to the 21st Century Grand Challenges as, "ambitious but achievable goals that harness science, technology, and innovation to solve important national or global problems and that have the potential to capture the public's imagination" (White House, 2014, 1). The President's Strategy for Innovation guides the work on four key grand challenges, Brain Initiative, SunShot Grand Challenge, Asteroid Grand Challenge, and Grand Challenges for Development. Each of these challenges threaten some aspect of human livelihood and are positioned to fund more jobs, "Help tackle important problems related to energy, health, education, the environment, national security, and global development; and serve as a "North Star" for collaboration between the public and private sectors" (White House, 2014, 3).

The White House is not the only organization to purport the development of grand challenges. USAID has a unique set of five including, securing water for food, saving lives at birth, all children reading, powering agriculture, and making all voices count (USAID, 2014). In fact, a simple Google search produces over 50,000,000 entries for grand challenges across the globe; challenges that require ingenuity and innovative thinking.

Within the scholarly literature, just since the beginning of 2014 there are over 27,000 entries addressing grand challenges representing nearly every discipline, each creating a call to action by scholars and experts. Many of these publications emphasize the challenges as a means to ensure the best future possible. This call often includes what leaders can and should be doing to stimulate this action. In order for leaders to address this level of action they must be equipped to synthesize and bring together ideas from a variety of perspectives; this maybe one of the grand challenge of leadership education. How can we ensure that leaders are prepared to do this?

The antiquated methods we once used for decision---making are not sufficient to address the problems of the future. An individual leader can no longer bear the responsibility for solving our

problems. In today's environment the problems and challenges we face as a society are growing in complexity, requiring better adaptive solutions. The human dynamics of how we operate socially must play a role in how we solve these problems where a singular response is no longer adequate.

This workshop provides an innovative and groundbreaking opportunity, as Emotionally Engaged Thinking was featured for the first time in the most recent edition of Building Leadership Bridges as a cornerstone for shifting the leadership paradigms and behaviors.

The workshop will demonstrate the power of Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) as a tool for creating Emotionally Engaged Leadership. Through the use of the FACE Method participants will address complex adaptive challenges and learn the process for replicating this with their learners. The following learning objectives set the foundation for the workshop.

As a result of this workshop participants will:

1) Experience and develop an understanding for the facilitation of the FACE Method
2) Understand the theoretical framework and contextual application of the FACE Method with respect to Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET)
3) Identify the role of EET within a decision---making framework
4) Gain the capacity to build Emotionally Engaged Leadership in learners and organizational contexts

Review of the Literature

In the past, humanity has relied on technology and science to sustain their way of life in times of adversity. However, while technology and science may play a role in how we save our planet, our grand challenge of population growth requires something much greater – massive social and behavioral changes in global populations. This complex adaptive challenge exemplifies the charge and original impetus behind complex adaptive leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009a, 2009b; Lichtenstien, Uhl---Bien, Marion, Seers, & Orton, 2006; Yukl & Mashud, 2010).

Complex adaptive leadership recognizes that problems are complicated and influenced by various systems replete with countless interactions. This system perspective provides an expanded view of interconnectedness of the problems we face. It brings leadership from an individual perspective to a social perspective; whereby leaders must work together to achieve great things. Leadership resides within the frameworks of the system; it is interactive and dynamic (Lichtenstien, Uhl---Bien, Seers, Douglas Orton, & Schreiber, 2006).

The greatest benefit of this social perspective of leadership is increases in creativity, influence, and change (Lichtenstien, Uhl---Bien, Seers, Douglas Orton, & Schreiber, 2006). When each individual can contribute to the leadership whole there is greater ownership, whereby the formal leaders become less concerned with the right answers and more concerned with the right strategies.

As leaders, we need to be cognizant of these factors and assert strategies grounded in critical perspectives validated by the intersections that exist among people. These strategies require the

engagement of our creative processes in an effort to leap beyond traditional approaches to leadership grounded in individual traits and competencies.

Emotionally Engaged Thinking as the Leadership Solution

In the last five years there has been a growth in the area of neuroscience and leadership (Rock and Schwartz, 2006; Boyatzis, 2008; Waldman, Balthazard, & Peterson, 2011; Ghadiri, Habermacher, & Peters, 2013). This research has lead to a greater understanding of how the brain works in key areas of leadership, like decision making, emotional intelligence, but also in

important areas like stress and health. Emotionally Engaged Thinking was developed from research conducted more than a decade ago, which linked critical thinking and emotional intelligence. This link provided the foundation for how people can use emotion to guide logic. In 2013, Stedman and Andenoro launched Emotionally Engaged Thinking after refining this connection. Andenoro identified Emotionally Engaged Thinking as a critical piece of the solution building process during his TED talk (2014). Further he noted that Emotionally Engaged Thinking creates a foundation for solving our world's greatest challenges including global population growth, international food security, transnational pandemics, and beyond (2014). Emotionally Engaged Thinking approaches decision---making using the foundational work in neuroscience to address the use of emotions in a leader's ability to think critically.

Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) operates when a leader is challenged with a decision evoking a strong emotional response, but which requires a logical reasoned approach. Decision--- making has long been understood as one's ability to identify alternatives for a problem and selecting the alternative, which presents the greatest selected utility. In other words, which alternative will one get the most out of, based on underlying desires, motivations, or preferences. It is easy to imagine that this most basic understanding of decision making often falls short given the complex nature of people. Decision---making would be easy and consistent if it were just a matter of weighing options and going with the best choice. In fact, Holyoak and Morrison (2005) outline six different ways the brain works against the rational theory of choice model; choice of uncertainty, riskless choice, conflict and reasons, processing of attribute weights and local versus global perspectives. Each of these presents a set of conflicts that the brain has to process in order to complete the decision---making process.

Emotions are central to how many of these principles impact decision---making. From the most basic notion that the loss of something is felt less by an individual in a negative mood versus one in a positive mood to how particular images of recall can influence decision making. Further, one's current state can influence a decision in the future, which is not directly tied to the current state. Holyoak and Morrison (2005) describe a situation, in which individuals often use current feelings or emotions to project to a future state. This "myopic decision making" results in the inability to recognize incidental factors as such. These contextual changes have been found to greatly influence the manner, in which people make decisions.

In recognizing the influence of emotion on decision---making, EET sets out to provide a systematic approach for incorporating them into how decisions are made. Our rational selves cannot always take into account situations that are influenced by our emotional selves.

Researchers have documented that even the most skilled thinkers often fall victim to biases based upon a dominant thought.

In academia there has been an effort to address biased thought through the development of critical thinking skills. Critical thinking has long been the standard for rational, purposive and reflecting thinking (Rudd, Baker, and Hoover, 2000). From the work of Facione, to Ruggiero, to Paul and Elder, critical thinking has a long line of research documenting its development and use across disciplines. Critical thinking has been shown to have a dispositional nature, stylistic preferences, and skill development. Much attention has been focused on how to increase skills, allowing for the greatest opportunity for people to use critical thinking in their daily lives. For leaders this is paramount to their success. Many of the leadership theories that are espoused today incorporate some aspect of decision---making, complex thinking, or problem solving to

their principles. However, few theorists have approached how to make decisions, solve complex problems, or solve problems.

Another fundamental piece to this puzzle is emotional intelligence. EI has become the quintessential approach to assisting leaders better understand their own emotions and those of others around them. Emotional intelligence can be broken down into two areas outlined by Salovey and Sluyter (1997). The areas are the understanding of emotion and the understanding of intelligence, which are concretely united in an effort to delineate the idea of emotional intelligence (Akers, et al., 2002). Thus, educators are forced to explore creative means of delivering curricula; which dispose students to emotional intelligence and develop specific areas of emotional intelligence, much like critical thinking skill. Success in the business world depends on both academic ability and social and emotional skills (Goleman, 1995).

It is important to question if there is a connection between critical thinking and emotional intelligence because both are part of leadership education. Lord and Emrich (2000) surmised there is a direct link between the effects of a social system and the leader's metacognitive processes, which in this case, the researchers would identify the leader's critical thinking ability and the impact on social awareness. This would theorize that these two concepts have an insurmountable impact on organizational learning. Through the examination of these two concepts, one can infer that self---regulation, as a skill of critical thinking, can be likened to certain aspects of the core emotional competencies of emotional intelligence. The four core competencies are as follows (Salovey & Mayer, 1990):

1. The ability to accurately perceive, appraise, and express emotion
2. The ability to access or generate feelings on demand when they can facilitate understanding of yourself and another person
3. The ability to understand emotions and the knowledge that derives from them
4. The ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

Self---awareness emerged from these four core emotional competencies as a governing tenet for the development of emotional intelligence. Self---awareness refers to the ability to recognize a feeling as it happens (Goleman, 1995). This ability is paramount for students exploring service in leadership positions. Goleman noted "the ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is

crucial to psychological insight and self---understanding" (1995, p.43). He further asserts that if individuals fail to recognize their true feelings, it can be detrimental (Goleman, 1995). "People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they feel about personal decisions, from who to marry, to what job to take" (1995, p. 43).

At the intersection of critical thinking and emotional intelligence is emotionally engaged thinking. EET promotes the outcomes of critical thinking while capturing the emotions of the leader. As indicated earlier, decisions are often influenced by emotions whether we are cognizant of it or not. The emotions provide a glimpse into inner desire and motive, but are overlooked or minimized in an effort to maintain objectivity. EET promotes thinking, which is grounded in emotion providing the leader an opportunity to recognize his/her emotional state or motive with respect to a problem and then logically work through the emotion to arrive at a strategically biased solution.

EET promotes a systems thinking approach that incorporates emotions as the catalyst for positive decision---making. Emotionally engaged thinking is applicable across the spectrum of disciplines, industries, and natural resource areas. The intent of EET is that all individuals involved in decision making (not just the leader) have some level of emotional investment in challenges and problems facing their particular field. By engaging in EET all invested parties can actively express their emotions and participate in active dialogue. Using the FACE Method, (Foundational awareness, Authentic engagement, Connective analysis, and Empowerment and change) individuals are provided the tools to think through problems, recognizing their emotion, engaging in dialogue, and promoting shared decision making. In order to capture this the example of food security will be used as it evokes a number of human variables (emotion, cognitive, and behavioral).

Lesson Plan

The intent of EET is that all individuals involved in decision making (not just the leader) have some level of emotional investment in challenges and problems facing their particular field. By engaging in EET all invested parties can actively express their emotions and participate in active dialogue. Using the FACE Method, (Foundational awareness, Authentic engagement, Connective analysis, and Empowerment and change) individuals are provided the tools to think through problems, recognizing their emotion, engaging in dialogue, and promoting shared decision making. Depending on the nature of the problem there is potential for problems to evoke a number of human variables (emotion, cognitive, and behavioral).

For the practical purposes of our applied understanding for how the FACE Method works, we will be asking participants to identify one crucial problem for which they could address during the workshop. Depending on the number of participants, this will either be a group decision or individual.

The following provides an explanation of the FACE Method, which combines psychotherapy and neuroscience. Participants move through this process during the workshop gaining valued perspectives that can increase the effectiveness of the decision---making process and create opportunities to build these capacities in others.

Foundational awareness is the first point of reflection in establishing emotionally engaged thinking. The goal during this phase is for the leader to become aware of his or her emotions related to a problem or decision. Using basic prompts, individuals are asked to consider personal implications of a problem. During this first phase, individuals must come to terms with the problem – understanding that it exists in many contexts and could potentially have broad societal implications. This could be applied to any problem or complex situation, but is integral in establishing the foundation for moving forward.

The second phase is authentic engagement and is grounded in one's ability to truly relate to the problem. It is how a problem is identified with cognitively. It is often easy to place importance, or value, of a problem elsewhere. In other words fail to see the personal impact from a problem. Authentic engagement relates to how the individual sees him or herself in the scenario (how does this problem connect with who I am, what is my place with respect to the problem). This emotional response is based upon a perceived situation (anticipating what will happen) and can thus influence how the situation is approached. In order to best decide how to approach the situation, one must address how he or she feels about the problem. It provides a level of sincerity in being present in a moment. Key behaviors of authentic engagement include attentive listening, productive dialogue, and reflective thought.

In the third phase leaders are challenged with the big picture. Connective analysis, also a cognitive process, is the means for creating true meaning from an experience or problem. The individual has now embraced an emotional tie to the problem, has fully engaged with experience, and now must relate this experience to others. How can what is experienced provide insight into a future situation? Through connective analysis the 30,000 foot view emerges and one can see how or innermost emotions are often reflected in a number of situations. During this phase, we are also more inclined to be open to others ideas, emotions, and reactions to the same experience or problem. It is a time of connection within ourselves and to others.

Lastly, EET challenges individuals with empowerment and change (behavior). This phase moves participants from understanding and attitude change to action. The action stemming from this step forms the foundation for influencing others and building large---scale organizational and community change. If a leader can engage with his/her emotions and experiences, be present and authentic, and develop systems perspectives that provide connections to others and explain the complexities of issues, then the individual has the potential to influence sustainable change and create solutions for the complex adaptive challenges that exist within our ever---changing world.

Discussion Outcomes & Workshop Implications

To date, findings have indicated that there is tremendous benefit to learners engaging in the FACE Approach (Andenoro, Bigham, & Balser, 2014). Specifically, findings illustrate that learners show elevated levels of adaptive leadership capacity (inclusive of self---awareness, intercultural competence, desire for and understanding of collaboration, effective communication, and internal locus of control), systems thinking, and socially responsible agency (2014). This is currently being applied in corporate, higher education, and governmental agency

contexts that will provide additional data at the time of presentation. We fully expect participant' outcomes to align with our previous findings and create a foundation for implementing this instructional methodology with the learners they serve.

Through this innovative approach, leadership educators can go beyond the traditional educational methods of "open head, dump in knowledge" and explore new areas of learning immersed in affective shifts and behavioral changes. The approach serves as a powerful tool, equipping leadership learners with social science capacities and dispositions, which can be applied in complex adaptive ways to seemingly technical and linear problems. This integrated approach allows for interdisciplinary connections to be made by leadership learners, which have the potential to lead to transdisciplinary outcomes and leadership solutions that have far reaching implications for our world.

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Appendices

Presenters will model the FACE Approach during the facilitation of the workshop. Incisive questioning and application activities will take the place of handouts. Links to our website will provided (http://www.emotionallyengagedthinking.com/).

Relationship Management Skills: A foundation for Successful Leadership

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Abstract

Emotions permeate the classroom during instruction, both emotions from the teachers and from the students. Emotions play a very important role in learning; for such reason, they should not be ignored (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 1; Powell & Kosuma-Powell, 2010, p. 6). Positive emotions help anchor memories and learning; conversely, negative emotional experiences can lead students to disengage from their class and their learning (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 1). Thus, socially and emotionally competent teachers would be able to enhance their student´s learning, as well as be able to coach students through conflict situations, encourage cooperation among students, and act as role models of prosocial behavior (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492; Nizielski, Hallum, Lopes, & Schutz, 2012, p. 327). However, educators need to acquire social emotional competencies themselves first, in order for them to be able to model and teach those competencies to their students more effectively (Devaney et al., 2005, pp. 111-112). The problem is that currently most teacher training programs do not foster the development of emotional intelligence among them (MacPhee & Seligson, 2004, p. 80). Thus, the purpose of this workshop is to foster among leadership educators some EI competencies in order to aid them in their teaching practice. In this brief workshop some relationship management skills will be fostered. Participants will learn to enhance their empathy by fostering an empathetic listening strategy, as well as their negotiation and conflict resolution skills by learning and applying a negation strategy and a conflict resolution tool.

Introduction

Emotionally skilled teachers are more likely to show empathetic behavior, encourage a positive communication, and create a more effective learning environment. As a result, it could be conveyed that the emotional intelligence (EI) of teachers is as important to student learning as their subject area mastery or as the breadth of instructional strategies used (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 4; Powell & Kosuma-Powell, 2010, p. 7).

The purpose of this workshop is to foster among leadership educators some EI competencies in order to aid them in their teaching practice. Emotional Intelligence is a vast concept and much time is required to promote EI development in all of its areas. However, in this brief workshop some relationship management skills will be fostered. Relationship management according to Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002, p.51) includes persuasion, conflict management, and collaboration. It is the art of handling relationships well.

Within the workshop participants will learn to enhance their empathy by fostering an empathetic listening strategy, as well as their negotiation and conflict resolution skills by learning and applying a negation strategy and a conflict resolution tool. For achieving these, several strategies will be taught and practiced during the workshop. These aspects have been applied among

undergraduate students at the Universidad de Monterrey and among teachers and executives as part of a complete EI training program.

Review of Related Scholarship

Emotions permeate the classroom during instruction, both emotions from the teachers and from the students. Emotions play a very important role in learning; for such reason, they should not be ignored (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 1; Powell & Kosuma- Powell, 2010, p. 6). Our emotions play a very important role determining to what we pay attention to and what we choose to remember. Emotions guide our attention, our focus, and what we choose to ignore. Emotions regulate behavior and help us to create meaning to the world around us (Powell & Kosuma-Powell, 2010, p. 3). Positive emotions help anchor memories and learning; conversely, negative emotional experiences can lead students to disengage from their class and their learning (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 1).

Teachers are highly fundamental to the realization of quality education. Emotionally skilled teachers are more likely to show empathetic behavior, encourage a positive communication, and create a more effective learning environment. As a result, it could be conveyed that the emotional intelligence (EI) of teachers is as important to student learning as their subject area mastery or as the breadth of instructional strategies used (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 4; Powell & Kosuma-Powell, 2010, p. 7). It may be stated that teachers have the vital role of portraying and modeling social emotional competencies among their students (Devaney, O´Brien, Tavegia & Resnik, 2005, pp. 111- 112).

Accordingly, relationship management is important to develop among teachers. For Powell and Kusuma-Powell (2010, pp. 140-146), teachers are required to develop positive relationships in the classroom in order to be able to develop trust. Cultivating a trusting relationship is important, because it is considered a key element for facilitating learning. Developing and maintaining trust is vital for managing and creating a supportive learning environment. As a result, if trust is damaged, then student learning will be impaired. Relational trust is very important because it allows for teachers, parents, administrators, and students to understand their roles and responsibilities and how these interact. Having relational trust fosters confidence in that others will live up to the expectations of those relationships. Fostering trusting relationships is not a waste of time, because it promotes student learning.

EI and Leadership

Another reason for fostering EI among leadership educators is that according to some researchers (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2003, p.313) it is widely accepted that leadership is an emotion-laden process. Leadership involves influencing others in order to achieve a goal, and EI can facilitate this function. Leaders who manage their own emotions are more effective than those who are not able to manage their emotions (Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012, p. 11). For such reason, EI is very important in order for leaders to be effective and may be considered a cornerstone for leadership development.

In addition, Boyatzis (2007, p. 156) argues that there are three competencies that can predict outstanding leadership performance: cognitive ability, self-management, and relationship

management. Two of these three are key elements of EI. As a result, it could be said that EI is a foundation for leadership. El helps leaders have charisma and pay attention to the personal needs and qualities of the individual followers, which impacts their performance (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 771; Zeidner, Mathews & Roberts, 2012, pp. 267-271). Furthermore, some researchers have found that EI is a better predictor of transformational leadership than cognitive intelligence. It can be conveyed that leaders need to have as a foundation EI because it enables them to have quality social interactions, foster organizational commitment and job satisfaction, be able to solve conflicts effectively, foster better team and job performance, have prosocial behavior, establish harmonious relationships, and encourage organization citizenship among others (Zeidner et al., 2012, p. 273).

Teacher EI Training

So, the question is how can we foster EI among leadership educators? According to Kolb (as cited in Liptak, 2005) teaching EI is an experiential process in which learners plan an action, engage in it, and reflect on how effective it was. The learner takes the steps to either repeat such action or make adjustments. Liptak (2005) mentioned that an important strategy to use for EI development is teaching the participants to explore their EI, understand cognitively why they engage in effective and ineffective behaviors, and then seek to apply this wisdom in their daily lives and their workplace.

Establishing personal standards of performance is important. Thus, people need to give time to develop those areas they want to change and, for that, they need to learn to say no and remove some current activities. Acting on the plans and towards the goals is an important step, which involves many activities. Experimentation and practice are important here, including trying something different in a current context and giving time to reflect on the outcomes. The challenge is to practice to the point of mastery and not to the point of comfort. Finally, an important aspect for being able to change and develop EI is our relationships. Our relationships are part of our environment, and they provide mediators, interpreters, sources of feedback, and sources of support (Boyatzis, 2007, pp.162-165).

However, when we seek to teach adults, it is important for the workshop´s content to be flexible and be adapted according to participants' needs. In addition, the participants' previous experiences should be highly considered when implementing the training program; also, the role of the person leading the learning process should be more of a facilitator than that of a teacher. The participants must learn the usefulness and possible positive impact of what they are learning in order to be highly motivated and have an open perspective on learning from the training program's contents (Boyatzis, 2007, p. 160; Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2002, pp. 48-49, 238-239).

Finally, emotional and social change needs to occur in a safe and supportive setting, and the relationship between the trainers and the learners becomes crucial in defining how safe and supportive the learning environment is for the participants. It is assumed that live models that demonstrate the skills and competencies to be mastered are more effective than simply focusing on declarative knowledge or telling learners what to do and how to do it. In addition, most of the learning should involve experiential practices rather than lecture and discussion. There should be

opportunities for the learners to practice the new skills, both within the training and in other domains of life (Mathews et al., 2002, p. 499). As a result, many of the strategies mentioned above have been taken into account and will be applied within the EI workshop.

Lesson Plan Description

Approximately 70% of our presentation will engage the audience in active participation. We believe that participants can provide valuable knowledge and that they hold great experience, which can enhance the wrokshop. Also, we are certain that the best learning occurs when teamwork is promoted and when attendees are involved in the learning process. For such reason, we will start the session by briefly providing information about Emotional Intelligence; here the participants will be asked to share why they believe educators should portray EI skills. Then, the workshop´s content will be introduced, explaining that it will focus on the relationship management EI competency. The three aspects that will be practiced within the workshop will be mentioned.

The first aspect that will be fostered is empathetic listening. Here the topic and strategy will be briefly introduced. Then, the suggested strategy will be implemented, asking participants to apply it with a colleague. The participants will share how they felt using the strategy and their perception on the usefulness of such strategy. Next, the importance of effective negotiation and a negotiation strategy will be briefly explained. The participants will implement the strategy by solving a case scenario within small groups. The participants will share their case resolution and how they felt using the proposed strategy. Finally, the importance of solving conflicts in an effective manner will be introduced. Then, a conflict resolution strategy will be presented and the participants will be asked to apply it to a specific case scenario. Participants will share their strategy implementation results and mention their perception regarding its usefulness for conflict resolution. The three strategies will be reviewed and time for questions will be granted.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The content of the proposed presentation is based on the comprehensive doctoral research of one of the presenters. It is based on a complete EI training program, oriented towards educators, designed by one of the presenters; as well as on her doctoral dissertation, titled “Designing an Emotional Intelligence Training Program for Teachers from Private Schools of Monterrey, Mexico (October, 2014).” In addition, it is founded on her experience as graduate professor on the topic of Social and Emotional Competencies and Learning. Finally, it is based on the experience of both presenters as undergraduate leadership professors, leadership course developers, and professional development trainers and consultants.

The proposed strategies have been implemented at leadership courses by both presenters among undergraduate students and by one of the presenters among graduate students. Also, these strategies, as well as other EI strategies, have been implemented by both presenters among executives and educators at Monterrey, Mexico. Positive results have been obtained when implementing the proposed strategies among participants. Most participants express their interest on the topic and the usefulness of what they have learned.

Workshop Implications

Participants will leave with the knowledge and application of three strategies that foster relationship management skills. During the workshop the participants will learn about the importance of EI development among leadership educators and about three strategies that promote the development of relationship management skills. Also, they will gain practical experience on how to apply each strategy in their personal and professional relationships. Participants will exit the presentation with practical knowledge, strategies, and techniques that they may implement in their lives and which can also be taught among their students.

Workshop´s Goals

1. Participants will be guided to practice and value listening to others in an empathetic way; as evidenced by implementing an empathetic listening strategy with a colleague and by some of them sharing such experience with the whole group.
2. Participants will be able to apply strategies for achieving positive results for both parties when negotiating; as evidenced by solving a case scenario through implementing the negotiation strategy.
3. Participants will be able to apply a strategy for achieving a positive result when addressing a situation that promotes an emotional response; as evidenced by solving a case study scenario through implementing the blueprint tool strategy.

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The Power of Stories: Deliberative Civic Engagement as a Leadership Development Strategy

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Abstract

The purpose of this educator workshop is to illustrate a deliberative civic engagement approach designed to increase the civic leadership capacity of individuals interested in making progress on tough challenges. We will model how storytelling techniques can be utilized as both pedagogical strategy and research methodology in spaces of community-engaged scholarship. In this session, participants will engage in a "community conversation" around civic leadership and change; identify their own role as social change agents for causes they care about; and consider how deliberative civic engagement techniques, story circles, and embodied ways of knowing may contribute to community capacity building and development of socially responsible leadership within their own context, program, or platform.

The Path Less Traveled: Facilitating Learning about Path-Goal Leadership Theory Through Experiential Pedagogy

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Abstract

This workshop showcases innovative active and experiential learning strategies to facilitate Path-Goal Theory (PGT) with leadership students. In this session, experienced leadership educators will expound the theory and demonstrate how PGT can be used in the classroom as an observation instrument to assess team effectiveness and motivation towards goal attainment. Additionally, facilitators will highlight how expectancy and motivation influence leadership effectiveness, highlight best practices, and lead participants in a focused discussion and debrief.

Introduction

PGT is used extensively in leadership theory and survey courses to demonstrate how leaders motivate others to accomplish designated goals. According to Northouse (2013), the stated goal of this leadership theory is to enhance employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation (p. 137). However, PGT is best used as an assessment tool versus an applied theory, meaning leaders should assess followers and their tasks, and then adjust their leadership style accordingly. The purpose of this session is to demonstrate how PGT can be used in the classroom as an observation instrument to assess team effectiveness and motivation towards goal attainment.

Review of Related Scholarship

Experiential pedagogies—processes through which learners construct knowledge, skill, and value from experience (Luckman, 1996)—are widely used in used in leadership education (Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012a). And, perhaps, rightly so. Jenkins (2012b) supports this trend and argues that leadership educators focus more attention on the application of leadership (e.g., identifying uses of leadership models, theories, or approaches in other contexts) than on the foundational knowledge of leadership (e.g., history and development of leadership models). Yet, the capacity to reflect relates directly to how effectively individuals can learn from their personal experiences (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 2013). Arguably, instructors who employ the abovementioned instructional strategies must create conditions where students can practice said techniques. As a result, it is imperative that leadership educators can effectively facilitate application-based experiential and active learning environments in their classrooms.

This session focuses on PGT and its pragmatic use as an observation instrument to assess team effectiveness and motivation towards goal attainment. According to Northouse (2013):

The underlying assumption of path–goal theory is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a certain outcome, and if they believe that the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile. ...the challenge is to use a leadership style that best meets subordinates' motivational needs. This is done by choosing behaviors that complement or supplement what is missing in the work setting. (p. 137)

Correspondingly, linking activities that provide students with opportunities to engage in simulated scenarios and examine how contextual and relational variables impact a leader's ability to be effective may create the conditions to explore PGT. According to Dellow and Jenkins (2014), "by providing students with structured observation experiences, leadership educators can facilitate opportunities for students to be mindful of the presence or absence of specific leadership behaviors" (p. 13). Further, a dedicated forum to reflect on their own leadership behaviors or perhaps contemplating experimenting with or changing others—such as a focused debrief or reflection paper (e.g., Densten & Gray, 2001)—allows for theory informing practice in a very real way.

- This activity provides students with an opportunity to engage in simulated scenarios and examine how contextual and relational variables impact a leader's ability to be effective. Moreover, this activity allows for student interaction as well as observation, to demonstrate the constructs
- The major learning outcomes should allow for participants to explore how the variables of the task or challenge at hand, the process or decision-making system, and the primary work group/member affect each group member's motivation with respect to the group path and goal.

Lesson Plan Description

This activity provides students with an opportunity to engage in simulated scenarios and examine how contextual and relational variables impact a leader's ability to be effective. Moreover, this activity allows for student interaction as well as observation, to distinguish between the constructs of situational (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), and PGT (House & Mitchell, 1974) theories of leadership.

Accordingly, facilitators will immerse attendees in PGT through the following agenda:

I. Welcome and Introductions
II. Discussion related to distinguishing PGT from Situational theories of leadership
III. Break attendees into small groups and assign case study scenarios and role players as well as non-group member observers. While groups engage in decision-making processes, allow observers to watch the group dynamics of each role-play group and complete their Observation Instruments.
IV. Debrief
    a. Primary debrief with group members to explore task and subordinate characteristics
    b. Secondary debrief with observers to explore group dynamics and leader effectiveness

c. Facilitate conversation on additional Observation Instrument notes

V. Q&A

VI. Conclude

Additional details regarding the specific activity that conference attendees will engage in appears in the Appendices.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

PGT suggests that leaders consider their followers' skills before delegating responsibility, motivate them to perform the assigned task, and reward those who exceed expectations. By utilizing this PGT simulation activity in the classroom, the facilitators helped students explore how expectancy and motivation influenced leader effectiveness. In addition, they provided opportunities to experiment with applying feedback related to leadership effectiveness. By introducing PGT as distinctly different in practice from Situational theories of leadership, students developed a baseline for its utility as a form of assessment versus action. As a result, the students became cognizant of the importance of prioritizing tasks, assessing skill and motivation, and determining the leadership style best suited for their followers in a given situation.

The facilitators have simulated this activity with undergraduate and graduate students in leadership theory courses. The specific activities spawned from the work of Dellow and Jenkins (2014) and their use of observation instruments to assess the leadership behaviors of others. While students may not have an opportunity to observe groups tackling multiple and diverse challenges in their own organizations, this activity provides such a forum. To date, student reactions have been positive and in fact, are often referred to specifically in instructor evaluations. In particular, students appreciate the opportunity to examine and act out the case study scenarios. Moreover, students reported explicit affinity for the observation component and how it provided a unique break from interacting within the decision-making unit and instead provided an "on the balcony" experience (i.e., Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009).

This activity is designed to serve as a mechanism for coalescing students' understanding of how subordinate and task characteristics influence a leader's effectiveness. Instructors should pay close attention to the perceptive differences that emerge among each case scenario leader, the other group members in each case, and the observers. The multiple vantage points provide an optimal combination of perspectives for further discussion. Hence, the major learning outcomes should allow for participants to explore how the variables of the task or challenge at hand, the process or decision-making system, and the primary work group/member affect each group member's motivation with respect to the group path and goal.

Workshop Implications

As a result of participating in this activity, participants will:

- Develop a better understanding of the differences between Situational and PGT theories of leadership
- Explore how expectancy and motivation influence leader effectiveness

- Identify the influence of task, process, and work group factors on leader effectiveness
- Have opportunities to experiment applying feedback related to leadership effectiveness

Appendix A: Facilitator Guide

Setting Up the Activity

- Group Size: The activity is open for any group size. However, it is recommended that no more than four individuals act out each case scenario.
- Estimated Time: 50 - 60 minutes
- Training Method: This activity includes elements of discussion, case study analysis, role-play, feedback & assessment, and debrief
- Materials, Equipment, and Supplies
    - Case study scenarios
    - Observation Instruments
- Room Set Up: The room setup for this activity can vary. It is optimal to have groups separated by scenario with enough room to allow for open dialogue.
- Use of multimedia: Optional. The Observation Instruments can be used to assess fictional groups (for example, the case studies provided) in films or TV series, such as the jury in 12 Angry Men or co-workers in The Office.

Directions:

1. Begin the activity by reviewing the differences and similarities among Situational (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), Contingency (Fiedler, 1964), and Path-goal (House & Mitchell, 1974) theories of leadership. Specifically, point out that the difference between path-goal and situational and contingency theories of leadership is that it emphasizes the relationship between the leader's styles, the characteristics of the subordinates, and the work setting (Northouse, 2013).
2. Explain that the underlying mechanism of path-goal theory deals with expectancy--a cognitive approach to understanding motivation where people calculate effort-to-performance probabilities, performance-to-outcome probability, and assigned valences or value of outcomes. The effective leader must provide or ensure: (a) the availability of valued rewards for followers (the goal); and (b) helping them find the best way of getting there (the path) (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2015).
3. Introduce the Four Leader Behaviors of Path-goal Theory: (a) Directive Leadership; (b) Supportive Leadership; © Participative Leadership; and Achievement-oriented Leadership (House & Mitchell, 1974). Then, explain that these behaviors can influence follower's perception of their own abilities as well as satisfaction among three situational factors: (a) the task; (b) the formal authority system; and © the primary work group.
4. Allow time for discussion and exploration of the theory.
5. Create four groups of participants and assign each group to a case study.
6. Then, assign remaining participants as observers, equally dispersing among available groups. Provide each observer with the Observation Instrument.
7. Allow each group to work through the case study as role-players and arrive at a solution. Concurrently, allow observers to watch the group dynamics of each role-play group and complete their Observation Instruments.
8. Debrief each group with the following discussion questions that relate to Subordinate

and Task Characteristics, allowing time for each group leader, individual group members, and observers to respond:

a. What did you hope to get out of the resolution of this challenge?
b. Did the leader help the group members understand the goal at hand? If yes, how? If not, what could the leader have done better to help the group members envision the goal?
c. Did the leader create a clear path to meeting each group's goal? If yes, how? If not, what could the leader have done to create a clearer path? What were the essential components of the path?
    a. What did the leader do well/poorly with respect to the process of solving each group's challenge?
    ii. Was the leader "in tune," sympathetic, or empathetic with group members' individual, personal, and/or emotional concerns regarding the issue at hand?
d. How did the task at hand--meaning individual group member's overall interest in the case/situation--affect each member's ability to come up with an agreed upon solution?
e. How did the decision-making system affect each individual group member's ability to come up with an agreed upon solution?
f. How did the group dynamic affect each member's ability to come up with an agreed upon solution?
g. Which of the four leader behaviors would have been most appropriate for the challenge/group?

9. Finally, debrief the Observers and allow them share the notes they jotted down on their Observation Instruments.

Debriefing Notes

The conclusion of this section of the curriculum is designed to serve as a mechanism for coalescing students' understanding of how subordinate and task characteristics influence a leader's effectiveness. Pay close attention to the perceptive differences that emerge among each case scenario leader, the other group members in each case, and the observers. The multiple vantage points provide an optimal combination of perspectives for further discussion. Facilitators should note too that path-goal theory is best used as an assessment too, meaning leaders should assess followers and their task, and then adjust their leadership style accordingly.

Facilitator Notes

The major learning outcomes should allow for participants to explore how the variables of the task or challenge at hand, the process or decision-making system, and the primary work group/member affect each group member's motivation with respect to the group path and goal.

Appendix B: Example Case Studies

Case Study A: Imagine you are student body president at a local university or college. Forty-eight hours ago, a student opened fire during an orientation event in front of the student union. He killed 12 of his fellow students, 10 faculty and staff members, and injured five others before taking his own life in a nearby residence hall on campus. The area is still an active crime scene. Classes are suspended for the remainder of the week while campus officials and administrators determine what to do next. The president and his top administrators have called you to a meeting and given you the task of reassuring the student body that returning to campus next week will be safe. Discuss what you would do as the student body president charged with this task. What would your plan of action be?

Case Study B: Imagine you are an administrator at a large public research university. The president has just called an emergency meeting for all of her office staff in the conference room. As you and the other 11 employees in the office file into the conference room, the air is humming with rumors about a promotion, a raise, or even an extra day off work. However, once the president enters the room, the atmosphere immediately changes. The look on her face tells the whole office this meeting is about to very quickly go downhill. The president walks to the front of the conference table and slams her hand down. Everyone jumps. The next words out of her mouth take everyone by surprise. She screams, "We are not leaving this room until someone confesses to eating my last everything bagel!" As the newly appointed Chair of the President's Bagel Cabinet, she demands you investigate the matter and determine what to do with the culprit.

Case Study C: Imagine you are student body president at a well-established university in the South. During the most recent Board of Trustees meeting, the newly hired university president proposed that the school mascot be changed from a confederate soldier to an American revolutionary soldier. As a member of the Board, you immediately discouraged the idea, citing that the student body and alumni would adamantly oppose this long-standing tradition. However, the president managed to convince the majority of the Board that changing the mascot would appeal to many of the underrepresented students on campus and community at large, as well as enhance the meaning of the team name, the Rebels. After all, nothing is more patriotic than the image of a militiaman with an Eagle on his shoulder. You remain unconvinced, but the Board asked you to find money in your budget to pay for a portion of the new branding campaign. How will you facilitate a conversation with your student senators on finding money in the student fees to pay for this?

Case Study D: Imagine that you have been asked to take over as head of customer relations for Foursquare, a location-based check-in app that in June 2014 boasted 50 million users worldwide. It is important to note however that in July 2014, Foursquare decided to shift away from "checking in" at certain locations around the world, and focus more on helping users search for nearby places. According to Elise Hu of NPR, within hours of the launch Twitter hashtags #hatswarm and #killswarm were rampant. Additionally, Swarm's app store ratings have yet to exceed a two out of five star rating. Finally, this video captures current customer sentiments: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DQAJmmVsi1g Since the launch of Swarm, users have been steadily declining. Your job is to decide what is best for the future of Foursquare. Meet

with your team of developers and customer relations directors to get to the bottom of this crisis and come to a solution.

Appendix C: Example Observation Instrument

Task *What do you observe the leader's tasks to be?*	How are the four leadership behaviors affecting the leaders ability to assign tasks? How are the leader's behaviors affecting the group's ability to accomplish/complete each task?
Authority/ Decision-making System *Who/What is the authority/decision-making system?*	Which of the four leadership behaviors are affecting the authority/decision-making system? How? How is the authority/decision-making system affecting: (a) the leader's behavior and (b) the group?

Primary Work Group/Members	How are the characteristics of the group members influencing the: (a) leader's effectiveness; and (b) individual group member's ability to perform?

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Educator Workshop: Delivering a Video-Based Class on Leadership, Spirituality, and Religion

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Abstract

Leaders are increasingly required to pay attention to religious and spiritual diversity in communities and organizations. This educator workshop focuses on teaching a class about leadership, religion, and spirituality using a video and accompanying resources created by the presenters. The video includes interviews with various experts on the topic.

Introduction

Organizations are increasingly required to pay attention to the religious and spiritual diversity of employees, communities, and other stakeholders. Future leaders will need the skill to facilitate cooperation among diverse individuals and groups in an environment that includes diverse and possibly unfamiliar beliefs, values, and practices. Globalization and changing demographics in the United States have made religious and spiritual diversity an increasingly relevant challenge for leaders. But are we preparing future leaders for this? In addition, for many leaders, spirituality and religion are a source of resilience, purpose, and guidance.

In 2014 the presenters received a grant from ALE to create a short instructional video (<30 minutes) on leadership, religion, and spirituality. In this workshop the finished video will be screened. The video features interviews with a number of leading experts (authors, instructors, and researchers) on this topic. Given the potentially controversial understandings of the topic, a video resource can be a powerful aid for opening the dialogue around this issue. Workshop participants will have free access to the video for future use (by DVD or online streaming video). We will also integrate the findings of two previous studies on including religion and spirituality as a topic in leadership courses (citations removed for blind review) into the workshop. Participants will: collaboratively explore the merits of including this topic in courses, share previous experiences with the topic, discuss uses of the video, highlight principles for teaching this topic, provide guidance for handling controversial topics in the classroom, review resources for teaching, and outline future challenges and opportunities for teaching. The workshop will explore the inclusion of this topic in undergraduate and graduate leadership courses in both non-sectarian and belief-aligned higher education programs. The video and educator workshop were developed with a diverse audience in mind and focus on teaching about the relationships between leadership, religion, and spirituality rather than teaching religion or spirituality.

Review of Related Scholarship

Interest in spirituality and religion has grown in leadership and management literature in the last 15 years (Benefiel & Fry, 2014). Since 2000 there has also been a small, steady stream of presentations and publications on including spirituality and religious themes in leadership and management education programs (e.g., Delbecq, 2010; Dhiman & Marques, 2011; Fry, 2009; Klenke, 2003; McCormick, 2010; Nash & Scott, 2008; Pielstick, 2005; Trott, 2012). Most explore principles for teaching, while some include suggestions for readings or examples of activities or case reports of classes. As contributors to this stream of research, the presenters have conducted studies on students' views on the inclusion of this topic (citation removed for blind review), and instructors' perceptions of the topic and principles used when teaching on this issue (citation removed for blind review).

It has long been recognized that controversial topics are a key part of higher education (Misco, 2012; Watson, 1965), although discussion of religious issues is often seen as a taboo in US society (Jacobsen & Jacobsen, 2013). Religion is a normal part of American life, and it seems strange to relegate the issue to the too-hot category when students will realistically encounter issues of difference upon becoming leaders in a diverse and pluralistic society. In the context of leadership, the leader's ability to engage others who are different from them is a key skill, given that many constituents, followers, and peers may have different beliefs (Hicks, 2009). While discussion of such topics influences the normativity of the issue (Misco, 2012), facilitation of such discussion may require specific subject matter expertise and experience in teaching. Certain rules of engagement are necessary considerations when engaging such topics in the classroom (Citation removed for blind review). Foundational readings or prepared materials (Graseck, 2009) are one way of ensuring that students can engage in productive discussion and understand the context within which the topic is being included.

Growth in workplace diversity, including spiritual and religious diversity, has created new challenges for leaders (Hicks, 2009). Concurrently, in the literature there has been an expanding interest in the intersection of leadership, work, religion, spirituality, meaning, purpose, wellbeing, and resilience (Fry & Nisiewicz, 2013). Together these trends result in the increased relevance of spiritual and religious topics to leadership education and development programs. As Fry (2009) notes,

"In our colleges and universities, future leaders are being trained to offer to the world unique solutions to complex global concerns. It will be those with a strong sense of personal spiritual leadership through vision, hope/faith, and love who will create ideas and solutions that successfully address the global problems and the extraordinary complexities society is facing" (p. 82).

Future leaders may benefit from awareness and skill in working with diverse groups, as well as developing personal resources and self-awareness (e.g., personal spiritual practice). This approach recognizes the whole-person that each student brings to leadership education (Dent, Higgins, & Wharff, 2005). As a result, leadership education and development programs have reason to include this topic in preparing leaders for future roles, either as a brief lesson topic, as a theme in a course or program, or an entire class (citation removed for blind review). With the central role that religion and spirituality plays in leaders' and communities' identities, resilience,

wellbeing, motivation, values, and development, instructors also require an awareness and some skill when encountering or including this topic in the classroom. This educator workshops aims to share some of the key considerations for instructional practice when engaging this topic.

Lesson Plan Description

A round-table (banquet) format will include video screening, discussion sessions, brief presentations, and concurrent breakout sessions. All aspects of the workshop will be interactive.

1. Introduction of facilitators, video, and topic (5 minutes)

2. Workshop participants introduce themselves and their experiences (10 minutes)

3. Participants discuss benefits, concerns, and principles for including spirituality, religion, and leadership (10 minutes)

4. Presentation of presenters' previous student and faculty study results, including benefits and concerns around including spirituality, religion, and leadership in classes (10 minutes)

5. Discuss previous study findings with an emphasis on tips for teaching practice previously identified (10 minutes)

6. Screen instructional video (25 minutes). The video covers a number of topics through interviews with interviews with experts:
   - The rise in interest in the intersection of spirituality, religion, leadership, and the workplace.
   - The relevance of this trend to leaders, including the challenges of leading and working in a pluralistic workplace.
   - Key terms and theories, such as the difference between religion and spirituality.
   - The role of religion and spiritualty in a leader's development and practice.

7. Forming a lesson plan: Table discussion of the topics in the video, with an emphasis on how to use the video segments in instruction (15 minutes)

8. Discussion of further resources for teaching (5 minutes)

9. Close (5 minutes)

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This video was designed to be used in undergraduate and graduate classes on leadership and management. The video has not been used in an instructional setting, due to the fact that the video production project will only conclude in April; however, all the interviews with various

national experts are complete and these experts, as well as the presenters, have substantial experience with presenting the ideas and issues compiled in the video.

The expected learner outcomes of this video and related instructional materials in such classes are as follows:

- Increased awareness of the relevance of spiritual and religious topics to leadership in the diverse workplace.
- Awareness of the value of personal development (e.g. reflection on values) in leader growth and development
- Knowledge of various recommended techniques and practices for having discussions about religion and spirituality in a diverse group.
- Decrease in apprehension and/or fear of entering such conversations with other students who may be of a different SR background.

Workshop Implications

This workshops focuses on new and experienced leadership educators interested in the teaching principles and resources needed for including spirituality and religion in classes and programs. The workshop is inclusive, in terms of focusing on non-sectarian and religiously-aligned programs. This workshop will be collaborative and will create dialogue between educators around challenges and opportunities in this area. Benefits to participants include the opportunity to explore:

- Reasons for including leadership, religion, and spirituality as a topic in leadership programs, including concerns and challenges. For example, the workshop will cover concerns around proselytizing, church-state separation, indoctrination, and zealous students and instructors, as well as benefits, such as preparing students to lead and work in diverse environments and contributions to whole person development.

- Planning and delivering classes on this topic. Various practical principles will be explored from the presenters' previous studies, as well as the broader literature on this topic, such as the need to build skills for dialogue, clarifying terms like spirituality and religion, respecting students' privacy, and the importance of linking teaching to practical applications.

- Video and associated resources (e.g., suggested readings, discussions, class activities, and assignments) that can be used or adapted to various courses and topics. Participants will have opportunity to share resources they have discovered, but will also gain access to the presenters' video and associated materials.

Instructors and students often show an interest in this topic. This workshop will provide participants with access to resources and create discussion for further development of teaching skills, resources, and instructional practice.

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Teaching for Enhanced Engagement

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Abstract

Are you teaching if no one is learning? As leadership educators, being responsive and relevant to your students impacts your potential to not only teach content, but model effective means of influence and environmental perceptiveness. Offered by a professional speaker, this program is a practical approach to enhanced teaching methodologies.

Introduction

When teaching educators to be more effective, it's essential to challenge current assumptions in a non-judgmental and threatening manner. It's also important to tap the enormous talents and experiences of participants. With more sophisticated students coming to class aside less prepared students, what can professors do to reach everyone? How do you keep it fresh, relevant and engaging?

This session will offer the preliminary assumption: You are whom they get. This point is followed by questions around perceived achievement of desirable learning outcomes. Through the use of original assessments, learning outcomes of teaching are reviewed with discussion around the most significant ones. Various opportunities to experience the value in paying attention to how information is taught is covered with easy to employ tips on effective "presentation" skills including how to draw out responses, challenge lower level thinking, processing comments, setting up exercises and so on.

It is my goal to provide valuable teaching tools and encourage risk taking while having participants actively dialog throughout the program and personalize the process. As a parent of two recent college students, daughter of two college professors, and "inspirational educator," I believe in raising the bar. We need to expect more out of our students and model the value in holding one another accountable. Not everyone should get an A just for "showing up."

Lesson Plan Description

This program outline is fluid and is a guideline. My style is to read the audience and although there is a written outline, I'm attempting to model the value in being less "tied" to a script and more intentional in achieving a desirable set of learning outcomes.

OPENING: Entertaining story of presenter's first day as a college student.

Offer motivation to take what fits from the presentation.

Take inventory of the experiences and expertise in the room.

OPENING EXERCISE: Going out of your comfort zone.

Review of Session Learning Outcomes:

- Learn how learning outcomes direct your teaching
- Know how to better engage students
- Appreciate the impact of logistics for high engagement
- Improve teaching techniques
- Enhance confidence levels in trying new methodologies

Offer encouragement to bring best self to the teaching process.

EXERCISE: Ways of drawing out participation by having participants identify their expectations for the learning process.

Offer lesson on how to set high expectations and why this is an important characteristic of effective educators. This speaks to the "responsibility" component. The other four characteristics of good teachers include:

- Seek to connect
- Employ a comfortable style
- Be credible
- Be available

EXERCISE: Participants take assessment "Desirable Outcomes of Teaching"

Using a conversational process, review the top learning priorities and why they are relevant to today's student learner in a leadership class.

Offer considerations for teaching to engage – including a demonstration on how airplanes "fly." Break down the learning process (including attention to the environment) – using a demonstration with participants.

Bring in a discussion of the "WHO" in the equation – review of today student characteristics.

As time permits: Offer a host of teaching formats and give practice opportunities.

Offer lesson on different types of teaching tools supported by an exercise to back up strategies.

CLOSING: Discussion of how you know whether or not you've "connected" with students and they've connected with one another. This is a rather humorous but truthful list of indicators of the potential lasting impact to be realized when educators care about their ability to engage and connect with their students – then decide to do something to become even better!

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

As a result of attending this interactive and experiential session, participants will…

- Learn how learning outcomes direct your teaching
- Know how to better engage students
- Appreciate the impact of logistics for high engagement
- Improve teaching techniques
- Enhance confidence levels in trying new methodologies

Workshop Plan and Implications

Much of this program is an intentional discussion in a fun, informative and honest manner between educators. The challenges of trying to teach and reach today's students will be addressed and why it is important not to give up by lowering our standards. In fact, the significance of clearly articulated goals and learning objectives is core to this presentation.

The other significant implication of this program is to learn by observing and participating in the engagement methodologies as offered by an experienced professional trainer of educators. Again, I don't want to disrespect the "no personally identifying information" criteria, yet the fact I am called upon to speak to entire university faculties and at national conferences on enhanced teaching techniques suggests the role of "leading by example."

Numerous exercises, pairings, self-assessments, list call-outs, demonstrations and so on make up an important part of delivering content in this session.

Appendices

A sample handout is attached to this proposal.

Appendix (Handout)

Teaching for Enhanced Engagement with Zing!

"The man who can make hard things easy is the educator."
- Ralph Waldo Emerson

Quick question before I take up your seconds, minutes and part of your lifetime… Do you have it? Despite your years of experience teaching students, are they still learning? There's always something new, fun and engaging to add to your efforts. Why not be open to a new approach, creative methodology, and enhanced performance? Is this not what we ask of our students? Isn't this what it means to be a leader?

STRATEGY 1 – Think before you speak. For instance, how well do you really know your "audience" – don't assume you know them. The following is a list of considerations to contemplate and prior to identifying your proper teaching methodologies and tools:

- Accustomed to "fast moving" and straightforward method of acquiring

information.

- Passive learners willing to participate if challenged.
- Easily distracted or in their own heads – sometimes, checking voice messaging and texting.
- Impatient in knowing what it is they might be "tested" on or need to recall – what's most important?
- Overly confident in what they think they might know compared to actual knowledge.
- Wealth and diversity of experiences.
- Sensitive to those around them and various causes – quick to point out if offended.
- In attendance for a variety of reasons – mandatory isn't always a bad thing. Not always good, either.
- Possess different learning styles
- Technology dependent and savvy
- Effective multi-taskers
- Prefer "access" to information

STRATEGY 2 – Use your technology to support your efforts – it is not the presentation, you are!!! Consider the following tips on being more technically competent:

- Keep to five slide per one hour of presentation - no more.
- On five slides, stick to five points or go to another slide.
- For your five points per slide, keep writing to five words.
- Use 12 pt font for handouts – spell out in complete sentences.
- Never copy slide as the handout.
- Pay attention to the room logistics and lightening.
- Test all equipment prior to presentation.
- Be willing to let go of technical support if it's not working right away – move on.
- Use current music.

"Teaching should be such that what is offered is perceived
as a valuable gift and not as a hard duty."
- Albert Einstein

Components of Consideration for Engaging Teaching

LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

SENDER (YOU) ---------- MESSAGE ---------- RECEIVER (the students)

MEANS OF DELIVERY (Methodology and Format)

STRATEGY 3 – Use creative engagement techniques. Your goal is to make connections with your students and staff by inspiring enhanced engagement and involvement by your students and staff, not by talking at them.

What "ineffective" or "non-engaging" looks like:

- Instructor doesn't "know" his or her audience
- Lack of proper "set up" or relevancy found for students
- Nothing is learned and no one is changed
- Transitioning from class to class is confusing
- Teaching tools out of "sink" with students (i.e. outdated reference)
- Provokes violent or extreme reactions leading to an unsafe environment
- Disregard for the "human element" – or comfort level of participants
- Attempts to cover too much material – overwhelming or disorganized
- Instructor isn't "practicing what he or she is preaching!"

Considerations for Engagement:

1. Selection of content: What is the specific information or understanding you want to highlight?
2. Presentation/Teaching format: How can you best structure your interactions?
3. Formulation of examples: What can you use to make the content relevant and interesting?
4. Style of presentation: How can you connect and draw students to you?
5. Teaching methodologies: What teaching tools can be used to engage and present content?

Teaching and Training Format Options:

- Individual (self-assessments – students work in isolation)
- Demonstrations (visuals using people or things) Example: Formulas using people
- Personal Interaction (between the facilitator and group) Example: Why not now?
- Lecture (from teacher to student)
- One-on-One (among participants themselves like being asked to "pair up") Example:
- Small Group or Group Projects (breaking group up into smaller groups) NOT
- Entire Group (interacting at the same time) Example: Simon Says

Components of Effective Teaching Methodologies:

- Allows for the building of comfort from individual to two individuals to four to group
- Personally inspirational and thought provoking
- Encourages examination of self and reflective structures

- Appropriate use of PowerPoint, visuals and support activities
- Contains means of identifying growth
- Varied and unique in approach
- Utilizes a diversity of teaching formats and tools

"How to tell students what to look for without telling them
what to see is the dilemma of teaching."
- Lascelles Abercrombie

Intentional Outcomes of Teaching Tools:

- Provide content (reinforce a lesson or teach specific information)
- Inspire critical thinking and provide the relevancy or "personal connection" to a topic
- Encourage additional interest in related topics
- Promote personal contributions to learning environment
- Offer means of receiving feedback around personal development and leadership potential
- Facilitate self-discovery by breaking down barriers
- Challenge participant's inaccurate self-perceptions or leadership assumptions
- Inspire safe interaction among participants
- Build participant's confidence and self-esteem and motivate participants to have fun and relax
- Build a positive relationship between the facilitator and participants
- Identify areas of needed skill development (raise levels of self-consciousness)
- Wake up participants or get them energized

"Teaching should be such that what is offered is perceived
as a valuable gift and not as a hard duty."
- Albert Einstein

Types of Training Tools:

1. Activities and Exercises – participants are physically and or mentally engaged.

Examples:

- Using participants as "props" or "visual aids" or "formulas"
- Having group stand from shortest to tallest without speaking
- Asking participants to "speak to the wall" as a means of practicing something
- Challenging participants to "stand up if…" or "go to this side of the room if…"
- Visualization instructions ("Close your eyes and imagine yourself in five years…")
- Sing-a-longs
- Repetitive phrases or responses
- Simon Says – or playful games like Red Light Green Light

2. Physical Objects – distributed to some or all participants to engage the group. Examples:
    - Puzzle pieces
    - 3x5 cards
    - Blank sheets of paper
    - Cards you've created
    - Journals
    - Tennis balls to throw around
    - Board game
    - Large sheets of newsprint
    - Stickers or Post-Its

3. Literary Materials – words and writings you create or research. Examples:
    - Quotes
    - Short stories
    - Excerpts from books
    - Summaries of autobiographies – or excerpts
    - Poems
    - Speeches from significant leaders or figures

4. Handouts – materials created and distributed to participants. Examples:
    - Inventories or assessments
    - Case studies
    - Series of questions
    - Check off lists
    - Discussion questions
    - Quizzes
    - Fill in the blank lists
    - Worksheets or charts

5. Other Senses – utilization of more unique senses. Examples:
    - Audio of famous speeches
    - Songs of significance (i.e. Jackson's "Man in the Mirror," Clapton's "Change the World")
    - Taste (For example offering candy as a means of helping participants remember…(Lollipops, Tootsie Rolls, Bubble Gum…)
    - Hands on shoulders
    - Shaking hands or High Fives
    - Observation

STRATEGY 4 – Have a good style!

Think about the most engaging instructor you have had the honor of hearing… what was it that connected you to him or her? It's usually never just one thing; it's many traits, behaviors and attitudes.

Characteristics of Effective Styles and Personalities:

- Genuine, informative, humorous and inspiring,
- Well prepared, passionate, punctual and confident,
- Appropriate, respectful, in control and having fun,
- Uses original material, current date and has quality handouts,
- Understands non-verbal communication,
- Has original thoughts and isn't afraid to share them,
- Encourages and requires participation,
- Avoids reading from verbatim from notes,
- Changes lecture style to fit the audience,
- Follows allocated time schedule,
- Stimulates additional thinking, and
- Doesn't give the same lecture twice.

Desirable Outcomes of Teaching: An Exploration

Directions: Use the scale on the left to indicate your level of agreement with the following potential outcomes of your engagement efforts. What do you believe are the priorities of your efforts to reach and teach students? Think of examples to back up your responses. Agree (A) Agree Sometimes (AS) Disagree (D) Unsure (U)

As a result of my education efforts, students will…

		A	**AS**	**D**	**U**
1.	Actively seek ways to contribute to the learning and growth process.				
2.	Have access to a trustworthy confident.				
3.	Understand there are legitimate reasons for rules or deadlines.				
4.	Explore their personal motivations behind decision making.				
5.	Become more curious.				
6.	Value different perspectives.				
7.	Learn how to judge others less (increased open mindedness.)				
8.	Enjoy the process of learning.				
9.	Seek opportunities to challenge their current understandings.				
10.	Develop a healthy outlook on life.				
11.	Establish a positive sense of self.				
12.	Manage emotions with appropriate responses.				
13.	Put effort towards becoming a valuable change agent.				
14.	Take initiative to positively influence others and environments.				
15.	Stand up for what is right and worthy.				
16.	Reflect a civil community by holding others accountable.				
17.	Handle adversity with grace and dignity.				
18.	Understand the value in process, as well as, in outcome.				
19.	Effectively manage their responsibilities and obligations as a learner.				
20.	Set personal goals.				
21.	Seek to be better than "average."				

22.	Demonstrate positive regard and respect for others.				
23.	Channel energy towards productive endeavors.				
24.	Value those who desire to produce positive results.				
25.	Facilitate resolutions to difficult situations and interpersonal challenges.				
26.	Desire to seek higher levels of integrity and morality.				
27.	Treat others fairly.				
28.	Own the consequences of personal actions and decisions.				
29.	Seek happiness.				
30.	Be comfortable around conflict and controversy.				
31.	Feel connected to diverse individuals.				
32.	Demonstrate appreciation for learning opportunities.				
33.	Engage in meaningful conversations.				
34.	Learn from making mistakes.				
35.	Learn humility from achieving success.				
36.	Take responsibility for personal management and fitness.				
37.	Stay in control of their destiny.				
38.	Build effective life skills – including interpersonal communication and leadership.				
39.	Grow in a desire to give back and contribute.				
40.	Challenge their ignorance or misplaced assumptions.				
41.	Establish a life long love of learning.				

INFLUENCTIAL FACTORS AND CRITERIA FOR
INFLUENCING THROUGH SPEAKING

Verbal Factors

1. Vocal clarity—Clear enunciation and pronunciation of the speaker's words
2. Adequate volume—Could the speaker be easily heard in the room?
3. Fluency—Did the speaker's voice appear to "flow" throughout the speech? Did the speaker consistently avoid the use of "vocalized pauses"-- the umms and eers that can prove distracting to listeners and cause the speaker to appear less confident?
4. Tone—Was the speaker's manner of speaking consistent with the type of speech to be delivered—Did the speaker's tone seek to inspire, inform, entertain, etc.?

Physical Factors

1. Presence—Did the speaker demonstrate an openness and appreciation toward the audience?
2. Eye Contact—Did the speaker keep his/her eyes focused primarily upon the audience throughout the speech? Picking someone in the front row to look at is acceptable.
3. Effective Nonverbal Communication—Did the speaker effectively use gestures and body language to reinforce the message? Was there movement from the podium?

"A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops."
- Henry Adams

Performance and Delivery Tips:

The use of different ways of teaching – variety – is a key method for reaching and keeping today's students. Consider how short the sound bits of television commercials have become or how quickly we can access information – any information. Visual stimulation and social interaction are often necessary components of teaching. What can you say visually? How can you be more dynamic in your delivery? Begin by avoiding the "talking head" or reading out of a book.

Examples of MEDIUMS to Make Your Message

- Personal stories
- Jokes which are appropriate and related to topic
- Magic tricks which you can actually do
- Music at key moments or as backdrop
- Audience's experiences collected ahead of the program
- Silence – just pause and say nothing
- Self-exploration exercises or questions to ponder
- Object explorations
- Brief video clips that back up your point but don't become the presentation
- A student telling a story or coming up to stage to share an opinion
- Reading a short poem or something you've written
- Anything from a Chicken Soup for the Whatever Soul…
- Demonstrations and visuals with objects

"The doors of wisdom are never shut."
-- Benjamin Franklin

The Logic of Leadership: Incorporating Critical Thinking into Senior Seminar

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Abstract

All disciplines have a fundamental logic embedded in them. Participants will apply the elements of thought (Elder & Paul, 2007; Paul & Elder, 2008) to analyze the logic of leadership. Leadership educators will refine their conceptualizations of the leadership discipline and explore the use of analysis as a tool to enhance critical thinking.

Introduction

Findings of a Delphi study conducted by Morgan, King, Rudd, & Kaufman (2013) identified a capstone course as a key course to be included in an agricultural leadership undergraduate degree program. Capstone courses are often "given primary responsibility for integrating the various theoretical, methodological, and substantive strands of students' coursework" (Schmid, 1993, p. 220). Wagenaar (1993) noted that capstone courses "might even be conceptualized as an 'advanced introductory' course. The introductory course exposes students to the basics of the discipline. The capstone course revisits these basics" (p. 211).

While many leadership educators might agree with the need to include capstone courses in undergraduate leadership programs, what has not necessarily reached the same level of consensus is what the capstone experience should include. Crunkilton (as cited in Andreasen & Trede, 2000), identified six educational outcomes of capstone courses including: (1) decision making, (2) critical thinking, (3) collaborative/professional relationships, (4) oral communications, (5) written communications, and (6) problem solving.

Leadership educators are left to design and implement meaningful activities that meet these educational outcomes within their specific programs. "A key aspect of leadership education is that everyone has his or her own definition of leadership, most often at the tacit level…In the educational context all participants, unlike in chemistry or math, come with assumptions and beliefs that become part of the learning setting" (Cartwright, 2002, p. 70). This notion provides the basis for an activity implemented in a senior capstone class at [University] to enhance students' critical thinking skills while refining their conceptualization of leadership as a discipline.

Review of Related Scholarship

Leadership is not easily defined as a concept or discipline. Jackson and Parry (2011) shared that "leadership is widely seen as both the problem and solution to all manner of contemporary issues" (p. 8). Burns (1995) noted,

> If we know all too much about our leaders, we know far too little about *leadership*. We fail to grasp the essence of leadership that is relevant to the modern age and hence we cannot agree even on the standards by which to measure, recruit, and reject it…Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. (p. 9)

The lack of consensus surrounding a universal definition or conceptualization of leadership (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2013) offers an opportunity for students studying leadership to develop their critical thinking skills.

Priority Three: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners of the National Leadership Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013) called for the development of critical thinking in leadership learners. Critical thinking can be defined as "the art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it" (Paul & Elder, 2008, p. 2). "Analysis and evaluation are recognized as crucial skills for all students to master. And for good reason. These skills are required in learning any significant body of content in a non-trivial way" (Elder & Paul, 2007, p. 4).

Richard Paul and Linda Elder have described eight elements of thought (Elder & Paul, 2007; Paul & Elder, 2008) including: purpose, question at issue, information, interpretation and inference, concepts, assumptions, implications and consequences, and point of view. According to Elder and Paul (2007), these eight basic structures define all thinking. Elder and Paul (2007) noted,

> Whenever we think, we think for a purpose within a point of view based on assumptions leading to implications and consequences. We use concepts, ideas and theories to interpret data, facts, and experiences in order to answer questions, solve problems, and resolve issues. (p. 5)

Each element of thought is interrelated with the others. Thus, changing one can result in changes in others (Elder & Paul, 2007).

Elder and Paul (2007) provided a process for analyzing the fundamental logic embedded within a discipline. In their 2007 *The Thinker's Guide to Analytic Thinking: How to Take Thinking Apart and What to Look For When You Do*, Elder and Paul provided examples of the logic of a subject for several disciplines including science, history, sociology, economics, and ecology.

According to Elder and Paul (2007),

> To lay bare a subject's most fundamental logic, we should begin with these questions:
>
> - What is the main <u>purpose</u> of <u>goal</u> of studying this subject? What are people in this field trying to accomplish?
> - What kinds of <u>questions</u> do they ask? What kinds of problems do they try to solve?
> - What sorts of <u>information</u> or data do they gather?
> - What types of <u>inferences</u> or judgments do they typically make? (Judgments about…)

- How do they go about gathering information in ways that are distinctive to this field?
  What are the most basic ideas, concepts or theories in this field?
- What do professionals in this field take for granted or assume?
- How should studying this field affect my view of the world?
- What viewpoint is fostered in this field?
- What implications follow from studying this discipline? How are the products of this field used in everyday life? (p. 34)

Lesson Plan Description

This activity is an extension of the analyzing the logic of a subject work by Elder and Paul (2007). The workshop will begin with a brief introduction to each of the eight elements of thought (Elder & Paul, 2007, Paul & Elder 2008). Using Elder and Paul's (2007) process of answering questions based on the eight elements of thought to analyze the logic of a subject, participants will then analyze the logic of leadership by answering the following questions:

1. What is the main purpose of studying leadership as a discipline?
2. What are the key issues, problems, and questions addressed within leadership as a discipline?
3. What kinds of information are pursued within leadership as a discipline?
4. What types of inferences or judgments are made?
5. What key concepts inform the discipline of leadership?
6. What key assumptions underlie the discipline?
7. What are some important implications of studying leadership as a discipline?
8. What points of view are fostered within leadership as a discipline?

Each participant will analyze the logic of leadership independently (see Appendix A). Participants will have the opportunity within the workshop to share their logic of leadership with other workshop participants. Participants will also have the opportunity to review logic of leadership examples submitted by students enrolled in a capstone senior seminar class from [University].

Objectives of this educator workshop include:

1. Identify and describe the eight elements of thought;
2. Apply the elements of thought to analyze the logic of leadership as a discipline;
3. Identify strategies for incorporating this activity, and variations of it, into capstone and other leadership courses.

The workshop is outlined in the table below:

Time Allocated	Activity/Description
10 minutes	Introduction
35 minutes	Activity • Participants will complete the Logic of Leadership independently

25 minutes	Debriefing • Participants will share their responses to the 8 questions
10 minutes	Student Examples • Examples of students' Logic of Leadership will be shared with participants
10 minutes	Summary • Conclusions • Adaptations – using the question to analyze problems

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Leadership educators routinely ask students to examine various definitions of leadership. However, despite the fact that leadership exists in some institutions of higher education as a formal major and/or minor field of study, students may not have had the opportunity to go a step further and examine leadership as a discipline.

The intent of this workshop is to demonstrate how analyzing the logic of leadership as a discipline has been used in a senior capstone class as a critical thinking activity. Students must analyze what they have learned about leadership and synthesize their learning into the basic structures associated with the subject. In many respects, as it is used in the senior seminar course, this activity supports Wagenaar's (1993) notion of the capstone course as "an 'advanced introductory' course" (p. 211) by requiring students to revisit the basic tenets of what was learned in previous courses.

Thus far, this activity has been used in two semesters of a senior seminar capstone course. Instructors have observed that students utilize their critical thinking skills, specifically analysis and evaluation, to complete this activity, thus meeting one of the six outcomes of capstone courses identified by Crunkilton (as cited in Andreasen & Trede, 2000).

Workshop Plan & Implications

This educator workshop will provide value to participants in multiple ways. First, the workshop will serve as a professional development activity for participants by helping them refine their own conceptualization of leadership through the analysis and evaluation of leadership as a discipline. Second, the workshop will provide participants with an activity they can incorporate as is or modify in their own program, classroom, or context to enhance the critical thinking skills of their students.

Appendices

Appendix A: The Logic of Leadership

Use these 8 questions to describe the logic of leadership as a discipline:

1. What is the main purpose of leadership?
2. What are the key issues, problems, and questions addressed within leadership?
3. What kinds of information are pursued within leadership as a discipline?
4. What types of inferences or judgments are made?

5. What key concepts inform leadership?
6. What key assumptions underlie the discipline?
7. What are some important implications of studying leadership as a discipline?
8. What points of view are fostered within leadership as a discipline?

The Purpose of Leadership:

Questions that Leadership Scholars Ask:

Kinds of Information used within Leadership:

Judgments that are Made:

Concepts that Inform Leadership:

Key Assumptions that Underlie the Discipline:

Implications of Studying Leadership:

Points of View Fostered within the Discipline:

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Gamification of moral imagination towards leadership metanoia

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Abstract

Moral imagination is defined by Werhane (1999) as the ability to challenge operative mental models in order to find, and potentially use, new ways of framing and making decisions. It is the capacity to imagine something different from existing ways of thinking and operating towards new solutions that are novel and morally justifiable. The courage to challenge and stretch tacit forms of thinking may trigger leadership metanoia, characterized as an opportunity for learning that may involve a fundamental change of thinking and a transformative change of heart. This workshop will explain a class exercise that integrates principles of moral imagination to generate leadership metanoia in a leadership ethics course.

Introduction

Though moral imagination is not a new philosophical concept, it has been the focus of renewed scholarship over the past twenty years. The concept of imagination as part of philosophical inquiry is not a recent development. Several philosophers of the 18th and 19th centuries began to explore the concept as part of their inquiry into human cognition and agency. Kant is perhaps the first to articulate a structural model of imagination. He postulated that humans have more than simply "sense awareness" but also the ability to structure sensations into categories of understanding. Therefore, every sensation and perception is filtered through three different types of imaginative processes: reproductive, productive, reflective/free play. Reproductive imagination allows us to form images and recognize them by connecting them to others in our memory. Productive imagination allows us to structure, make sense of, and then synthesize sensations into a personal "I-based" set of experiences. Creative/reflective imagination allows us to use our stored experiences and play with them – creating new ideas that are "aesthetical" rather than "rational" (Werhane, 1999, p. 96-98). Werhane observed organizational demise in the absence of moral imagination, but also tremendous learning and strategic viability when integrating principles of imagination. This represents Senge's (2006) perspective on learning organizations and particularly that organizations committed to learning mindset experience a metanoia, a fundamental shift in thinking and transformative change of heart.

The objectives of this session are to play a values game to:

- Clarify leadership values
- Challenge assumptions about values
- Reframe priorities based on personal values
- Practice moral imagination
- Contribute to leadership metanoia

Background Literature

In the twentieth century, several philosophers have further expanded the concept of moral imagination. In particular, Kekes (1991) defined imagination as including two functions – exploratory and corrective – which can be employed to both imagine and make new moral decisions (pp. 101-111). The exploratory function of imagination is forward looking: allowing a person to envision more options in terms of actions and personal development (Kekes, p. 105). The corrective function of imagination allows a person to retrospectively and imaginatively recreate past situations as part of a developmental process (Kekes, pp. 106-107). Kekes concludes that imagination is of great value in expanding an individual's personal possibilities beyond that which is culturally or situationally prescribed (p. 110).
Johnson (1993) looked more closely at moral imagination as a basis for moral reasoning in his book *Moral imagination: Implications of cognitive science for ethics*. Johnson's exploration begins with a fundamental issue in contemporary ethics: how do we reconcile the two dominant forces in moral reasoning – moral absolutism and moral relativism. Moral absolutism argues that there are universal moral laws which all humans must follow. Moral relativism, on the other hand, argues that there are no moral laws which can be universally applied (p. 3). Johnson argued that both of these positions are limiting and misleading because they are premised on a false understanding of human reasoning and imagination. He posited that humans neither reason solely on the basis of universal rules, nor on the basis unconstrained and non-rational means (p. 6). Instead humans reason by means of a constructive imaginative activity that is based on both how we perceive and frame personal experience and our understanding of dominant moral concepts (p. 2).

Johnson further argued that human cognition makes the act of moral reasoning far more complex than simply choosing and applying moral law or choosing solely on the basis of personal and/or culturally-mediated opinions. Instead it is an imaginative process that brings a person in contact with both their own frame of a given situation, other possibly framings of the situation, and their own traditionally-forged definitions of moral concepts. Thus, moral reasoning is imaginative process that "provides a means for understanding (of self, others, institutions, cultures), for reflective criticism, and for modest transformation, which together are the basis for moral growth" (p. 187). Johnson's work acknowledged that human beings live in a culturally-, socially-, and environmentally-mediated world and therefore create a metaphorical construction of experience. To divorce moral decision making from this metaphorical construction of world is – in Johnson's view – impossible. Therefore, a richer concept of moral reasoning is one that asks a person to deliberate on their own personal mental frames while also evaluating other possible frames and traditional social concepts of moral law – thereby imagining an alternative outcome to situations.

Moral imagination and ethical decision making in business

Werhane (1999) expanded on Johnson's work in *Moral imagination in management decision making* – bringing the concept of moral imagination into the concrete world of business. She used two questions to frame her exploration of the concept of moral imagination: Why do ordinarily decent managers and or reputable companies get in [ethical] trouble?, and Why do they sometimes repeat past mistakes? (p. 17) Werhane argued that the answer to these questions is not simply that people are self-interested or lack of moral development. Nor are poor decisions are not totally the result of environmental factors, or what she calls a "causal nexus" (p. 17) that

precludes better decision making. Instead, she argued that poor decision making is the result of a narrow perceptions and conceptual schemes or "mental models" through which people view the world. These models impact personal decision making at a tacit an implicit level: people may even be consciously aware that they are operating out of a narrowly constructed "reality" that permits only certain types of decisions (pp. 17-18).

Werhane (2006) argued that business decision making can suffer as a result of these operating mental models, especially if they are incomplete, biased, or distorted (404). People can make poor decisions if they do not consciously identify the limitations of existing schemes or try to construct a new reality that has alternative outcomes. As Werhane (2006) stated, "sometimes companies get into trouble not because they deliberately meant to do the wrong thing….but because they did not question what they were doing or challenge the mind sets and methodologies with which they thought through issues." (p. 404).
Moral imagination is defined by Werhane (1999) as the ability to challenge operative mental models in order to find, and potentially use, new ways of framing and making decisions (p. 93). It is the capacity to imagine something different from existing ways of thinking and operating. As she summarized: moral imagination is the "ability to envision and evaluate new mental models that create new possibilities, and the capability to reframe the dilemma and create new solutions in ways that are novel, economically viable, and morally justifiable" (p. 93). Moral imagination aids in ethical decision making by helping people break out of narrow perspectives and contemplate new actions that satisfy both economic realities and moral contingencies.

Operationalizing the concept moral imagination

Johnson (1993) and Werhane (1999) created defendable philosophical definitions of moral imagination from both metaphysical and ethical standpoints. However, the concept is still being defined in terms of how it operates within individuals, organizations, and systems. To this end, Moberg and Seabright (2000) offered a response and alternative to Werhane's concept of moral imagination by creating an ethical decision making model that operationalizes moral imagination. Their criticism of both Werhane and others' formulations of moral imagination is that they focuses on the moral perception to the exclusion of actual moral agency and are therefore limited in its utility. Thus, they expand the discussion of moral imagination into Rest's model of ethical decision making which includes four psychological processes: recognizing a moral issue; forming a moral judgment; establishing moral intent; and following through on intent (p. 847).

Partially in response to Moberg and Seabrignt, Werhane (2002) offered her own framework by which managers and companies can integrate moral imagination into everyday business decisions. In this later formulation of moral imagination, she expanded her definition: "(moral imagination) helps one to disengage from a particular process, evaluate that and the mindsets which it incorporates, an think more creatively within the constraints of what is morally possible" (p. 34). In order to exercise moral imagination, an individual must: 1) Self-reflect about oneself and one's situation; 2) Disengage from and become aware of one's situation by understand the dominant mental model or script that is operating; 3) Imagine new possibilities that are not context-dependent and may use alternate mental models; and 4) Evaluate the original context and the new possibilities in order to make a decision (p. 34).

Though these processes are focused on an individual decision maker, Werhane (2002) went on to emphasize that moral imagination must operate on a systemic level as well (p. 34). At this systems level, organizations have both networks of interrelationships each with different purposes and goals (p. 37). Additionally, organizations have boundaries which bracket in certain purposes and goals and leave others out (p. 37). To employ moral imagination within systems, Werhane articulated a systemic multiple perspectives approach in which organizations: 1) concentrate on the network of relationships and patterns of interactions to discern different perspectives; 2) conduct a multi-perspective analysis; 3) seek to understand various perspectives; 4) evaluate all perspectives; 5) employing proactive leadership to initiate systemic change (p. 40). Within this framework, gamification of moral imagination will engage participants in systematic reframing, creative thinking, and sense-making of values that trigger leadership metanoia – a fundamental change of thinking and a transformative change of heart.

Lesson Plan Description

The class activity can be integrated in (1) several subsequent class sessions, (2) an intensive one hour session, and/or (3) a comprehensive three to four hour workshop session that allows for greater integration of course content, dialogue, and affective dimensions that contribute to a more holistic sense of metanoia.

Format and structure: the class should be divided into small groups of 4-5 students, forming a circle around a table.

Supplies: distribute 16 one inch squares to each students.

Instructions: invite leadership students to identify their four most important values in each of the following categories:

4 Skills/Talents/Characteristics
4 Goals
4 Material possessions (house, car, computer, phone)
4 People

Play and Discussion Prompts
There are seven sequential rounds to this game. Maintain the seven steps concealed from participants, and introduce them one at a time with discussion and opportunities to integrate course content throughout each round. You may manage timing for each round depending on time allotted for the game.

1. Remove 4 values from any of the four categories
   Discussion prompts
   - What did you remove most readily? Why?
   - What are some trends in the class?

2. Look to person on the RIGHT and talk with them about 2 additional values you are willing to give up

   Discussion prompts

   - What was it like articulating/explaining the rationale to someone else
   - What did you learn as the listener? How were they framing their reasoning and logic to support their decisions?

3. Look to person on the LEFT and remove 2 values without looking at their selection

   Discussion prompts

   - What did you happen to take? How did you feel once you noticed what you removed?
   - What did you lose? How does it feel to have that taken away? How are you making sense of what you lost?
   - Do you experience loses in your organization that are beyond or out of your control? How do you cope with the?

4. Look to person on the RIGHT and remove 2 values you believe they could live without

   Discussion prompts

   - How did you make this decision?
   - What did you take in consideration?
   - How did your personal values impact what you thought was more or less valuable?
   - How did you feel making this decision for someone?
   - How are these decisions made in the organizational context?

5. Look to the person on the LEFT and surrender 2 of your values for 2 of theirs

   Discussion prompts

   - How did you navigate this decision?
   - How did you negotiate to of your precious values for two of theirs?
   - Did any of you trade up?...down? Why? Explain
   - How are you restructuring and making sense of this decision?
   - How do some of these negotiations take place in the organizational setting?

6. Walk to another table – a stranger – in the room and remove 3 of their six remaining values

   Discussion prompts

   - How was this process different than removing values from a member in your group?
   - How did you make this decision? What criteria did you use?
   - How does distance contribute to regard for and understanding of the other?
   - How are these decisions manifested in organizations?
   - You should have 3 remaining values left on the table – what are they?
     - ✓ Do they represent what is most dear to you?
     - ✓ What are you feeling?
     - ✓ How are you redefining and reframing life?

7. Remove the last two

Discussion prompts

- What are you left with?
- How was removing the final two for you?
- Is the final remaining value representative of who you are? Who you want to become?
- What are some emotions currently experienced right now e.g. Denial, Anger, Bargaining...
- Have you found unanticipated or surprising clarity about decisions?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Multiple lessons are learned from this game. The game allow students to apply multiple theories of ethics, moral principles, and moral imagination to make decisions. It is the responsibility of faculty to introduce them explicitly or deeply embed them in conversation. The following lessons to date may inform your practice and further adaptation of the game:

- A 3-4 hour session is ideal for depth of discussion and to integrate multiple perspectives
- Observe difficult decisions with reverence and stretches of silence. The power silence during difficult choices fosters metanoia.
- Debrief with students as a class or personally if needed. The subject matter and decisions of the game may lead to discomfort.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Participants in this session will gain a better understanding of how to demystify moral imagination and ethical decision making and how it may contribute to metanoia – a fundamental change of thinking about moral imagination and a transformation change of heart. Attending this session will allow participants to fully engage as students and personally empathize with the cognitive affective dimensions experienced throughout the exercise. Practicing the game will also equip participants with facilitation competencies and additional ideas from other participants. In addition to the classroom context, participants may utilize the gamification of moral imagination to consult with organizations about: clarity and ownership of mission; congruence between values and organizational practices; congruence between organizational values and employee behaviors such hiring, planning, strategy, decision-making, communication; and many other organizational dynamics embedded in the game.

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But Seriously! Chuckles, Snorts, and Belly Laughs: Using Po85sitivity and Humor to Allay Stress and Increase Leadership Effectiveness

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Abstract

This educator workshop focuses on the benefits of positivity and adaptive humor to reduce stress and increase leadership effectiveness. The facilitators will address the causes and consequences of stress, share information about the different types of humor people use and experience, discuss the physical and psychological benefits of positivity and humor, offer strategies for fostering a positive environment, and engage participants in an array of activities that can be adapted for use in a variety of settings.

Introduction

It is say to say that most people experience stress and while not all stress is bad, it does affect people on a near daily basis in both their personal and professional lives. At best stress can serve as a catalyst to make necessary adjustments to attitudes, behaviors, and life choices that will improve one's circumstances or situation and at worst, stress can have negative or debilitating effects on people's lives. When it comes to leadership, the assumption is that successful leaders are those who can most appropriately respond to the demands of any given situation (Grint, 2005) but even the most successful of leaders are not immune to stress.

Given that leadership effectiveness is based, in part, on an individual's ability to affect the actions and behavior of others vis-à-vis one's own actions behaviors (Anderson & Summers, 2007), it is logical to conclude that a leader cannot maintain high levels of leadership effectiveness if that leader is not sufficiently coping with whatever stress they are experiencing. There are many ways to effectively manage stress but one of the most fun ways is through the cultivation of positivity and laughter which goes hand-in-hand with humor. "Humor improves emotional and physical health by attenuating the natural stress response by decreasing cortisol [and other hormones and chemicals]" and the result is "that people are happier and smarter" (Woodbury-Fariña & Antongiorgi, 2014, p. 564).

The goal of this interactive, highly energetic educator workshop is to highlight how using positivity and humor can reduce stress and help to increase leadership effectiveness. The workshop is appropriate for leadership scholars, practitioners and consultants, and student affairs and student involvement professionals. At the end of this workshop participants will:

1) Be able to teach emerging leaders to identify and discuss the causes and consequences of stress in general and, in particular, as they relate to leadership.
2) Be able to teach emerging leaders to differentiate between adaptive and maladaptive humor.

3) Explore different strategies for using adaptive humor to allay stress.
4) Recognize the benefits of positivity in terms of helping to increase leadership effectiveness.
5) Engage in a variety of activities that can be adapted for use in other environments (classrooms, board rooms, student-centered events, etc.) to foster positivity.

Review of Related Scholarship

Stress is, quite simply, the brain's reaction to a particular demand and the demand may be physical or psychological. Animals (yes, this includes humans) are equipped with a stress response that can be life saving. When triggered, the stress response releases chemicals and hormones that prepare the animal to either "face a threat" or "flee to safety" (NIH, n.d.). While those chemicals and hormones are helpful in periodic short bursts, they can ultimately suppress functions that aren't necessary for immediate survival and if the stress response goes on too long, other problems can develop.

There are at least three different types of stress that people experience: 1) routine stress that is related to the pressures of work, family, school, and other fairly standard responsibilities; 2) stress that is the result of sudden negative changes, e.g., job loss, divorce, or illness; and 3) traumatic stress that is the result of accidents, wars, natural disasters, etc. While all types of stress carry physical and mental health risks, for the purpose of this particular workshop the focus will be on routine stressors related to work; particularly when they fall within the context of leadership.

In 2006, the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) collected data from more than 200 leaders as they endeavored to answer the question, "How does stress impact leadership?" Some of the key findings were:

1) Eighty-eight (88) percent of leaders stated that their work was the primary source of the stress in their lives and that being in a leadership role increased the levels of stress they experienced.
2) More than 60% of the leaders surveyed indicated that their organizations failed to provide them with any tools to manage their stress.
3) More than two-thirds of the respondents felt their stress was higher at the time they took the survey than it was five years previous.
4) Approximately 80% of the leaders stated they would benefit from targeted coaching to help them manage their stress.
5) More than 90% of the leaders reported managing their stress by "checking out" either physically or mentally and thereby removing themselves from the source of their stress.

Additionally, the CCL (2006) reported that 28% of the respondents felt that the greatest contributors to their stress were a lack of resources and a lack of time; stress caused by trying to do more with less and doing it faster. Furthermore, when leaders have to spend time sitting through long or frequent meetings or navigating the maze of organizational bureaucracies, it can take time away from their primary responsibilities which, in turn, induced even more stress. Leaders also experience stress when they are addressing the challenges of developing others,

resolving conflicts, dealing with difficult personalities, and providing feedback. Establishing or maintaining relationships, competition, and a lack of teamwork are also stress inducing problematic areas for leaders. Additionally, unrealistic expectations, a lack of clarity or vision, issues centered on personal accountability, and their own personal insecurities also contributed to their list of stressors.

Luckily, stress management interventions do have a positive impact on the key-determinants of well-being, i.e., balance between the demands placed on leaders and the mechanisms leaders have to deal with those demands (Randall, Cox, & Griffiths, 2007). But stress management can be complicated because of the different types of stress that exist, e.g., acute stress, episodic acute stress, and chronic stress. While each type of stress involves similar, and in some cases dissimilar, characteristics, symptoms, durations, or treatment approaches, failing to address stress will eventually take a toll. Period. Without proper management, stress can lead to emotional distress (combinations of anger, irritability, anxiety and depression, etc.), musculoskeletal problems (tension headaches, back pain, jaw pain, etc.), gastrointestinal disorders, elevations in blood pressure, tachycardia, shortness-of-breath, chest pain, and a host of other problems (APA, 2015).

The good news is that stress can be mitigated with positivity and humor. Humor, an amusing social interaction between or among people, is considered to be a desirable social skill (Woodbury-Fariña & Antongiorgi, 2014). Positivity and humor have even been shown to have a bonding effect among people within an organization (Cooper, 2008). Humor provides people with an avenue to deal with the very real imperfections of life (i.e., stress) and it helps to assuage the negative emotions they may be experiencing (Woodbury-Fariña & Antongiorgi, 2014). And, quite frankly, “humor needs to be taken more seriously” (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999, p. 225).

There are a variety of terms people use to describe different types of humor such as anecdotal, sarcastic, slapstick, punning, sardonic, off color, ironic, satirical, sophomoric, or parodic (Nichol, 2014). Regardless, humor can be used therapeutically to enrich personal and professional experiences. Typically, humor is considered to be either adaptive or maladaptive. Adaptive humor is associated with the benefits that result in better physical and mental health whereas maladaptive humor is known for its negative outcomes on health or relationships.

Based on the Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ), two basic styles of humor have been linked with adaptive humor; they are affiliative and self-enhancing (Woodbury-Fariña & Antongiorgi, 2014). Affiliative humor is often used to decrease tension and enhance social bonding while people with a positive attitude who frequently find something humorous in almost any situation often utilize what is known as self-enhancing humor. These two styles tend to yield positive results in professional environments.

Humor can also play a vital role in closing communication gaps among leaders and others and it can be used to enhance trust (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999). Humor can also be used to help facilitate change. There is a growing body of research indicating that having fun at work has beneficial outcomes not just for individuals but for organizations as well (Tews, Michel, & Allen, 2014). Humor and positivity can break down barriers and help an organization to be more

participative and responsive as well as enhance organizational learning and fuel renewal at myriad levels (Barsoux, 1996).

Granted, there are some people who are concerned that a culture of fun can blur traditional professional boundaries (Fleming, 2005) but with stress levels on the rise (CCL, 2006; Das, 2011; Väänänen, Murray, & Kuokkanen, 2014) a thoughtful and managed approach to positivity and humor can have profoundly optimistic impacts on cohesion (Romero & Pescosolido, 2008) and on leadership performance (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999). Indeed, positive emotions have the power to ignite the kind of energy that drives high performance while negative emotions such as frustration, impatience, anger, fear, resentment, and sadness suck the life out of people and drain energy from organizations; over time those people and organizations can become toxic (Loehr & Schwartz, 2001).

Lesson Plan Description

Workshop Length: 90 Minutes

0-10 minutes: Fast-paced icebreaker to create energy in the room as well as synergy among participants.
Objective(s): 5

10-20 minutes: Workshop presenters introduce themselves and explain the purpose and objectives of the workshop.
Objective(s): 4 and 5

20-40 minutes: Participants will make individual introductions and engage in two activities. One is a light-hearted, game-based approach to introducing oneself and the other is for capturing whatever stress participants are feeling at that particular moment.
Objective(s): 5

40-80 minutes: The power point presentation will last approximately 40 minutes and addresses:

- The different types of stress and the related consequences.
- Unique aspects of leadership related stress.
- The importance of positivity.
- The different types of humor people engage in.
- The benefits of humor in relieving stress.
- The mechanisms of laughter and why it's important.
- The physical and psychological benefits of positivity and laughter in relieving stress.
- Strategies for incorporating positivity, humor, and laughter into personal and professional environments (with emphasis on professional environments).
- Research-based information on how positivity, humor, and laughter enhances leader effectiveness.
- Mechanisms for adapting the information and strategies shared during the workshop for other audiences and situations.

Woven throughout the power point presentation are amusing media clips, cartoons, quotes, anecdotes, and a variety of "fun" demonstrated strategies (e.g. open-mic stand up comedy, grab bag skits, spontaneous dance parties, and laughing exercises that include the practices of chuckling, snorting, and belly laughing) for relieving stress. The power point presentation is educational in that it provides meaningful information about the very real and very serious issue of stress in people lives but it is also lighthearted and requires near constant audience participation.

Objective(s): 1, 2, 3, 4, & 5

80-90 minutes: Brief question and answer session, closing comments, and the final activity which involves releasing the stress captured early in the workshop.

Objective(s): 5

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Using humor to alleviate stress is not a one-size fits all solution – strategies must be adapted. Peoples' tolerances and sensitivities to what they think is funny vary greatly and it is important for leaders who want to use humor to diffuse stress, strengthen relationships, and increase their effectiveness to study and be ever mindful (Dane & Brummel, 2013) of their environment and their audience in order to determine what type of humor may (or may not) be appropriate. In our experiences, what traditional-aged college students find humorous, for example, is typically quite different from what non-traditional college students or working professionals will find humorous. Likewise, classroom humor will look and feel very different from boardroom humor. And boardroom humor will vary depending on the culture of the organization.

Playfulness does, however, spur creativity (Chang, Hsu, & Chen, 2013) and enhance learning (Winerman, 2006). In our experiences, a younger audience (regardless of environment) is typically more playful than an older audience. Regardless, there is significant social power in laughter (McGraw & Warner, 2014; Winerman, 2006) but as people age, they tend to laugh less and less (Gerloff, 2011). This is a reality that we've worked to change in our professional environments and, to date, have enjoyed success in that area. Young people tend to be more open to humor and are more willing to take risks in the "silliness" department. This is not to say that adults (including academics and other professionals) are not willing to take those same risks, but as we've noted in our interactions with others, there is often some reticence; a fear of exposing one's vulnerabilities.

Increasing leadership effectiveness, especially via humorous avenues, requires that we embrace our vulnerabilities. So what if no one laughs at a joke? Tell another one! So what if a leader blunders a speech, mispronounces a word, can't remember something at a particular moment in time? Dare to be authentic – poking a little fun at one's own human foibles can be endearing and garner increased respect and appreciation. As Brené Brown (2012) has shared, vulnerability is not a weakness, it's daring to allow ourselves to be seen. In fact, she advocates for letting go of perfectionism and for cultivating play and laughter. We have found this particular recipe to be incredibly liberating for both leaders and their followers.

Workshop Plan and Implications

There has been a surge of interest in understanding the key roles that emotions play in leadership processes and outcomes for both leaders and their followers. A number of studies have shown that leaders who feel and express positive emotions are generally perceived as more *effective* than leaders who feel and express negative ones (Bono & Illies, 2006; Johnson, 2008; Lewis, 2000; as cited in Eberly & Fong, 2013). Norman, Avolio, and Luthans (2010) have also suggested that the degree of leader positivity might just be responsible for the making the leader more believable to followers. Positivity has also been shown to lead to higher levels of trust in leaders, even more so than the issue of transparency.

Humor is a form of expression and as such, leaders who are more expressive are able to transfer their mood to others (Sy, Choi, & Johnson, 2013). Mood contagion is real. It is perhaps, equally easy to facilitate mood contagion using negative emotions but there is no benefit to leaders and their followers in doing so. To that end, as workshop facilitators, we will work to ensure that participants leave this workshop feeling refreshed, energized, and happy. They will be armed with a packet of information that includes a handout of the workshop power point presentation, a stress-reliving, fun-filled toolkit that contains lists of resources and research material, as well as strategies and exercises for infusing humor into most any situation as a mechanism to promote good health, build trust, and increase leader effectiveness. And, as participants leave, others just may notice a twinkle in their eye, a bounce in their step, and a joyful spirit that will carry over to other sessions during this conference and beyond.

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Game On: Creating Leadership Learning Opportunities through *The Leaders Game*

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Abstract

Educational games provide valuable learning opportunities; however, games are often underused in leadership education. This innovative workshop will empower participants to reap the positive benefits of games by introducing *The Leaders Game*, an innovative game designed to engage students in a simulated experience pairing leadership learning and real-world challenges.

Introduction

Allen and Hartman (2009) present a challenge among leadership educators to merge content and practice within their programs. All too often, leadership students are presented with either content void of application or leadership experience void of new content (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Successful leadership development requires both content and context; however, providing a leadership development experience which includes both is a difficult endeavor. The goal of this innovative workshop is to provide leadership educators with a tool to merge content and context in their leadership development offerings. This tool, *The Leaders Game*, is a leadership development experience designed to engage developing leaders in a simulated experience where participants can practice their leadership learning. Through participation in this ALE workshop, leadership educators will (a) play *The Leaders Game*, (b) be empowered to facilitate *The Leaders Game* in their leadership development offerings, and (c) discuss strategies for altering *The Leaders Game* to meet specific leadership learning outcomes.

Review of Related Scholarship

"Games have tremendous educational potential" (Squire & Jenkins, 2003, p. 27); however, games are often underused in educational settings (Marzano, 2010). Most students enter postsecondary classrooms with ample experience playing a variety of games. If educators can connect their content to this game playing experience, they may be able to facilitate a rich learning experience for students. In fact, research suggests using academically enriched games accounts for an average of 20% increase in measurable student learning (Marzano, 2010). The power of game play in education comes from the emotional spark competition creates among learners (Christopher & Smith, 1987). This emotional spark increases engagement and can lead to memorable and engaging learning experiences for students (Allen, 2008). Additionally, interactive games create opportunities for learners to solve problems, collaborate, and negotiate opposing objectives with peers, all critical competencies within leadership education.

Petranek, Corey, and Black (1992) identified three opportunities for learning during games. The first opportunity, playing the game, engages students in a social scenario with an abundance of individual sensemaking opportunities. Sensemaking refers to an individual or group reframing their understanding when faced with an experience that contradicts their prior knowledge

(Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). The second opportunity for learning is after the game, during a debrief session. A shared debrief provides all participants with an opportunity to share the personal learning that occurred through the experience; the goal of this process is for shared learning to occur (Petranek et al., 1992). The third opportunity for learning occurs through individual reflection. This individual reflection (e.g. journaling), provides each learner with an opportunity to reflect on their own experiences and connect their personal experiences to their own learning (Petranek et al., 1992).

The research of Petranek et al. (1992) is foundational in our understanding of why games produce rich learning opportunities; however, the value of the game toward learning is influenced by effective facilitation of the game. Marzano (2010) identified four facilitation strategies related to effective utilization of games in classroom environments: (a) use inconsequential (i.e. do not connect winning the game to grades), but fun rewards (b) align the game closely with the content and be forthright about this connection to students, (c) allow ample time to reflect immediately after the game, and (d) highlight revisions to understanding, if a student changed their perception or understanding of a topic make sure this revelation is shared to facilitate similar revelations among all participants. Through our workshop, we will share how we utilized the research of Petranek et al. (1992) and Marzano (2010) to develop *The Leaders Game.*

The research reviewed to this point has focused on using games within education, but has not specifically addressed game play within leadership education. The literature in leadership education supports game use as an effective instructional strategy (Allen, 2008; Christopher & Smith, 1987). However, in a review of the instructional strategies used by leadership educators, Jenkins (2013) identified game use as the 15th most used strategy out of the 24 instructional strategies analyzed. Of the responding leadership educators, 70.6% indicated they use games between 0 and 33% of their instructional time. These findings highlight the tremendous opportunity for leadership educators to take advantage of the potential learning experiences available to leadership learners through games. If accepted, this workshop will empower leadership educators to engage their students in an innovative leadership learning game.

Lesson Plan Description

We initially created *The Leaders Game* in 2012 and have used it for three years in various leadership education settings. Throughout our description of *The Leaders Game*, we will share the strategies we have found most effective.

The Leaders Game Set Up

The Leaders Game can be played among groups with five or more people; we have not observed a limit to how many people can be involved in the game at one time. We have found the best time to facilitate this game is at the completion of a book or at the conclusion of a unit. Most recently, we used *The Leaders Game* to wrap up a discussion about the book *How to Win Friends and Influence People*. Facilitating the game after a book or unit allows students the opportunity to apply the concepts discussed in the book or unit and reflect on the application of these principles.

In order to prepare for the game, we recommend you create four reusable nametags to be used during game play (see Appendix B). These nametags should read "President – Organization A," President – Organization B," "Vice President – Organization A," and "Vice President – Organization B." The room in which the game takes place should have ample space for students to move around with limited chairs and/or tables in the way (see Appendix C). Additionally, you will need access to a whiteboard, chalkboard, or notepad and a timer visible to participants throughout the game.

The Leaders Game Process

The game begins by identifying two participants to be the "presidents" of organizations A and B. Once these individuals are selected, they should be given the nametag identifying them as president along with the instructions to pick their "vice president." Vice presidents are also given nametags. Facilitators should decide whether or not to provide the president and vice president with a description of their organization or allow them to develop their own organization. We see benefits for both providing a description or leaving it up to the students; we encourage educators to make that decision based on the desired learning outcomes. Once the president and vice president have been identified, the facilitator shares the game rules with all participants:

1.) Everyone in the group is in the game, if you are not currently a president or vice president you are "on the market;" the objective is to win the game.
2.) The winner of *The Leaders Game* is the president of the organization with the most members at the end of the game, as well as two individuals the winning president selects from within their organization.
3.) There will be three rounds to the game, after each five minute round all participants will make a selection to either be a member of Organization A, a member of Organization B, or remain on the market. We will then count the number of members for both the organizations.
4.) The president of an organization will be removed if their organization has the lowest number of members or if their organizational membership has remained stagnant or decreased since the previous round.
5.) If a president is fired, the vice president becomes the president of that organization and then selects a replacement vice president from within the organization or from participants on the market.
6.) If you have been fired from an organization you cannot become president or vice president of that organization; however, you can become the president of the other organization.

The first round of the game starts after the rules have been read. In the beginning, participants may need additional encouragement to recruit members and a reminder to use the principles learned in class during the game. A timer should be visible for all participants during game play. The first round of the game is complete after five minutes of game play. The room should be segmented off into three spaces: Organization A, Organization B, and on the market (see Appendix C). The president and vice president of each organization should go their respective spaces. Once the presidents and vice presidents are in their corresponding location, allow all

participants to choose Organization A, Organization B, or to remain on the market; this choice is completely up to participants. Once all members have selected a location, create a membership graph for both organizations on the blackboard, whiteboard, or notepad. Each graph should represent the total the number of members (including president and vice president; see Appendix C). The president of the organization with the fewest members is then removed; once a president is removed from an organization, they go on the market. The vice president of that organization then becomes the president and is asked to name a replacement vice president from their organization or participants on the market.

The second and third rounds of the game are completed in similar fashion. Membership graphs should be updated after each round of game play (see Appendix C). If either organizational membership remains the same or declines from one round to the next, the president of that organization is removed and sent on the market, even if their organization has the most members. After the president and vice president for both organizations have been identified after round three, the president of the organization with the highest membership is identified as a winner of the game. Once the winning president is identified, they select two members of their organization to also include as winners. The three winners should receive a fun reward.

The Leaders Game Conclusions

The Leaders Game provides an abundance of reflection opportunities for students. This allows us as leadership educators to structure the reflection to meet specific learning outcomes. Provided here is an example method for engaging students in a reflection exercise that we developed based on past research (Marzano, 2010; Petranek et al., 1992). To start the reflections, we break the group into smaller groups of five and have each member of the smaller groups share their experiences and learning throughout the game. We encourage participants to keep their reflections connected to the book or unit we are discussing in class, specifically addressing how they applied principles from the unit or book and what they learned about applying these principles during the game. We then bring the whole group back together and have students share any revisions to understanding, or areas where their understanding of leadership changed due to participation in the game. We also open the floor for any challenges or lingering questions that remain after participating in the game. The students complete a final reflective personal journaling activity, with the following prompt, “After reflecting on *The Leaders Game*, what would you have changed about your participation?” This reflection opportunity allows students to identify strategies they used through the game that may have contradicted principles taught in class or discussed in the reading. An alternative reflection (i.e. guided writing exercise) can be found in Appendix D.

Presentation Plan

If given the opportunity to present this workshop, we would begin by briefly outlining the potential benefits of using games within leadership education (10 minutes). We would then engage participants in *The Leaders Game* (25 minutes). Once participants completed the game and winners were identified, we would distribute and review the materials for facilitating the game (see Appendix A) and discuss specific strategies we used throughout the game to improve the potential learning of participants (10 minutes). Once we reviewed the facilitation materials,

we would transition to a discussion of how this game can be applied to a variety of leadership learning outcomes by having participants break into small groups to discuss how they could use this game within their leadership development programs and the specific outcomes they would address using this game. Each group will be asked to share one potential application of this game along with the identified outcome of that application (15 minutes). Successful execution of this workshop requires an hour time block.

Outcomes and Results

Through three years of utilizing *The Leaders Game*, we have found it to be an engaging experience for students. Additionally, students have reflected that participating in *The Leaders Game* is a great opportunity to practice and develop a wide variety of leadership skills. Natasha, a student who participated in *The Leaders Game*, stated in a reflection "This game was good for working on developing communication skills, initiative, and intuition of reading other people." Kate echoed the opportunity this game provided to work on communication, stating "As a leader, you need to be able to speak to others, not just verbally, but also to their wants and needs." Melanie added that the game "was a creative way to think on your feet and negotiate," a skill she struggled with and appreciated the opportunity to work on during the game. In addition to building leadership skills, students identified the importance of being a follower during the game, as Natasha stated "while it was hard having the pressures of being a leader, it was equally hard not being the one in charge and following." One of the most commonly discussed outcomes of this experience was students' awareness of leadership challenges, as Ryan stated "you may think you can trust someone and it turns out you can't."

Overall, students have identified that *The Leaders Game* is an engaging experience which afforded them an opportunity to build, and practice, their leadership skills. As facilitators of this experience, we feel *The Leaders Game* is a valuable addition to our leadership classroom. One of the more valuable aspects of the game is the discussions it elicits. Playing this game opens the door for discussions pertaining to leadership styles, conflict management, communication, motivation, emotional intelligence, followership, authenticity, and a variety of additional leadership topics. This game allows us to tailor our discussion based on our curriculum and the needs of students.

Workshop Implications

The objective of this workshop is to empower leadership educators to facilitate *The Leaders Game* in their classrooms. We have found this game to be highly adaptable to a variety of leadership ideas; therefore, we believe all ALE conference attendees could utilize *The Leaders Game* in their work. Additionally, we hope this workshop sparks leadership educators' creativity toward using games as a method for engaging students in leadership education. Our experience suggests students in leadership benefit from participating in games; therefore, increasing leadership educators' awareness of games and capacity to facilitate games has the potential to positively influence leadership education.

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Appendix A - Facilitator's Guide

Game Rules

1.) Everyone in the group is in the game, if you are not currently a president or vice president you are "on the market;" the objective is to win the game.
2.) The winner of *The Leaders Game* is the president of the organization with the most members at the end of the game, as well as two individuals the winning president selects from within their organization.
3.) There will be three rounds to the game, after each five minute round all participants will make a selection to either be a member of Organization A, a member of Organization B, or remain on the market. We will then count the number of members for both the organizations.
4.) The president of an organization will be removed if their organization has the lowest number of members or if their organizational membership has remained stagnant or decreased since the previous round.
5.) If a president is fired, the vice president becomes the president of that organization and then selects a replacement vice president from within the organization or from participants on the market.
6.) If you have been fired from an organization you cannot become president or vice president of that organization; however, you can become the president of the other organization.

Game Flow

Start with 2 organizations of 2 people (President and VP) record number of employees on board
Round 1: 3 to 5 Minute Interaction
Split Companies – Fire president(s) (If Necessary) & record number of employees on board
Round 2: 3 to 5 Minute Interaction
Split Companies – Fire president(s) (If Necessary) & record number of employees on board
Round 3: 3 to 5 Minute Interaction
Split Companies - Fire president(s) (If Necessary), record number of employees on board, determine winning organization, have winning president select two additional winners.

Appendix B –Identification Cards

President

Organization A

President

Organization B

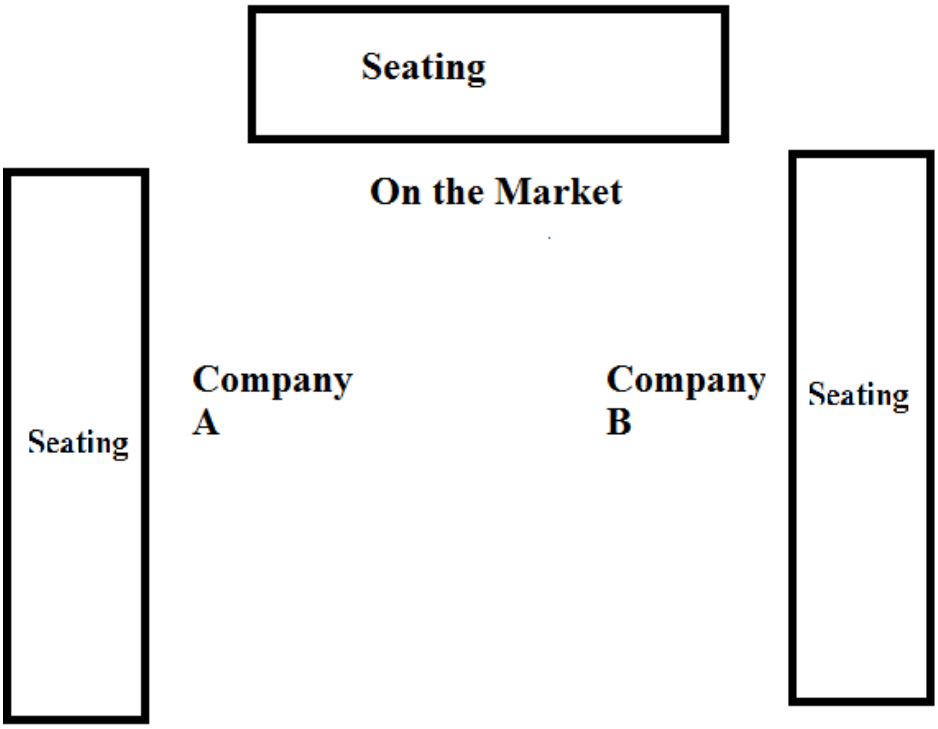
VP

Organization B

VP

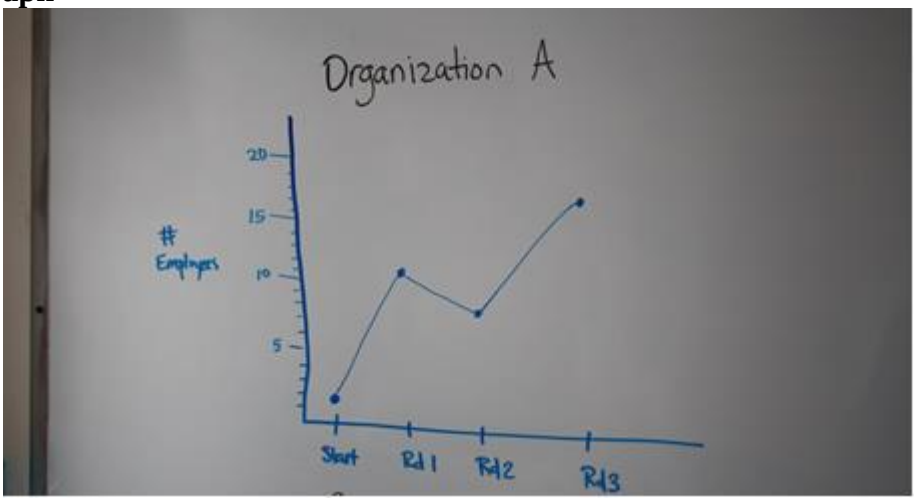
Organization A

Appendix C –Room Layout and Example Graph



Company A & B Graphs

Example Graph



Appendix D – Reflection Worksheet

Thank you for participating in *The Leaders Game*, please take a moment to reflect on your experiences in the game using the questions below. Once everyone has completed this reflection, we will have a group discussion about our experiences.

1. Describe the leadership you enacted, or could have enacted, when playing *The Leaders Game*.

2. How did your experience link to what we've discussed in seminar (*key ideas: conflict management, followership, leadership styles, motivation, influence, team work*)?

3. Describe the leadership you observed among your peers as they played this game.

4. How was your perception of leadership changed/reinforced by playing this game?

5. If you played this game again, how would your strategy change? Please explain why you would make these changes.

When the Rubber Hits the Road: Developing Engaged Leaders in a Co-curricular Leadership Program

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Abstract

An award winning college leadership development program, housed within the Division of Student Life, has succeeded in producing innovative partnerships with faculty in developing integrated learning experiences for students. This interactive workshop shares an overview of the 4-tiered program, focusing specifically on the Engaged Leader tier, which is based on a theoretical framework combining concepts from Depth Psychology and innovation theory with contemporary leadership theory.

Introduction

This workshop will introduce participants to the conceptual and theoretical framework of a four-tiered leadership development program and provide an in-depth focus on one particular tier in order to highlight a faculty-student affairs partnership in curriculum development. Activities will be shared so that participants may understand and incorporate ideas into their own programs.

Participants of this workshop will

1. Gain motivation to develop partnerships between academic and student affairs in order to enrich leadership programs.
2. Understand the conceptual and theoretical framework of an award winning leadership program at a large public university.
3. Engage in and learn to facilitate activities that can deepen students' understanding of self –awareness, group dynamics, and conflict management.
4. Review the Social Change Model and Leadership Challenge models of leadership and understand their application to the framework for a leadership program.
5. Understand the concepts of the Personal Shadow and the Shadow Projection and learn how to apply these concepts to teaching students to effectively work as a team.

Review of Related Research

The leadership program that is the basis for this session is built upon the Social Change Model of Leadership (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996), and the program's tiers correspond to the three focuses of values which form that model's framework (individual, group and community). The second tier specifically teaches skills and provides experiential learning based on the three C's of Group Values: Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility and Collaboration. The core values of the program are also taught through the 5 Practices of Exemplary Leadership from Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Challenge model.

The second tier curriculum is introduced to students through an emphasis on innovation and iteration as they relate to project development. The guiding sources are the Idea Fan Deck (Jules Bruck and Anthony Middlebrooks, 2012) and What I Wish I Knew When I Was Twenty (Tina Seeling, Stanford University Innovation Project, 2009)

Another theoretical framework that guides and informs the second tier curriculum focused on in this session is taken from the works of Carl Jung and Depth Psychologists such as James Hillman and Marion Woodman. The program focuses on two concepts from Depth Psychology and how they are related to effective communication and leadership: The Personal Shadow and Shadow Projection. These concepts have clear application to successfully working as part of a team in designing and implementing projects that bring positive change to the campus community. Beyond learning content, students are taught strategies for managing the shadow, more mindfully dealing with people and situations that "set them off", and defusing their own defensive emotions.

Lesson Plan Description

Following is an outline for the lesson plan:

I. Introduction
   a. Overview of the 4 tiered leadership program with a review of the foundational models: the Social Change Model and the Leadership Challenge.
   b. Introduction to the conceptual framework of Tier 2, including review of the year's curriculum and briefs
      i. Application of Group Value lens: What processes students need to learn in order to work effectively in groups. How can collaboration foster individual development and social change? (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996, pg. 21)
      ii. Use of Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility and Collaboration as guiding tenants
      iii. Progression from individual focus on True Colors and Strengths Quest into understanding of how personality traits and strengths impact group dynamics.
      iv. Use of innovation and reiteration in project development
      v. Importance of embracing failure as valuable learning tool (development of failure resumes)

II. Common Purpose –Having shared aims and values. Involving others in building a group's vision. (HERI, 1996)
   a. Review of purpose and curriculum of Tier 2 retreat
   b. Finding Your Why (Start With Why: How Great Leaders Inspire Everyone to Take Action; TED Talk; Simon Sinek, 2011)
   c. Hedgehog concept from Good to Great (Jim Collins, 2001)
   d. First three briefs – purpose, topics and outcomes

III. Controversy with Civility –Recognizing two fundamental realities of any creative effort: 1.) differences in viewpoint are inevitable and 2) such differences must be aired openly and with civility. (HERI, 1996)
   a. Explanation of Personal Shadow and Shadow Projection and value to Tier 2 curriculum (see detailed explanation in Workshop Plan and Implications)

i. Buttons, Thieves and Jerks game
ii. Virtues activity
iii. Shadow discussion and application

IV. Collaboration –Working with others in a common effort, sharing responsibility, authority and accountability. Multiplying group effectiveness by capitalizing on various perspectives and talents and on the power of diversity to generate creative solutions. (HERI, 1996)

a. Post-it note activity (focus on re-iteration at the start of the spring semester when students need to regain motivation, refocus group dynamics and begin the implementation phase of their project)
b. How to sell your idea (students introduced to a variety of ways to make a pitch or persuasive speech in order to engage campus partners in their ideas

V. Wrap Up

a. Discussion of learning outcomes for students participating in Tier 2
i. Project management principles, budgeting, developing partnerships
b. Sharing of examples of projects- both successful and not
i. Success: UDream Green - Sustainability based workshops over 3 semesters, culminating in alternative winter break trip to Puerto Rico. Success widely recognized for meeting program and division learning outcomes. Adopted as permanent part of BHLP.
ii. Success: Day of Service - student initiated day of service has grown each year and now in its fourth year. First two years were BHLP Tier 2 projects, subsequent years were adopted by BHLP as full part of the program.
iii. Failure: Spreading Smiles - proposed project to increase happiness across campus, 3 projects over 2 years. Low attendance at events, no campus buy-in. Silver lining: "Encourage the Heart" workshop presented by students for 3 years.
iv. Failure: Academic Mentoring - one project spanning 2 years, found departmental partnerships, tried to pilot new mentorship program from one college to another. Blocked access to documents to start program, unable to find faculty to coordinate program.
c. How Tier 4 students are used in an advising
i. All Tier 4 students have successfully completed Tier 2.
ii. Tier 4 students trained and given advisor manual, partnered with BHLP Staff overseeing g

VI. Question and Answer session for workshop participants

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The development of this partnership and curriculum was a result of unsatisfying outcomes with the first three years of development of Tier 2. The curriculum focused too heavily on intangible concepts related to creativity and innovation and teaching task based skills related to project management, but not enough on group dynamics and addressing issues of group conflict and accountability. Enhancing the educational components of the curriculum by focusing on concepts introduced by our faculty partner has given students a heftier tool box of skills and knowledge that not only guide them in their work on the tier 2 project, but provide them with life skills that

will transfer into any endeavor their future holds.

Workshop Plan and Implications

Following is a description of activities in which we will engage the participants in order for them to be able to apply these lessons in their own leadership programs.

What often stands in the way of controversy with civility is a leader's inability to bring skillful behavior to bear on certain situations and with certain people. Everyone has "hot buttons" or finds that they are "set off" emotionally by certain types of people, behaviors, or situations. In other words, even skillful people often find they are unable to respond skillfully in particular situations.

The psychological concepts of the *personal shadow* and *shadow projection* provide us with two important tools for understanding (1) why and when skillful people fall back on reactive and defensive responses to stress and (2) how to defuse "threatening" perceptions and interpretations with mindful awareness and replace defensive communication with skillful responses (Richo, 2005; Hollis, 2006). Convincing groups of people to explore (and admit to) their defense mechanisms is challenging under the best of circumstances. Few people are ready to admit to the kinds of insecurities and vulnerabilities that make up their shadow in front of other people – particularly people they work with. The purpose of these games is to create a humorous and non-threatening environment to introduce the idea of shadow and shadow projection in a group setting and to provide participants an initial entry into the types of material they project. This first activity, **Virtues and Challenges** helps participants see "shadow side" of their virtues through questions such as the following:

<u>Do you consider yourself a helpful person?</u> <u>Do you also often feel over-committed?</u> Do you also feel resentful sometimes, helping everyone, but not always getting help or appreciation? Is it difficult for you to ask for help? Here we see that identifying with being helpful can put self care or asking for help in one's shadow.

ii. A game titled **Hot Buttons, Big Jerks, and Little Thieves** helps participants further become aware of what "activates" their shadow and what types of things they project on others. These lessons from these games are then applied to developing positive group dynamics.

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Educator Workshop: Using the Social Change Model in a Freshman Learning Community

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Abstract

College freshman experience transitions from high school to college. Universities develop programs within their institutions to make that transition a little easier. This workshop teaches educators to develop learning communities that instill leadership and study skills in first-year freshman, while providing opportunities for them make a difference in their community.

Introduction

Student learning communities are part of college campuses across the United States. Students who partake in these programs share common residence halls, classes, and mentors to ease the transition from high school to college. In addition to developing life and leadership skills to make them successful in college, students have the opportunity to be leaders in their profession and community.

The Day One Leadership Program is a fall semester experience for incoming freshmen at [*University*]. Eight goals are identified for the program, including specific learning objectives for student participants in the areas of leadership development, civic responsibility, and successful transition to college. The eight goals for the Day One Leadership Program are: 1.) Recruit a diverse student body to [*University*] by focusing on the unique opportunity Day One provides for students to develop their leadership potential; 2.) Assist freshmen in their transition to college life by fostering a living-learning community in their residence halls, providing faculty/staff mentors, and connecting students with campus resources; 3.) Introduce basic leadership knowledge and concepts to better prepare students for leadership roles in life; 4.) Provide students with team-based, student-directed service-learning leadership opportunities with community partners; 5.) Address and reinforce student civic responsibility through service- learning commitments; 6.) Expose students to real-world leaders; 7.) Emphasize individual character development and personal growth; and 8.) Encourage student engagement in leadership roles within the university and all aspects of life.

The purpose of this workshop will be to demonstrate how the social change model can be used to implement a freshman living-learning community in cooperation with community partners to develop leadership skills in students and create positive change in the community.

Learner Objectives:

1. Apply the Social Change Model of Leadership to a Freshman Learning Community
2. Analyze potential impacts (student, university, and community) of a Leadership based Learning Community Program
3. Identify expected outcomes from a Leadership based Learning Community Program

Review of Related Scholarship

The freshman year of college is a "time of transition and adjustment to the social and academic demands of college" (Tinto & Goodsell, 1994, p. 1). Retention of first year college freshman students is quickly becoming more and more of a problem among institutions of higher education around the world (O'Keefe, 2013). As cited by Symonds, Schwartz, and Ferguson (2011), "according to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the United States now has the highest college dropout rate in the industrialized world" (p.17). Moreover, "Student attrition costs universities in terms of lost revenue; however the lost investment in higher education is also extensive" (O'Keefe, 2013, p. 605). Research suggests involving students in a small learning community at the beginning of their academic career will increase performance and the likelihood of retention (Bean & Eaton, 2001).

College students are expected to experience personal growth and increase their awareness of the world, in addition to gaining knowledge and skills from higher education (Bowman, Brandenberger, Lapsley, Hill, & Quaranto, 2010). "Over the last two decades, new initiatives and pedagogies of engagement have fostered significant increases in student volunteering and service, both within and beyond the curriculum" (Bowman, et al., 2010, p. 14). The Day One Leadership program uses the Social Change Model of Leadership Development to positively influence participating students and facilitate change within the cooperating community (Komives & Wagner, 2012). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development is displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Social Change Model of Leadership Development. (Graphic from https://www.ccp.utoronto.ca/Faculty/Resources/Social-Change-Model-of- Leadership-Development.htm)

The Social Change Model approaches leadership development from three different angles:

The Individual – What personal qualities are we attempting to foster and develop in those who participate in a leadership development program? What personal qualities are most supportive of group functioning and positive social change?

The Group – how can the collaborative leadership development process be designed not only to facilitate the development of the desired individual qualities (above) but also to effect positive social change?

The Community/Society – Toward what social ends is the leadership development activity directed? What kinds of service activities are most effective in energizing the group and in developing desired personal qualities in the individual?
The Day One Leadership Program, in collaboration with community partners, university faculty, and student mentors, aims to engage first year freshman students in a learning community conducive to personal growth and positive change within society all while encouraging retention at the university. Researchers postulate the feeling of belonging to a group positively correlates to academic achievement, progress towards a degree, and acceptance among peers (Meeuwise, Severiens, & Born, 2010). The program presented during this workshop also places great emphasis in the relationship between the student and faculty at the university, and the relationship between the student and their mentor, during the course of the semester. Faculty and mentors create a more informal, laid-back environment for the students to encourage participation and retention in the program and university.

Lesson Plan Description

Title: Using the Social Change Model in a Freshman Learning Community

Time: 90 minutes

Purpose: Teach participants how leadership learning community programs utilizing the Social Change Model of Leadership might be implemented

Objectives:

1. Apply the Social Change Model of Leadership to a Freshman Learning Community
2. Analyze potential impacts (student, university, and community) of a Leadership based Learning Community Program
3. Identify expected outcomes from a Leadership based Learning Community Program

Teaching methods:

I. Introduction- 10 min
   a. Presenters and [University]
   b. Utilize the PowerPoint to introduce participants to the mission and programs of the Office of Student Leadership and Community Engagement

II. Apply the Social Change Model of Leadership to a Freshman Learning Community-

10 min

a. Physical demonstration of how the Office of Student Leadership and Community Engagement uses the Social Change Model of Leadership to guide its programs

III. Analyze potential impacts (student, university, and community) of a Leadership based Learning Community Program- 40 min

a. Introduce key players in the Day One Leadership Program: students, community agencies, faculty/staff mentors, Montgomery Leadership Program Fellows, ambassadors, and Day One staff
b. As participants enter the room, they will be given different colored stickers. Each color corresponds to a specific role in the Day One Leadership Program. Participants will be asked to get into small groups with people who share the same role (same sticker color). Participants will be given information about their role and responsibilities in Day One and will read through the information.
c. After discussing the information they have been given, participants will explain their roles and responsibilities in the Day One Leadership Program to all participants. Facilitators will supplement this with information from the PowerPoint
d. Facilitators lead discussion on how this leadership program could be implemented at participants' respective institutions. Participants will be encouraged to share similar programs from their institutions.
e. Provide participants with a typical calendar year of events for the Day One Leadership Program

IV. Identify expected outcomes from a Leadership based Learning Community Program- 20 min

a. Discuss results from the Day One Survey using the PowerPoint

V. Conclusion- 10 min

PowerPoint slides and activities are included in the Appendix.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The Day One Leadership Program began in the fall of 2007. During the 2013 fall semester, the program's seventh year, 224 students participated in the Day One Leadership Program. The majority (60%) of participating students were from [state] with 40% from out-of-state. Females comprised 74% of the participants. The racial demographics were 49% African-American, 4% Caucasian, and 7% other (Hispanic, Native American, Asian, and No Identification Given).

Collectively, just over 15,000 hours of education and community service were delivered through this program, impacting thirty-two community agencies throughout [university location] and the surrounding areas in the 2013 fall semester.

Comprehensive pre- and post- survey instruments were administered to Day One participants the week before classes began and immediately following final exams for the semester, respectively. These instruments, reflecting the components of the Social Change Model, sought to determine student-perceived outcomes and impacts of the Day One Leadership program in terms of the eight stated program objectives, as well as additional expanded components in the areas of leadership behaviors and attitudes and civic responsibility and attitudes. Additional results will

be shared during the workshop, however for clarity, we have only included the overall program post-assessment (Table 1) and student-perceived achievement of the eight program objectives (Table 2). Participants indicated positive overall assessment of the Day One Leadership Program.

Table 1.

Day One 2013 Post Assessment – Overall Day One Program (N = 137)

	M	% Agree +Strongly Agree
Overall, the Day One Leadership Community helped me understand the impact of leadership in addressing real challenges.	4.31	90%
Overall, the Day One Leadership Community was a good experience.	4.17	82%
The Day One Leadership Community helped me successfully transition to college life.	4.05	78%
The Day One Leadership Community helped me become a better leader	4.33	91%
I was able to make friends from different walks of life because of the Day One Leadership Community.	4.24	87%
I like the Day One Leadership Community.	4.19	84%
Total	4.21	85%

Note. Post-Survey was completed just after the final exam.

Note. Post-Survey values were 5=Strongly Agree, 4=Agree, 3=Uncertain, 2=Disagree, and 1=Strongly Disagree

Table 2.

Day One 2013 Post Assessment – Reaching Day One Goals (N = 137)

	M	% Agree +Strongly Agree
Day One helped me transition to college life.	4.04	78%
Day One helped prepare me for leadership roles in life.	4.34	90%
Day One helped me participate in team-based, student-directed, service learning opportunities with community partners	4.48	93%
Day One allowed me to interact with real-world leaders.	4.17	86%
Day One helped me focus on individual character development and personal growth.	4.35	91%
Day One allowed me to interact with a diverse student body.	4.38	93%
The Day One program encouraged me to engage in leadership roles within the university and all aspects of life.	4.36	92%
Total	4.32	90%

Note. Post-Survey was completed just after the final exam.
Note. Post-Survey values were 5=Strongly Agree, 4=Agree, 3=Uncertain, 2=Disagree, and 1=Strongly Disagree

Workshop Plan and Implications

This workshop will be beneficial to educators interested in implementing a project-based leadership learning community on their campus. Participants will investigate and discuss the model provided by the Day One Leadership Program for freshmen which is grounded in the Social Change Model of Leadership.

Participants will be asked to play the role of a specific stakeholder in the Day One Leadership Program in order to understand the scope of the program. Presenters will fully describe the program and present results to date. Participants' will be encouraged to ask questions and engage in discussion about similar programs on their own campuses or ways to adapt the Day One model to their own campus or program. .

Participants will be provided with a full range of materials from the existing program. These materials will provide a guideline for the planning and implementation of their own leadership program.

Engaged discussion about the Day One program and others will provide facilitators with feedback and participants with a better understanding of the possibilities for engaging leadership learning community programs on their campuses.

Appendices

Included in the Appendix:

- Presentation slides
- Project Executive Summary
- Sample Reflection Questions

An additional list of resources include:

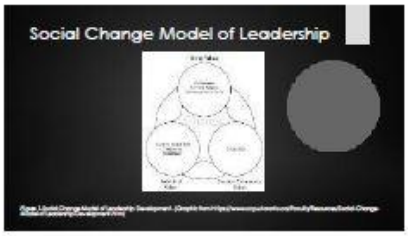
- Day One Guidebook
- Service Agreement
- Service-learning proposals
- Day One Application
- Service Log Form
- Community Partner Contact Form
- Materials for physical demonstration of Social Change Model of Leadership
- Roles and responsibilities information sheets for Stakeholder Simulation
- Day One Leadership Program Calendar of Events


[University]

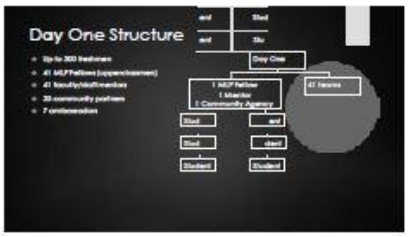

The Office of Student Leadership &
Community Engagement

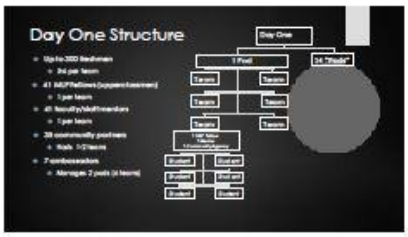

Community Engagement Programs


Leadership Programs


Social Change Model of Leadership


What is Day One?


Day One Structure


Day One Structure


Stakeholder Simulation

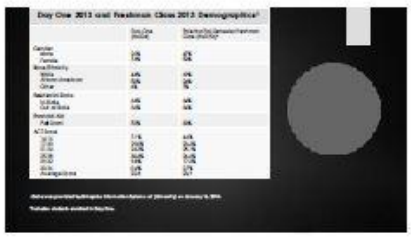

Students
DAY ONE LEADERSHIP COMMUNITY
STUDENT GUIDEBOOK

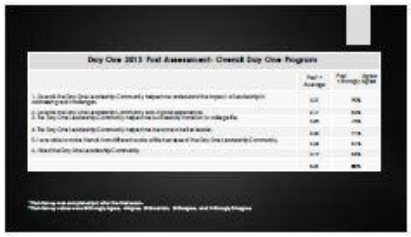

MLP Fellows
DAY ONE LEADERSHIP COMMUNITY
FACILITATOR GUIDEBOOK


Faculty/Staff Mentor


Community Partner


Ambassador





ODD Numbered Reflection Prompts

Reflection #1
"Tell your ATM a little about yourself (where you are from, what high school you went to, what activities did you participate in in high school, what you are majoring in, what your hobbies are, how many people are in your family, etc.). Also, why did you decide to become a member of the Day One Leadership Community and what do you hope to gain from your involvement in Day One?"

Reflection 3: 30 August 2013 (If your team was unable to visit with your CP contact person in class or complete an Orientation Site Visit, please answer the reflection prompt in the last paragraph.)

Describe what most impressed you about your CP contact person and the CP site? Explain how long you think it will take your team to truly appreciate the needs of your CP so you can bring value to their organization (justify your answer). What can you do to create a positive working relationship with your CP?

If your team was unable to meet your CP contact person and participate in a CP Orientation Site Visit, explain how your team may effectively engage your CP (new CP) to facilitate accurate communication and enable a meaningful service experience that benefits both your team and your community partner. What specifically can you do to ensure that your team will work together to overcome challenges and accomplish great things?

Reflection 5:
Thinking back over the previous 4 weeks, you have learned a lot about each member of your team and your CP. As a whole, what are the greatest strengths of your team? How can your team's strengths be engaged to best meet the needs of your CP in a way that is mutually beneficial to the CP and your teammates? How can your mentor and MLP fellow assist your team in reaching its fullest potential in Day One?

Reflection 7:
Write a quality and concise assessment of the time/schedule challenges of serving your CP. Explain how you and your team have dealt with these challenges thus far and whether it has worked or not. What can you do as a leader to better overcome these challenges and assist your teammates? How does effective time management fit in with the successful completion of your project? Finally, what additional changes do you think you need to make from this point forward?

Reflection 9:
While visiting with Action Teams on Mondays and Wednesdays, two contrasting team dynamics can be seen. Many teams can be described as active, connected, purposeful, resourceful, participatory, and/or upbeat. On the other hand, some teams can be described as passive, disengaged, disconnected, disinterested, and/or downtrodden. When all teams are examined, it is observed that almost every team has many of the same challenges; however, teams respond to the challenges in different ways.

When two teams face similar challenges but one team “steps-up” while the other team “checks-out,” what factors do you think contribute to the contrasting team dynamics (upbeat vs downtrodden)? (Please be specific)

PROJECT EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Team Members: Student 1, Student 2, Student 3, Student 4, Student 5 Mentor: MSU Staff Member
MLP Fellow: MLP Fellow

CP: Golden Triangle Boys and Girls Club

(PES 1) Realized Project Summary & Benefit

The Kids of America team aspired to complete two main objectives we envisioned for this semester which were mentoring the children of the Boys and Girls Club, as well as designing an uplifting mural for the gymnasium at the club. We managed to accomplish both goals by managing our time and responsibilities within the team. Each team member worked diligently to volunteer at least once a week inside the classrooms with the students whether with homework or club programs like SMART Girls. To accomplish the mural, it took several weeks of coming up with designs, communicating the ideas of the team members to our CP, and creating a timeline to work toward the final product of our project. Goal 1: Each week, our group planned to visit the Boys and Girls Club of Starkville and volunteer for at least two hours. Goal 1a: While volunteering, we assisted the program staff and students with various activities and their homework. Goal 1b: We helped maintain discipline and kept an organized environment. Goal 1c: When volunteering, we wanted to keep a positive attitude to encourage the kids to be the best they can be. Goal 2: We created a project that encourages a positive and fun athletic environment for the students by painting a mural along the walls of the gym. Goal 2a: We used quotes from positive role models to give the students inspirational people to look up to. Goal 2b: We promoted healthy life skills and teamwork through the images and quotes in the mural. Goal 2c: We used bright colors and intriguing graphics to give a lively atmosphere.

(PES 2) Leadership Lessons Learned

The biggest challenge that we have faced as a team was coordinating together through communication and the obstacles that go with it. We had to develop skills dealing with communicating the needs of the group, and the needs of our Community Partner (CP). At first we struggled with communicating everyone's purpose in the group as well as who should lead what. We overcame these issues by openly discussing them with the group and reminding each other of the goals we were striving to achieve as a group for our CP itself. This helped us to incorporate patience, whether it was for working together and understanding our differences or getting approval from our superiors for projects.

The greatest leadership lesson our team learned was that we all have strengths that allowed us to persevere through different obstacles which worked out well for our end result. We effectively solved problems together, and this is key to each of our future aspirations. Whether we are volunteering for Habitat for Humanity or working out a dispute in our future careers, we will be able to take these lessons we learned from Day One and apply them on a daily basis.

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INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

The Quest Leadership Program: Cultivating a Partnership between Academic and Student Affairs

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Abstract

In order to create a more cohesive curricular and co-curricular learning experience for students, partnerships between Academic Affairs and Student Affairs have long been advocated by scholars and educators. However, in most cases, students are unaware of the learning that is occurring during those programs. Recently, creating intentional co-curricular programs has been a goal of many institutions to ensure that students are actively participating in the learning. The Quest Leadership Program was created as a result of a well-defined partnership between Academic Affairs and Student Affairs to deliberately bridge the gap between in- and out-of-classroom leadership experiences.

Introduction

Astin's Theory of Involvement (1984, 1996, 1999) posits that students play an active role in establishing their level of involvement in their courses, co-curricular activities, and overall social development. According to Kuh (1996), several studies have found that institutions that provide experiences integrating curricular and co-curricular activities enhance a student's quality of life. Not only is co-curricular programming shown to increase a student's attachment to their institution (Tinto, 1997), but engagement in co-curricular programming is also positively related to a high GPA (Bergen-Cico & Viscomi, 2012). In addition, it is believed that short, moderate, and long-term experiences in formal leadership programs have a significant effect on a student's leadership efficacy (Dugan & Komives, 2007), or "the level of confidence in the knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with leading others" (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008, p. 669).

Evidence such as this has prompted the creation of intentional programs where students are actively aware of the learning that is occurring. Through the cultivation of partnerships between Academic Affairs and Student Affairs, higher education institutions have begun to develop curricular and co-curricular programs through which students are able to connect their out-of-classroom experiences to learning, engage in self-reflection, and understand their personal growth and development.

Fort Hays State University (FHSU) has created an opportunity that is connected by online technology, and allows students to tailor a program fit to their developmental needs and goals in regard to leadership efficacy development. Focusing on the concepts of the leadership process, students are taken on a "quest" of self-reflection to better understand themselves and their abilities as a leader in their organizations, community, and/or personal life. This session will focus on the importance of partnerships between Academic Affairs and Student Affairs, the benefits of an intentionally designed co-curricular program for students wanting to enhance their leadership skills, and the integration of technology in the process.

Review of Related Scholarship

Research has indicated that students enhance their leadership skills during their college years (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), and that leadership development enhances a student's self-efficacy, civic engagement, character development, academic performance, and personal development (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Classroom experiences, however, do not generally include a focus on developing the personal characteristics such as self-understanding, honesty, integrity, empathy, listening skills, and the ability to work collaboratively, which are considered central to effective leadership (Astin & Astin, 2000).

Astin and Astin (2000) argued that virtually all activities a student participates in throughout college contain the opportunity for developing leadership skills; however, students are often not aware of the learning that may be occurring through these experiences (Guthrie & Thompson, 2010). Elias and Drea (2013) consider a pillar of a co-curricular program to be to "connect experience to learning, to encourage self-reflection and self-awareness, and highlight to the student their personal growth and development." This idea further enhances the need for intentionally designed programming on the topics of leader and leadership development.

Being positively related to academic achievement, self-concept, and school perception (Bergen-Cico & Viscomi, 2012; Peixoto, 2004), institutions worldwide have begun to offer co-curricular programming to add to students' success (Elias & Drea, 2013). It has been suggested that intentional co-curricular programming to complement academic curriculum should be created by both Student Affairs and Academic Affairs in order to maximize the holistic development of students (Guthrie & Thompson, 2010). Leadership development being no exception to holistic development, several scholars have advocated for collaborative efforts between academic affairs and student affairs divisions believing that these collaborations can create successful leadership development environments (Roberts, 2007; Streit, Dalton, & Crosby, 2009; Guthrie & Thompson, 2010).

According to a study of the outcomes from Student Affairs and Academic Affairs partnerships, partnering programs facilitated increased academic engagement, civic engagement, and more opportunity for interpersonal interactions between faculty and students both in and out of the classroom (Nesheim, Guentzel, Kellogg, McDonald, Wells, & Whitt, 2007). Educators, as well as students, who participated in this study identified student learning outcomes that resulted from these partnerships—thinking critically, taking responsibility for learning, understanding themselves and others, and making connections between in- and out-of-class experiences. The two latter outcomes are a focus of the Quest Leadership Program, in which students are challenged to reflect on their strengths as a leader, and use the knowledge of the leadership process presented to them to further develop their skills.

In a study identifying best practices for Academic Affairs-Student Affairs partnership programs, scholars noted that effective partnership programs foster learning in both formal and informal settings (Whitt, Nesheim, Guentzel, Kellogg, McDonald, & Wells, 2008). This includes both in and out of class experiences. Creating this seamless learning environment allows for further building of relationships between students and faculty or staff (Whitt et al., 2008). The Quest

Leadership program is a program in which an Introduction to Leadership Concepts course is used as a "spring-board" for a student's leadership development experience at FHSU. The course not only introduces students to leadership theory and development, but also how outside of the classroom experiences can foster the learning and practice of leadership.

Description of the Practice

Through a unique partnership among Fort Hays State University's (FHSU) Department of Leadership Studies, Center for Student Involvement (CSI), and Division of Student Affairs, the Quest Leadership Program (QLP) is comprised of both curricular and co-curricular experiences to engage students in the development of leadership skills throughout their college experience. The program is not designed to be completed within one semester or one year, but rather to expand the learning experience throughout a student's entire college career.

In order to complete the program and to receive a certificate of completion, an online badge, and a cord at commencement, students must:

- Pass the Introduction to Leadership Concepts course
- Attend an approved leadership retreat
- Attend 15 Quest selected activities
- Attend a Sebelius Lecture Series event
- Complete a *StrengthsQuest* assessment and reflection

While students are required to take a course from the Department of Leadership Studies to complete the QLP, they are not required to be Organizational Leadership majors to participate. The curriculum is offered to all students who wish to develop their leadership potential; thus creating opportunities for all students on the college campus.

As noted in the requirements for completion, the QLP is a curricular and co-curricular program designed to expand what is covered in the Department of Leadership Studies' introduction course, LDRS 300: Introduction to Leadership Concepts. The Introduction to Leadership Concepts course provides an overview of the various concepts and theories in the leadership studies discipline. The course is intended to set the foundation for the QLP, and introduce students to the overall concept of the leadership process. The course "actively engages students in the acquisition of information about historical and contemporary theories, concepts, and issues associated with leadership. Students are exposed to the nature of leadership through presentation of objective material, through group activities, and through laboratory exercises" (Fort Hays State, 2014a).

The Department of Leadership Studies has developed the QLP using its introduction course as a foundation, in which all programming included in the subsequent co-curricular experience is created and/or chosen based on the initial learning objectives covered in the introduction course. This allows the students the opportunity to connect their classroom experience to various activities offered on campus, and to develop a student's leadership potential in order for him/her to improve, enhance, and transform his/her organizations, communities, and personal life.

Through participating in the QLP, students will:

- Become familiar with a variety of leadership concepts
- Develop the confidence to improve his/her organization, community, and/or personal life
- Gain a deeper personal insight into his/her leadership potential
- Enhance his/her ability to participate in a leadership process or activity

Another component of the program includes the student's attendance at a leadership retreat. The CSI typically hosts one leadership retreat on campus each semester. These retreats focus on various aspects of the leadership process and self-development. Whether it is about enhancing skills on interpersonal communication, conflict management, or building on strengths, the leadership retreats are an opportunity for in-depth reflection. An example of a leadership retreat that has been hosted two years in a row is the *Catalyst* Leadership Retreat, which is presented by a contracted speaker and is intended to create an environment in which participants can engage with each other and increase their capacity to lead (LeaderShape, 2014).

The 15 Quest activities are selected via the campus activities calendar and/or designed by the Department of Leadership Studies. Each semester, the Department of Leadership Studies hosts at least three events that focus on a variety of leadership topics. For example, in the fall of 2014, the department hosted: 1) Collaboration and Problem Solving, 2) Women & Leadership, and 3) The Disney Way of Leadership. Other activities that have been included in the curriculum are those hosted by various campus organizations, both department-led and student-led. In order to be included in the QLP, the program must encompass a lesson in leadership in some capacity.

An example of a student-led event includes the SWIPE Out Hunger event hosted once per year on the FHSU campus, in which students participate in the service opportunity of packing meals for the hungry in the United States and Africa. Through this event, students are given a deeper understanding of what it means to participate in the civic leadership process. The overall idea of the 15 Quest selected activities allows the student to create an individualized program. Students are able to attend events that focus on building their strengths and honing their weaknesses.

Another required component of the QLP includes attending a Sebelius Lecture Series event, which is hosted through collaboration with the Office of the President, Student Government Association, and CSI, as well as donations from community patrons. The series presents two speakers per year (one per semester). The speakers presented through the series generally have a political background and expose students to the ideas of political leadership.

The last required piece of the QLP is the *StrengthsQuest* assessment and reflection. *StrengthsQuest* is a self-assessment hosted through the *Gallup* organization. *StrengthsQuest* is an assessment designed to create self-awareness of one's strengths, in order to capitalize their use in one's personal and professional life. FHSU currently employs three *StrengthsQuest* facilitators in its Division of Student Affairs, and the CSI generally offers one *StrengthsQuest* workshop per year, as well as one-on-one workshops by appointment. The intent of the institution's workshops is for students discuss and reflect how they will use their strengths to improve their leadership skills in a variety of situations. These reflections are written and submitted through the Tiger[Link] curriculums tool.

Tiger[Link] is an online software, licensed through *Campus Labs*, which hosts the institution's "Curriculums" module, of which the QLP is a part. Funded by the Division of Student Affairs, the CSI manages the software to track attendance and gather assessment data. This allows students to keep track of their progress through Quest, and identify activities to attend to complete the curriculum. All students at the institution are asked to bring their university-issued ID to all events they attend on campus. Using digital card readers, campus staff "swipe in" students to record their attendance.

Recording student attendance at campus events offers two valuable things: 1) a co-curricular transcript for the student, and 2) data on student involvement. The co-curricular transcript provides students a compilation of their involvement at the institution, including the events or programs they have attended, their curriculum status (i.e. QLP), and any organization membership and/or leadership positions they have held. This information proves useful when students are preparing their resume for job applications.

Not only does this information benefit the student upon graduation, but it also provides FHSU with an overwhelming amount of data regarding student involvement. An abundance of studies have proved that involvement outside of the classroom enhances student success (Tinto, 1997; Astin & Astin, 2000; Bergen-Cico & Viscomi, 2012; Elias & Drea, 2013). The data garnered from Tiger[Link] provides FHSU with the relevant information to make strategic decisions about student programming and co-curricular involvement.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results to Date

The conclusion of the fall 2014 semester marked the end of the second semester of the QLP. At the end of fall 2014, three students are 80% complete with the program and are four to six events short of completing their 15 Quest selected activities, which once completed will mark the completion of the entire program. Because the QLP is intended to be completed throughout a student's entire college experience, low completion rates are expected at this point in the program.

A majority of events included in the QLP are assessed via an end-of-event survey. This survey primarily measures satisfaction and the individuals' connection to the institution. The first two semesters of Quest events—Spring 2014 and Fall 2014—garnered a total of 143 attendees. Freshman made up the majority of attendees at 42% (n=60). A majority of the attendees were also females at 69% (n=98). Out of all attendees, 46% (n=64) chose to attend the event to learn more about the subject being presented, and 29% (n=42) attended the event because they liked the topic of the presentation being offered. Attendees rated the overall quality of the event on a scale of one to five (one being extremely poor; five being excellent); the average score was 4.2. When asked how the event had an impact on them, 69% (n=99) said they learned something new, 36% (n=52) said the event enhanced their college experience, and 32% (n=45) said they developed or learned a skill. On average, attendees agreed that they felt more connected to the FHSU as a result of attending the event.

Upon completion of the entire program, students are asked to complete a curriculum assessment survey (Appendix A), which asks them to reflect on their experience and how it has enhanced or

further developed various leadership concepts or skills including collaboration, communication, conflict management, and problem solving. In particular, it assesses the students' perceptions about the impact of the program in their life, as well as whether the curriculum helped them gain a deeper understanding of their leadership potential, and develop the confidence to improve their organization, community, and/or personal life. The data resulting from this assessment will be used to guide programming in future semesters.

Reflections & Recommendations

In order to execute a college experience of this nature, it was imperative for the Department of Leadership Studies to create a strong and lasting partnership with the Division of Student Affairs and CSI. In congruence with the thoughts of Whitt et al. (2008) to create a seamless learning environment, it was also important for the program to include both curricular and co-curricular elements, so all participating students were exposed to the foundation of leadership theory and development. This enhances a student's ability to connect in- and out-of-class experiences while reflecting on their abilities that need to be further developed.

A primary step in creating strong partnerships among the Department of Leadership Studies, the Division of Student Affairs, and CSI was the identification of roles. Marketing of the program to students has become a joint effort between the CSI and Department of Leadership Studies while the selection of programming is a role held primarily by the department. This is to ensure that leadership concepts are being presented in the workshop, presentation, or activity.

Marketing the QLP in its entirety is likely to increase attendance at workshops designed for Quest and hosted by the department. Guthrie and Thompson (2010) suggest that students are often unaware of the learning that is taking place at co-curricular events, so establishing, through marketing, a clear goal for the student to reach may be the solution to garnering greater attendance numbers. The CSI is currently developing a curriculum marketing campaign that will present the QLP, along with fellow curriculums, to students in a more organized manner. The Department of Leadership Studies has also begun presenting the QLP to all students in the Introduction to Leadership Concepts course as that is a requirement in the program that is generally completed first. In addition, marketing efforts, thus far, have generated online student interest. One-third of FHSU's student population is fully online through its Virtual College; therefore, Department of Leadership Studies and CSI have begun to explore an online, or virtual, opportunity with the QLP.

In conclusion, the strong partnership among the Department of Leadership Studies, Division of Student Affairs, and Center for Student Involvement has a created a leadership development program for students of all backgrounds and academic interests. With the combination of coursework, active learning workshops, service projects, and guest lectures, students are exposed to a variety of leadership concepts and real-world examples of the leadership process at work. Understanding that students have the opportunity for leadership skills development in all activities they participate in throughout college (Astin & Astin, 2000), the Quest Leadership Program deliberately places those activities in a program intentionally designed to complement academic curriculum and challenges students to reflect on their own learning and development throughout their college experience.

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Appendix A
The Quest Leadership Program
End of Program Assessment

Before participating in the Quest Leadership Program, how knowledgeable were you of the following concepts?
Very knowledgeable *Knowledgeable* *Somewhat knowledgeable*
Not knowledgeable at all

Collaboration
Communication
Problem solving
Civic leadership
Teamwork
Personal reflection
Goal setting
Conflict management
Social change
Other leadership concept(s) not mentioned above

To what extent has your understanding of the following concepts increased through participating in the Quest Leadership Program?
A great deal *Somewhat* *Very little* *Not at all*

Collaboration
Communication
Problem solving
Civic leadership
Teamwork
Personal reflection
Goal setting
Conflict management
Social change
Other leadership concept(s) not mentioned above

As a result of participating in the Quest Leadership Program:
Strongly Agree *Agree* *Neutral* *Disagree* *Strongly Disagree*
I have gained a deeper personal insight into my leadership potential.
I feel empowered to further develop my leadership skills beyond the classroom.
I have developed the confidence to improve my organization, community, and/or personal life.
My understanding of topics related to leadership have increased.

How has the Quest Leadership Program impacted the following?
Very positive impact *Somewhat positive impact* *No impact*
Your ability to participate in a leadership process or activity
Your sense of connection to Fort Hays State University
Your overall college experience
Your level of satisfaction with the University's leadership development initiatives

Your personal success and quality of life

Do you have suggestions for improving the format (e.g. completion options, number of activities per semester, etc.) of the Quest Leadership Program?
Yes (explain)
No

Do you have any additional comments or suggestions about the Quest Leadership Program?
Yes (explain)
No

Rural Hospital Access to Leader Development Programs

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Abstract

The purpose of this proposal is to introduce an innovative leader development model that has been demonstrated to overcome access and affordability issues often associated with rural hospitals. Through a collaborative program between an academic institution and state hospital association, a dynamic, 10-month program has been implemented that focuses on concurrent individual leader development across multiple hospitals. The program is supported by past evidence related to leadership, program development, and through a scholar/practitioner approach to delivery that may apply to various rural entities across industries and organizational type.

During this session, participants will:

1. Examine a multi-faceted model for leader development that addresses access and affordability issues often associated with rural hospitals.
2. Discuss the role that healthcare leadership competencies have in the development and implementation of the program.
3. Review the application of this leader development model for its potential use in other rural settings.

Introduction

The development and advancement of leadership resources within healthcare organizations has had a profound impact on the identification and attainment, at least in process, of organizational goals and strategic initiatives. Healthcare organizations are dynamic and complex entities. Leadership is also contextual and complex. According to Scott (2010), healthcare executives are looking to their leaders to make demonstrative changes in operations and outcomes affecting the organization and patients. Leadership development within healthcare organizations has already been addressed through magnitudes of research analyses, management consultants and virtual resources. Healthcare-specific leadership development has focused on elements of organizational needs, individual and group development and community/collaborative leadership initiatives.

However, one area of leadership development that has not been thoroughly vetted revolves around the access that rural hospitals, referred to as critical access hospitals (CAHs), have to available resources, services and expertise to help develop leadership capacity in their respective organizations. Critical hospitals are certified under a set of Medicare conditions. They may have no more than 25 inpatient beds, maintain an average length of stay of no more than 96 hours for acute inpatient care; offer a 24/7 emergency department; be located in a rural area, at least 35 miles from any other hospital; and receive cost-based reimbursement from Medicare

instead of standard fixed reimbursement rates (Anonymous for this proposal, personal communication, February 13, 2015).

There are several confounding variables that create barriers to CAHs' accessibility to leadership development resources, each further exasperating the others. The physical location of some rural hospitals prevents easy accessibility to conferences, workshops and other educational opportunities, apart from virtual learning. Likewise, CAHs are often so remote that their location prevents on-site offerings due to accessibility and available staff coverage. Access to subject matter experts, developers/trainers and educators is often not available. In addition, affordability associated with time away from the job, in addition to travel, lodging and registration fees are often overwhelming.

One initiative has attempted to bridge the gap of access to effective leadership development opportunities for CAHs. Through a collaborative partnership between an academic institution, X University (XU) and a State Hospital Association (SHA; State to remain confidential for the purpose of this proposal), a state-wide leader development program has been developed, implemented and revised over the last 12 years. It's about time to let the cat out of the bag.

The purpose of this proposal is to describe an innovative, leader development program that has been demonstrated to overcome access and affordability issues often associated with rural hospitals.

Background/Review of Related Scholarship

There are a number of programs available to improve a leader's skills and proficiencies based on industry, career stage, individual drive, professional interests, as well as additional offerings for women and minorities (Sonnino, 2013). But attendance to these offerings may be costly and time intensive, providing barriers to access. Providing the opportunity for development of any sort may be difficult, considering the remote locations and propensity for cost containment and affordability often associated with CAHs. Rural hospitals struggle with how to provide opportunities for continued leadership development opportunities. Few studies examining healthcare leadership in a rural setting have been conducted. They generally describe specific rural healthcare organizations (Bish, Kenny, & Nay, 2012; Hall, Weaver, Handfield-Jones, & Bouvette, 2008; McCann, Graves, & Cox, 2014). This section of the proposal will describe some of the barriers previously identified and examine the support for developing an integrated model of leader development.

To begin, many authors have tried to delineate a separation in the language associated with the difference between leader and leadership development. Whereas leadership development is often considered the cumulative development, growth and advancement of leaders within an organization (Riggio, 2008), this perspective proves difficult to apply in situations where leaders from multiple CAHs gather for maximizing efficiencies in development opportunities. Organization development stems from organizational goals, strategic initiatives, mission and vision (Riggio, 2008; McAlearney, 2006); a diverse group of individuals from multiple organizations creates a unique, somewhat problematic environment for providing leader development. For example, 20 leaders from 20 different CAHs may convene for a development

event. In that case, congruence between the program outcomes and the leadership needs of a single organization become irrelevant. What is necessary in this case is to focus on development at the individual level. Leader development, therefore, focuses on the development of individual-based knowledge, skills and abilities to lead (Day, 2000; Riggio, 2008).

Delivery of multifaceted approaches to leader development present the efficacy of providing varied content and self-awareness techniques toward improved outcomes of development efforts (Murphy, & Riggio, 2003; Boyatzis, 2008; Wasylyshyn, 2008), especially in the complex healthcare environment (Meaklim, & Sims, 2011). Common in development initiatives, according Riggio (2008), is the general lack of theory-based content in leader development. Most objections to this lack of substantial content stem from individual, contextual-driven organizations where single entities were included in research studies examining challenges in content delivery and access. In contrast to this is the proposed model, which thoroughly introduces multiple theoretical perspectives and research-based content to the program, presented through a multifaceted, academic/practitioner perspective of leader development. Integration of multiple theories in the context of leadership may provide a more holistic approach to development (Avolio, 2007; Borkowski, Deckard, Weber, Padron, & Luongo, 2011).

The proposed model fosters continuous learning throughout the program. In the proposed model, four key sections are presented that provide integrated, cyclical/repetitious opportunities for continued leader development (see Appendix A).

Popular in leader development initiatives is the presentation and integration of a network of leadership competencies that define and support quality curriculum and effective leadership skills to support the profession (Fealy, McNamara, Casey, Geraghty, Butler, Halligan Treacy, & Johnson, 2011; Stefl, 2008). This may be the case across industries, presenting a generic or common set of skills to be developed for a leader to be most effective (Riggio, 2008; Stefl, 2008). The Healthcare Leadership Alliance (HLA) has established such a competency model based on the solicitation and integration of six predominant healthcare leadership professional associations (Garman, & Johnson, 2006; Stefl, 2008). The work in creating this competency model contributes to a practical demonstration of a competency model and link with effective leader performance. The HLA identifies three primary domains associated with leadership competencies. They include elements of conveying a compelling vision, communication of energizing goals, and the contribution to the organization's culture (Garman, Butler, & Brinkmeyer, 2006).

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

Beginning in 2002, a leader development program was initiated that invited SHA members, primarily small, CAHs, to participate in a new, state-wide leadership development program. The program initially focused on basic leadership and management skills, only to be radically redesigned in 2008 to integrate the Healthcare Leadership Alliance (HLA) competency model, 360° feedback assessments, individual development plans and executive coaching throughout the curriculum.

The leadership development program (LDP) is currently a 10 month program, exclusively offered to SHA members throughout the state. The LDP is offered in multiple locations, primarily in smaller, rural areas of the state in order to alleviate some of the travel required of participants. Sessions are full-day workshops that focus on specific self-assessments, skill-building, and content-specific activities. Depending on the session, additional pre-work may be required. Topics include an introduction/overview of leadership theories and models, the use of self-assessments, dealing with conflict, providing coaching and feedback to employees, analyzing performance issues, temperament, succession management, generational diversity, and team development. Facilitators of the program are all XU full-time faculty.

The problem being addressed through the format and delivery of the LDP is how to deliver individual development opportunities, which are based on individual needs, to a group where all of the individuals' needs are different.

Stemming from the integration of previous work relative to leader development and the use of competency approaches for further leader development, curriculum for the collaborative program was created, which addressed specific competencies from HLA, yet provided the flexibility of designing curriculum focused on individual development needs in a diverse, group setting. A model of this program is illustrated in Appendix 1.

Utilizing various self-assessments, 360° feedback assessments, individual development plans and individual coaching sessions allowed faculty to delivery individual-specific development in a group-based setting. Early in the program, a 360° feedback assessment tool was utilized to provide an introductory needs assessment and gap analysis. Whereas 360° feedback assessments are usually delivered in the context of the organization and based on organizational competencies, core values, strategies and critical skills identified as important across the organization, the completion of a 360° feedback assessment tool for individuals from multiple organizations would not be feasible, at least using contemporary tactics.

To address the need for individual leader development across multiple CAHs, faculty at XU developed a program workshop to 1) review the value of a 360° feedback assessment and 2) to develop individually customizable 360° feedback assessments. Prior to the workshop, participants obtained supporting documentation to inform their own personalized 360° feedback assessment. These items included past performance evaluations, organization mission and vision statements, core values, strategic initiatives, and organizational/departmental goals. From these, XU faculty led a discussion on the development of pertinent questions that would contribute to individually-based competencies that were important not only to the individual, but to the organization. Customizable 360° feedback assessments were created and then sent to individuals within the participants' respective organizations. Results were then reported back to the participant for inclusion in the next segment of the leader development program.

The next segment in the curriculum included the development of an individual development plan (IDP) tool. The purpose of the IDP was to provide participants a pragmatic tool for identifying their individual development needs, their subsequent alignment with organizational goals, and a record of previous assessments and skill development.

Once participants completed their 360° feedback assessments and IDP, they scheduled a one-on-one coaching session with a certified executive coach from XU. The certified coach was a full-time faculty member at XU and a founding member of the Graduate School Alliance for Education in Coaching (GSAEC). In keeping with the necessity for offering individual leader development in a group environment, coaching provided an exemplary opportunity to focus on individual goals. Results from the 360° feedback assessments and IDP were used as a basis for the coaching conversation.

As the leader development program progressed, participants routinely expressed their satisfaction with the coaching sessions. In 2011, a follow-up coaching session was added to the end of the program during months 8 and 9.

Upon completion of the multiple sessions introducing the 360° feedback assessments, IDP and coaching sessions, additional content relative to the identified leadership competencies in healthcare were incorporated into the curriculum. Topics included an overview of leadership models and theories, the use of self-assessments, dealing with conflict, providing coaching and feedback to employees, performance management, temperament, succession management, generational diversity, and team development.

The nature of the collaboration between XU and SHA allows for continuous improvement and changes to be made to the program. Semi-annual reviews and post-program reviews are standard. Input from XU faculty, SHA administrators, SHA education focus group members and participants is discussed and pertinent changes and upgrades are made to the program.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Measurement of leader development effectiveness is often an afterthought that peeks around your door and reminds you that you have some place to be. The LDP is no different. Metrics related to individual leader performance and development has been difficult, since outcomes are necessarily driven from many different locations throughout the state. Summative evaluation of the program has been excellent, but specific data has yet to be collected. As with individual development across multiple entities, the collection of data pertinent to individuals in a class of 25 still produces an n of 1. We're still trying to crack that nut; however, there have been some highlights to the program worthy of mentioning.

Participation by member hospitals throughout the state continues to grow. Participating members' CEOs and executive leaders are engaging in the program in new capacities. Many of the executives at participating SHA hospitals where the events are held are engaging with participants and hosting tours of their facilities. Some have even requested to have events held at their hospital in order to highlight new facilities, departments, technology, etc. Most locations involve multiple executives to host the tours.

In addition to member participation, some participants have enrolled in graduate degree programs at various institutions.

Several participants in the LDP have been promoted either during their participation or after. One participant attributes some of what she learned in the program to her promotion to CEO of a CAH to the program.

Reflections of the Practitioner

In reflecting on the program, it should be noted that insight and review regarding objectives and outcomes of the program has also been a collaborative effort. As previously mentioned, XU and SHA have continually met to update content and delivery of the program. Both XU and SHA agree that a more summative evaluation of the program would solidify some of the formative assumptions being made by all constituents. The university will be exploring measures for obtaining key performance indicators relative to human capital and organization performance that may help to measure the impact on outcomes stemming from the program.

Recommendations/Implications

Providing leader development is critical in helping to provide CAHs with available resources for improving organizational and patient outcomes. Through the collaborative and innovative program offered by the SHA, more rural hospitals are being supported through the development of identified competencies for effective leader development.

Measurement is a continuous need in regard to the LDP to continue to evaluate leader and program effectiveness. Recommendations for continued development also include supporting the ongoing relationship between XU and SHA as it relates to the program.

Clearly, additional research exploring the impact of leader development in rural communities is necessary as a model continues to evolve. No clear model has emerged as a blueprint for delivering leadership development in any context. However, leader development in rural hospitals offers a unique opportunity for the integration of a multifaceted, collaborative effort to provide CAHs with quality learning opportunities.

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Appendix 1


Model for Rural Hospital Leader Development
Customizable 360° Assessment
Individual Development Plan
Initial Executive Coaching Session
Content & Competencies Development
Final Executive Coaching Session
Continually Update Individual Development Plan

Creating a competitive context for students to practice the skills and behaviors of effective leadership

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Abstract

Students love to compete and perform. Yet there is no robust "practice field" where students can apply learning in a context that challenges and stretches them to the boundaries of their knowledge, skills and abilities. This session highlights how two universities worked together to create a leadership competition for students.

Proposal Document

Competitions and performances are high impact educational practices. When conceived and implemented well these practices can hone and enhance a student's behavioral skills and cognitive competencies. Moreover, students love to compete. It is inconceivable to ask a college athlete to practice hard but not have the opportunity to compete. Imagine how difficult it would be to recruit students to join the debate team if the students never competed against other teams. Substitute the word performance for competition and the logic still holds. It doesn't make any sense for students to spend weeks and weeks preparing for a music recital or a theatre performance without the expectation and excitement of performing before a live audience.

The purpose of this workshop is to examine how John Carroll University and Widener University collaborated on a pilot project to create a leadership competition where students applied what they learned about leadership in a competitive context that challenged and stretched them to the boundaries of their knowledge, skills and abilities. Each university selected a small number of undergraduate students and prepared these students for a series of competitive leadership events and activities. The competition focused on three areas of leader development: (1) Knowledge; (2) Demonstration of skills and behaviors; and, (3) Reflecting on and learning from experience.

Knowledge

Each participating student was challenged to learn, understand and recognize a discreet set of core leadership concepts (e.g., Goleman's leadership styles, the types of bad leadership, the components of emotional intelligence). During the competition students watched a series of movie clips and were challenged to list the pertinent leadership concepts.

Demonstration of Skills and Behaviors

The benefits of experiential education are well documented in the literature (Graen, Hui & Taylor, 2006; Kolb & Kolb, 2005). The competition placed students in situations where they needed to exhibit a wide range of leadership skills and behaviors. Throughout the various events, each student was challenged to demonstrate his or her ability to observe and assess a situation, decide on a direction, enable and support others (among other skills and competencies). These behaviors were often observed when the student was under the stress of a deadline or confounding variable.

Reflection

Several scholars underscore the importance of self-awareness (Avolio, 2005; Bass, 2008; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2005). The competition created opportunities where both teams failed and the judges assessed the extent to which each individual was able to learn from failure. In short, scoring rubrics were developed to measure and rate each student's ability to reflect on and learn from experience (failure as well as success).

Our session seeks to contribute to the field of leadership education and leader development in three ways. First, the project sought to make an explicit link between leader development and the concept of deliberate practice (Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Römer, 1993). In preparing for the competition, we attempted to integrate the four components of deliberate practice into our training regimen: create a highly structured practice field, focus on repetition, strive for incremental improvement, and provide immediate feedback (Allen, Miguel, Martin, 2014). We will examine the extent to which the concept of deliberate practice contributed to the knowledge and ability of our participating students.
Second, we aim to contribute knowledge on optimal approaches to developing and assessing the skills and capacities of emerging leaders. Some organizations use computer simulations and demonstration-based training programs to predict, diagnose and develop leadership talent. The military has long-used a reaction course competition as a way to assess the extent to which soldiers can apply and demonstrate leadership concepts and competencies learned in the classroom (Smith, 2013). Regrettably, most of the activities involved in a military's Leaders' Reaction Course involve physical challenges (such as scaling a wall or lifting critical equipment), which limits the transferability of this approach to other domains. During our session we will critically examine the benefits and drawbacks of developing a leadership competition (with a variety of events and activities) as a novel approach to leader development. Finally, we will share student perspectives on the competition, including their observations on how preparing for and engaging in the competition stimulated their development and growth. We will focus particular attention on assessing their enthusiasm for this novel approach to developing the skills and behaviors of leaders.

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Helping Youth Find Their True North through Equine-Facilitated Learning

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Abstract

This practice session showcases an interesting and innovative approach to authentic leadership development in youth. Authentic leadership, as described by Bill George, was the focus of this equine-facilitated learning program. In this session, the facilitators will explain the theory used and the methodology behind equine-facilitated learning programs. Specifically, the facilitators will go through, step-by-step, how to plan and implement an equine-facilitated learning program and explain why this innovative approach is so useful for youth. The session will also cover how the activities were chosen, what is needed to run the program, general results, and recommendations for future practice.

Introduction

Authentic leadership, as described by Bill George (2003), has been gaining steam over the past decade. As a result, authenticity focused programs are becoming more commonplace and the idea of authentic leadership is continuing to grow. With this in mind, leadership educators and facilitators are looking for new and innovative ways to teach this leadership theory. Equine-facilitated learning is also becoming more common as a way to engage many different populations for a variety of reasons. Reaching youth, specifically the at-risk population, is imperative for creating future leaders and great citizens. Combining authentic leadership and equine-facilitated learning has never, or has rarely, been done in the past and the facilitators were intrigued by the idea of creating a program to reach an at-risk youth population. The purpose of this session is to investigate an equine-facilitated learning program that was focused on teaching authentic leadership to an at-risk youth population.

Literature Review

This session focuses on a program built around Bill George's Authentic Leadership Model (2007), equine-facilitated learning practices, and at-risk youth. In the following paragraphs, relevant research related to each component will be described.

Authentic leadership, specifically Bill George's Model (George, & Sims, 2007), was chosen because of its ease of understanding. The five dimensions of authentic leadership include: pursuing purpose with passion, practicing solid values, leading with heart, establishing enduring relationships, and demonstrating self-discipline (George, 2003). An authentic leader is a genuine person who is true to themselves and to what they believe. Authentic leaders are their own people, go their own way, and do not always let others guide what they do. Yet, these types of leaders are more concerned about serving others than they are about their own success or

recognition. Authentic leaders are constantly looking for ways to grow personally and develop genuine connections with others and encourage trust. Finally, they are able to motivate people to high levels of performance by empowering them to lead (George & Sims, 2007). This study hoped to be an effective framework for the creation of a leadership workshop for at-risk youth. The George Model (2007) provided the theoretical framework for the program and leads to a description of the equine-facilitated learning model, which was the model used to educate youth on authentic leadership.

Ewing, MacDonald, Taylor, and Bowers (2007, p.60) described equine facilitated learning (EFL) as "an experiential methodology that uses a "hands-on" approach." Smith-Osborne and Selby (2010, p. 292) reported, based on recent theoretical and empirical literature, that the following psychosocial effects have been found in children and adolescents who participated in equine-assisted activities (EAA): "socialization and companionship, self-esteem enhancement, improvement in personal space/boundary issues and other attachment-related problems, reduction in emotional blunting and incongruence, and improvement in meta-cognition and reflectivity," (Karol, 2007; Roberts, Bradberry, & Williams, 2004; Rothe, Vega, Torres, Soler, & Pazos, 2005; Saunders-Ferguson, Barnett, Culen, & TenBroeck, 2008; Schultz, Remick-Barlow, & Robbins, 2007). Smith-Osborne and Selby (2010, p. 292) also stated, from earlier literature, "EAA could have psychosocial benefits in the following areas, not specified by population: self-confidence, self-esteem, self-concept, interest in learning/motivation to participate in hippotherapy, improvement in attention span/concentration/listening skills, spatial awareness, and verbal skills (MacKinnon, Noh, & Laliberte, 1995a; MacKinnon, Noh, Lariviere, MachPhail, Allen, & Laliberte, 1995b; Saunders-Ferguson, Barnett, & TenBroeck, 2008). Combining the George Model (2007) and equine-facilitated learning practices, leads to description of the population used for the program, at-risk youth.

In the past decade the number of public figures, celebrities, and corporations who were involved in corruption has shown that adults in leadership positions are not always the best role models for youth (George, 2003; Whitehead, 2009). Bell and Jenkins (1993, p.47) stated the following about youth populations, "the occurrence of violence, antisocial, and destructive behaviors has been far more prevalent [in at-risk youth mentors], which has resulted in the exposed youth learning and acclimating such values, behaviors, and norms. Negative behaviors demonstrated by adults have fostered youth to engage in the same behaviors." When youth transition to adulthood, they perpetuate the same behaviors to the next generation (Hurd, Zimmerman, & Reischl, 2011; Zimmerman, Steinman, & Rowe, 1998). Unfortunately for youth in at-risk populations, positive influences may be few and far between.

As expectations have changed, the role of mentoring and socializing youth has moved from primarily a parent's duty to more of a shared role between parents, day-care workers, teachers, community members, and other youth workers. Many studies have shown (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Rhodes, 2002) proper socialization requires exposure to positive and constructive behaviors, yet research has continued to demonstrate a decrease in the availability and exposure of positive adult role models and support in the lives of adolescents (Whitehead, 2009). If natural positive role models do not exist in the community or in home-life, then adolescents need to be directed elsewhere to find positive adult relationships to guide their maturation (Beck, 2005). A key indicator of this lack of positive role models is school discipline. Statistics regarding

violence and discipline in schools have increased dramatically from 23% in 1990 to 74% in 2010 (Aud & Hannes, 2011). Even with intervention programs, negative behaviors among at-risk youth have continued to increase (Aud & Hannes, 2011; Dryfoos, 1990). Scholars and practioners have determined that the lack of positive parental or adult influence and support plays a large part in the increase of youth delinquency (Flannery, D. J., Singer, M., Williams, L., & Castro, P., 1998; Galambos, & Maggs, 1991; Hurd, et al, 2011; Mahoney, & Stattin, 2000; McHale, Crouter, & Tucker, 2001; Pettit, Bates, Dodge, & Meece, 1999). In the following paragraphs, a description of the practice, outcomes and results to date, and recommendation for future practice will be outlined.

Description of the Practice

The equine-facilitated learning program consisted of five sessions implemented over five days, with a total of fourteen hours of participation (including lunch and breaks). Focus groups were conducted two days before and two days after the program. The program took place at the [Ranch] Horse Unit. All participants lived at [Ranch], but none of the participants had a direct role at the Horse Unit. The Horse Unit consisted of a barn, multiple pastures, a large round pen, and multiple horses (7-10). The round pen is where six of the activities took place and another two activities took place in the barn. The facilitator implemented six of the eight activities, and the horse unit director facilitated two of the activities.

Each of the sessions covered a different aspect of George's Authentic Leadership Model (2003): relationships, self-discipline, purpose, values, and heart. The activities were determined by the researcher and were collected from multiple Equine Facilitated Learning guides (EAGALA, 2012; Mandrell & Mandrell, 2008). The established activities were selected for their fit to the desired outcome. The manuals used were titled: Fundamentals of EAGALA Model Practice Untraining Manual, Seventh Edition (EAGALA, 2012) and Champions Curriculum-EAP Group Curriculum for At-Risk Adolescents, Third Edition (Mandrell & Mandrell, 2008). A full list and descriptions of each activity can be found in the appendix.

It is important to note that activities involving horses should not be done by practioners without previous horse experience and/or training. It is also important to have multiple assistants in the ring and on hand in the case of an emergency and to act as supplementary "eyes" for the safety of participants and horses.

Discussion of Results

Overall, the focus groups showed an increase in knowledge of most of the elements of the George model (2007). The depths of thought increased from preprogram focus groups to post program focus groups but it is not definitive that the participants understood purpose, values, or heart, completely.

When going through the transcriptions, there was not as rich of detail as anticipated. The answers were very short, one word or a short sentence, with not much elaboration on each topic. The age group of the participants may have contributed to the lack of detail during the focus groups. The field notes were imperative as there was a lot the transcriptions did not catch due to background

noise and crosstalk. It was also important that that the practioner was present during all sessions to have memory to reflect on about how the boys were communicating, verbally and nonverbally.

Due to the lack of evaluation instrument to measure George's authentic leadership model (2007), the facilitators used the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) developed by Avolio, Garner, and Walumbwa (2007) to measure results. The similarities and differences in themes from the focus groups helped explain why there was a change in the preprogram ALQ and the post program ALQ data. The participants showed knowledge on a basic level, preprogram, regarding the four components of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire [ALQ] (Avolio, et al., 2007): transparency, ethical/moral, balanced processing, and self-awareness. This introductory knowledge may have accounted for the minimal change in the mean scores from the ALQ data. Reflection from the practioner are described below.

Reflections of the Practioner

Programmatically, the focus groups ran fairly well. For the age group, 12-15 years old, the conversation was as expected. The decision to do focus groups, instead of individual interviews, was to encourage a conversation, not just a question and answer session. There were two groups of seven to nine boys each and this may have been too many boys in one session. The boys would sometimes answer based off each other saying, "yeah, that's what I think too," and at other times they would discourage answers from the quieter boys in the group saying, "that's stupid" or "that's not even real." When working with this age group in the future, it is suggested to make the focus groups smaller, four to five youth maximum.
Attentiveness was a problem during the program. After lunch on the second day, the participants were very inattentive. The lack of focus and attention is a reason it is suggested to have smaller groups so there are not observers, only active participants. Eight hours of programming was too long and the quality of the program was negatively impacted. For the 'purpose' dimension, the results from the focus groups showed a decrease in self-perception. With this in mind, it is advised to revisit the efficacy of the particular activity associated with that session. It is also recommended to get feedback from the participants, within reason.

While there were some programmatic issues, as a whole this program was successful in its goal. The risk versus reward when using horses as a programming tool is personal decision for practioners. For this population, the use of horses was essential and added to the success of the program. Recommendations for future practice are described below.

Recommendations

It is suggested to adapt the exercises based on attentiveness of the participants. If the facilitator seems to lose the participant focus, it may be time to move on to the next activity. It is also suggested to work in shortened time periods with younger age groups. Learning participant expectations may help the facilitator create a more effective program. Equine facilitated programs can be implemented in various lengths. If a program is brief and does not consist of in-depth theories, it could be implemented in one afternoon. If the program, such as this, covers a more in depth theory, it can be implemented over the course of days or even weeks. When

developing this particular program, the researcher created outlines for 3-day programs to 7-week programs and much iteration in between. Depending on the time frame and the depth of theory involved, future programmers can adapt the program length as needed.

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Appendix A
Activities

Each activity was created using the EAGALA manual (EAGALA, 2012) or the Champions curriculum (Mandrell & Mandrell, 2008).

"Catch and Halter"
The "Catch and Halter" activity was conducted in the round pen with four horses. Participants were broken into two groups, one participating and one observing. Participants were then divided into pairs with each pair choosing one horse. Participants were given a halter and a lead rope to use while catching the horses. There were no instructions or preparation given on how to catch and halter.

This activity was chosen to display relationships based on the interactions with the horses and the partners. The facilitator believed that once the boys were tasked with catching and haltering a horse, the act of creating a relationship, with the horse and their partner, would develop. Some horses would be easy to catch while others would be difficult. Each event would give the facilitator opportunities to solicit reflection based on relationships and the events.

"Extended Appendages"
The "Extended Appendages" activity was conducted in the round pen with four horses. Participants were divided into groups of four by the facilitator. In this activity, participants were asked to catch and halter a horse and then put a saddle on the horse. To catch and halter a horse means to choose a horse and place a halter on its face as a means of restraint, and bring it to the desired location. To begin, the facilitator asked each group to "link" to each other in some way. After this was done, the facilitator informed the participants that the participants on the ends of the link were the "arms" and the participants in the middle were the "brains." The "brains" could only give directions (they could not use their own arms) and the "arms" could only perform actions (no talking) based on directions from the "brains." "Arms" could only use their outside arms and the link between each participant could not be broken without consequence. If a "brain" tried to point, there was a consequence. If an "arm" talked or acted without direction, there was a consequence. Each group was allowed to create their own consequence for breaking the rules. The consequences varied from pushups to losing an appendage, which meant, one of the outside participants had to leave the group. There was no time limit for this activity.

This activity was chosen to display relationships based on the interactions with the horses and the groups. The facilitator believed that during the activity, participants would be required to form relationships with their group or risk not completing the task. The facilitator knew the horses may be difficult to catch because of the fact that four boys were linked and coming towards them. This may be scary to the horse. This fear response could result in the horse walking or running away from the group, this action would require the boys to practice teamwork and relationship building to solve the problem and complete the task. Also, having to rely on one another for direction helped to build a relationship between the boys.

"Life's Little Obstacles"

For this activity, participants were divided into smaller groups of four. There were four horses in the round pen for this activity. The participants were instructed to get one horse over the obstacle (a small jump) in the middle of the ring, one time. The round pen consisted of many temptations for the horses from piles of hay to buckets of food. There were also traffic cones, poles, and other obstacles throughout the round pen. The rules of this activity were: no touching the horses in any way, shape, or form, no coaxing the horses or pretending to have food, no use of halters or lead ropes, and no leaving the round pen.

This activity was chosen to display self-discipline based on the interactions with the horses, temptations, rules, and group members. The facilitator believed that during the activity, the boys would see the horses choosing feed or another temptation over listening to instruction. The facilitator would then use the horses' distraction as a base for reflection questions to solicit the links between the horses' temptations and the boys' temptations at home or school, etc.

"Circularelations"

For this activity, participants were divided into two small groups of four. There were two horses in the round pen for this activity. The facilitator placed the groups on opposite sides of the round pen and talked to each group individually. One group was instructed to get the horse to go clockwise around the round pen and jump the jump. The other group was instructed to get the same horse (at the same time) to go counterclockwise around the round pen and jump the jump. The rules were the same as previously stated: no touching the horses in any way, shape, or form, no coaxing the horses or pretending to have food, no use of halters or lead ropes and no leaving the round pen.

This activity was chosen to display purpose based on the interactions with the horses, conflicting instructions, rules, the other group, and group members. The facilitator believed that when the boys received conflicting instruction, it would immediately create conflict between the groups. Instead of immediately dissipating the conflict, the facilitator would allow the boys to disagree a bit to solicit a request for help. Once the boys asked for help, the facilitator would use that time to ask about each group's 'purpose' and lead the reflection from there.

"Creactivity"

For this activity participants were divided into smaller groups of four. There were two horses in the round pen for this activity. Both groups were given the same instructions, to come up with a goal they would like to accomplish with their horse(s). It needed to be something the horse did not already know how to do and would not do without instruction. With this in mind, the facilitator set the activity up as a game of "HORSE", where one group performed an activity and the next group had to replicate the activity or they received a letter (H, O, R, S, E) until there were no letters left to assign and then that group "lost" the game. Goals ranged from kicking a ball to finding a carrot in an overturned bucket.

This activity was chosen to display value building based on the interactions with the horses, friendly competition, the other group, and group members. The facilitator believed that during the activity, providing a competition would encourage the boys to determine if they valued winning or succeeding at a task more. Creating this internal conflict between creating a task so difficult no one could do it or winning the game would provide for good reflection on the

thought process. This reflection would allow the boys to draw the link between having differing values amongst the same goals.

"Squeaky Clean"
For this activity, participants were divided into pairs. Each pair had one horse. This activity took place in the barn's wash stalls. The instructions were for each pair to make the horse "squeaky clean." All needed materials were provided (hose, buckets, soap, etc.). The only rule was that both participants in each pair had to agree that the horse was "squeaky clean."

This activity was chosen to display value building based on the interactions with the horses, partner interaction, and determining the meaning of "squeaky clean." The facilitator believed that having the pairs agree on the determination of "squeaky clean" would solicit a discussion about why the boys may not agree. This discussion would lead to a reflection about how people's ideas or values of things may be different but neither is necessarily wrong.

"Fear Factor"
For this activity the horse was to be fearful of a plastic shopping bag. In order to get the largest reaction, the researcher collaborated with the horse unit director to choose the horses with the biggest fear of a plastic bag which was tied to the end of a lunge whip. There were two horses used for the activity in the round pen. Participants were broken into groups of four. Each group worked with a different horse. Assistants to the program brought the plastic bag on a stick out to the arena and demonstrated the horse's fear of the bag. No animals were harmed as a result of this activity. The participants were asked reflective questions about why the horses may be fearful of the bag. After the discussion, each group was instructed to develop a plan to help the horse get over their fear of the bag. Participants were able to come up with short term (right then) and long term (what the barn workers could do) plans. Once the groups determined a plan of action, they were allowed twenty minutes with their respective horse.

This activity was chosen to display heart based on the interactions with the horses, the element of fear for the horse, and group interaction. The participants had become attached to the horses so the facilitator believed that soliciting a fear response from the horse would solicit empathy in the boys. The facilitator believed that once the horse was scared, the boys would ask that the assistants stop scaring the horse by taking the bag away. Once this request was made, the facilitator would link the fear in the horse and the want for it to stop, to the boys' daily interactions; showing the boys that empathy and heart happen all around them.

"Measuring"
For this activity participants were to estimate the size of the horses. In order to facilitate this activity, the researcher collaborated with the horse unit director to choose horses with a wide array of body type (over weight, underweight, tall, short, etc.). Participants stayed in their large group for this activity. The participants were asked to guess which horse was largest or smallest and put the horse's names on a board in that order. Once the group determined the order from largest to smallest, they were able to measure them with weight/height measuring tape to figure out the actual order from largest to smallest.

This activity was chosen to display heart based on the interactions with the horses, the ordering activity based on size, and group interaction. The facilitator believed that having the boys specifically order the horses by size would solicit discussion about what makes one horse bigger or smaller than the others. During this discussion the facilitator would use the actual measurements to show that size can be deceiving. Once the actual sizes were given, the facilitator would solicit reflection about how this can happen in day to day life, showing the boys that it is hard to determine one thing as being bigger, smaller, better, or worse, than another thing without proper investigation.

Teaching Storytelling as a Leadership Practice

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Abstract

The ability to tell stories can be an important leadership attribute and skill to master in order to be an effective leader (Baldoni, 2003; Denning, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Storytelling is a central component of effective communication for student leaders and a skill to master for future leadership success. This session addresses active learning, group discussion and reflective practice as a way to teach storytelling as a leadership skill. In this workshop, leadership faculty will demonstrate three brief interactive teaching activities designed to help students understand how to develop stories, identity situations in which to tell stories, and also practice the art of leadership storytelling. Participants will leave with multiple pedagogical methods to teach storytelling as a leadership skill to students in leadership education programs. Participants that attend the session will also have a chance to practice their own storytelling skills.

Introduction

Storytelling has been linked to leadership by a variety of scholars in the leadership literature (Auvinen, Aaltio, and Blomqvist, 2013; Bolman and Deal, 2013; Boje 2001; Denning, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2012; Weick, 2000). Yet, what is not as common in the research are the different pedagogies used in teaching students this emerging leadership skill. The purpose of the session is to provide different instructional strategies to introduce storytelling as a leadership practice to students enrolled in leadership education programs.

Background

Storytelling was one of the first communication strategies used by mankind and is still used in a variety of cultures to pass down traditions, customs, and memories. The role of storytelling in leadership has been connected to leadership effectiveness for over 15 years (Boje 2001; Denning, 2001; Weick, 2000). While storytelling may be a more common word with leadership practitioners and consultants, storytlling has also been used interchangeably with “narrative” in much of the scholarly research. For the purpose of this paper the terms story and narrative will be used synonymously and mean “an account of a set of events that are casually related” (Denning, 2012, p.13).

The importance of storytelling has been studied in a variety of different ways. The organicational and knowledge management literature has found that storytelling can applied as a practice for shared learning and the development of mutual understanding (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Von Krough, Ishijo, & Nonaka, 2000). Storytelling has also been highlighted in the literature on adult learning by Bandura (1977) and Weick (2000) in that stories can serve as models of excellence. These models allow adults to see themselves in a narrative and mentally rehearse or visualize themselves performing the behavior highlighted in the story (Tyler, 200). The management research has found narrative to have a role in developing organizational culture

(Dailey & Browning, 2014; Parada & Viladas, 2010), strategic management (Sonenshein, 2010), commitment (McCarthy, 2008), employee loyalty (Gill, 2011), and entrepreneurship (Volker, Phillips, & Anderson, 2011).

The significance of storytelling in the leadership literature has shown that leaders can use storytelling for a variety of leadership purposes in organizations. Kouzes and Posner (2012) shared that stories can serve as a mental map that help people know what is important and how things are done in an organization. In an explorative study, Auvinen, Aaltio, and Blomqvist, (2013) found that leaders use stories to motivate, inspire, reduce conflict, build trust, influence superiors, and establish a clear direction. Storytelling can also help leaders be more strategic and maintain employee loyalty when guiding an organization through difficult changes (Boal & Scultz, 2007; Gill 2011). Executive leaders who tell stories can also change the way people think, create a shared vision, as well as grant comfort and hope (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

Stories can have a powerful and inspiring effect on an organization, if applied in a purposeful manner. Purposeful storytelling can translate a boring PowerPoint full of abstract information into a compelling picture of the goals of a leader or an organization. Yet, often times stories can fail because they do not meet the needs of the audience, do not create a clear context or purpose, or the story is inconsistent with what people know to be true (Randall & Harms, 2012). Effective leaders don't order people to "get motivated", "get results", or "be creative", but they can lead followers to these outcomes through purposeful storytelling. A leader that knows which stories to tell to get their leadership message across in a meaningful way can be more effective at achieving their strategic goals.

A recent tool developed by Stephen Denning (2011) has helped leaders better understand how to use storytelling to motivate others to achieve organizational goals. Denning created a list of eight story categories or "narrative patterns" that can be used to deliver a leadership message. These categories match a story to the communication objectives of a leader with tips on how to tell the stories and possible ways the story may be received by the audience. Leaders that understand how to use Denning's categories can reduce the risk of telling what may be a good story, but one that is shared at the wrong time and to the wrong audience**.**

The ability to tell stories is an important leadership attribute and skill to master in order to be an effective leader (Baldoni, 2003; Denning, 2011). Yet, common barriers that may prevent people from telling stories is the fear that they don't have any stories to share, as well as not feeling comfortable in telling personal stories. Sharing a story can be risky as some stories could flop and also reduce the credibility of the leader. Therefore helping students in leadership education programs learn where to find stories, create their own leadership stories, match their stories to a purpose, and practice storytelling techniques can support students in overcoming these perceived challenges. This session will provide faculty of leadership education programs with strategies to teach effective storytelling as a leadership skill.

Description of Practice

Please see appendices for lesson plan and student worksheets.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The pedagogies shared in this session have been used on three occasions in a public and human relations course for a doctorate in executive leadership program. More than half of the candidates that participated in this experience stated in required course reflection papers that the storytelling activity was valuable to their leadership development. Following the course, faculty observed several students tell purposeful stories during visits to the student's place of employment. Several students incorporated leadership stories in their group presentations in subsequent leadership courses. In addition, some students shared that by developing their own leadership stories and practicing telling those stories provided them with more confidence in public speaking. These activities have also been used in a higher education professional development workshop for faculty and staff where the presenter received positive feedback and was asked to return.

Recommendations/Implications

Many different pedagogies are used to help learners acquire leadership skills and practices in leadership education courses (Jenkins, 2012). This session addresses active learning, group discussion, and reflective practice as a way to teach purposeful storytelling as a leadership skill to students. In this session, leadership faculty will demonstrate brief interactive teaching activities designed to help students understand how to develop stories, identity situations in which to tell stories, and also practice the art of leadership storytelling. The activities in this session provides students a chance to practice a new leadership communication skill to help inform strategic planning and decision-making, and implement effective communication strategies. Students are able to actively integrate the leadership concepts covered in class and through their readings into practice while in a safe and comfortable classroom environment.

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Appendix A
Activity: What's Your Story?

Objectives:
1. To learn a new leadership communication skill to help inform strategic planning and decision-making, and implement effective communication strategies.
2. To integrate the human relation concepts covered in class and the required readings into practice
3. To practice the "art of storytelling" and story listening.
4. To gain feedback on our leadership storytelling skills.

Time: 60-90 minutes (depending on class size)

Materials: Timers for each group

Instructions/Guidelines:
1. Students must have already completed Worksheets 1 and 2 prior to participating in this activity.
2. Break class into groups of 4-5 people.
3. Each person has 5 minutes to tell one of the stories they created from Worksheet 1 to their small group. Use a timer to ensure each participant is allowed a chance to share their story.
4. Following each story, group members are allowed 5 minutes to provide comments based on the following recommended feedback questions.
    - What your story tells me about you is…..
- What I like about your story…..
- What your story helps me remember….
- The impact I can see your story having in a (describe a specific situation) is….
5. Groups will have 50 minutes to share all stories and hear feedback from group members.
6. Following small group storytelling, a class reflection is held on the storytelling exercise using the following questions as a way to start the discussion:

    - Given the story categories developed by Denning, what type of stories were told?
    - As a ***listener,*** what did you learn from hearing other stories?
    - As the ***storyteller,*** what did you learn from telling your story?
    - How could the story you shared or heard be connected to your role as a leader in your organization?
    - Were there common leadership themes that ran through the stories in your group?

Course Learning Objectives:
1. Synthesize theories and best practices in public and human relations to inform strategic planning and decision-making, and implement effective communication strategies.
2. Apply best leadership practices in public and human relations.

Assessment: Following this activity, students are asked to submit a "Reflection Paper" that includes a statement on something they found personally and/or professionally relevant from the storytelling experience. The paper should not be a reiteration of the class events, but instead a true reflection on how the activity did or did not inform their leadership communications.

Appendix B
Worksheet 1

Locating Leadership Stories

Instructions: Create at least three different stories based on the resources below and submit to the instructor by (INSERT RELEVANT DATE). Please select one story and be prepared to share that story to a small group during class.

Who-am-I Stories: What qualities earn you the right to influence others? What are your gifts? What did your parents or grandparents teach you? Can you describe a time or place that has evidence you have these qualities? People need to know who you are before they can trust you.

_____
_____
_____

Teaching Stories: What skills or knowledge to you want to teach others? What skills need improved? What were the past, future, present consequences for not reaching a goal?

_____
_____
_____

Vision Stories: What is your vision and the obstacles in reaching this vision? What is the vison of the organization? Who inspires you and what is their story? Can you describe the "desired state" of a goal as a place/time/condition worthy of sacrifice. This type of story can cast light on the future and encourages others to move forward.

_____
_____
_____

Value-in-Action Stories: What are your values? When did you make the "right" decision during tough circumstances? How did you make that decision? What was the outcome? If you want to encourage a value in others, tell a story that illustrates what that value means in action.

_____
_____
_____

Stories from your past. Your challenges, successes, failures. What are the times in you life you felt the most inspired? What's the most difficult experience you've ever been through? What's the best/worst working relationship you have ever had?

Stories you see happen around you. Your community, organization, family, etc. Stories about an unexpected lesson or an unexpected way it was taught whether happening to you or someone else.

_____
_____
_____

Stories that other people tell you. Take note when you hear a good story. Ask others inspiring questions. At Mary Kay Cosmetics sales staff are asked "How has Mary Kay business enriched your life?" They receive a vast supply of great stories.

_____
_____
_____

Stories from strangers. Search the internet and media. Be sure to credit the source where you found it.

_____
_____
_____

Sources: Simmons, A. (2007). *Whoever tells the best story wins*. New York City, NY: American Management Association.

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Leadership Lesson Story

Think about an experience you have had that contains a striking lesson about leadership (this can be in a past or current setting). The following five steps will guide you through how to write a story about this experience.

1. Identify the actors. Name the person or the people in the story.
2. Paint the scene. Where and when did this happen? What are the circumstances?
3. Describe the actions: Relate as much detail as you can about what happened and what the people involved did.
4. Tell how it ended. Never leave your audience hanging. What happened as a result of the actions?
5. Possibly think about including a surprise. Every great story includes some kind of surprise – perhaps an element of amazement. What makes this story particularly interesting, unique, memorable, funny, or surprising?

6. What's an opportunity coming up for you to tell this story?

Source: Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (2008). *The Student Leadership Challenge*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.: San Franscisco, CA

Appendix C
Worksheet 2

Linking Stories to Purpose Using Narrative Patterns
Instructions: Please select a narrative pattern constructed by Denning (2012) for each of your stories from Worksheet 1. Write your story title or theme in the relative narrative pattern box. If there is not a narrative pattern that matches your story, please create a new narrative pattern or purpose for that story.

Motivating Others to Action: Ignite action and implement new ideas

Build Trust: Communicate who you are

Build Your Brand: Who Your Organization Is

Transmit Values: Instill Organizational Values

Get Others Working Together: Get Things Done Collaboratively

Share Knowledge

Tame the Grapevine

Create and Share Your Vision: Lead People into the Future

Three Cups of Conflict: The Need for Courageous Followers

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Abstract

Charismatic figures often charge forward with a strong vision, creating organizations with great potential. However, followers need to bravely question and confront leaders when necessary. This interactive case study explores "courageous followers" within the context of the scandal surrounding Greg Mortenson, the Central Asian Institute and donors.

Introduction

In a world where charismatic leaders use their vision and drive to create powerful organizations, followers often assume they also align to the characteristics of honesty and integrity. Trust and loyalty to the person and the vision emerge and concerns are overlooked. Yet, numerous examples of scandals involving untrustworthy leaders show that followers must take on a more active and courageous role. What do we do when our leaders fail us? What do we do when those we trusted to lead the way are embroiled in deceit and become unreliable? Examples of "courageous followers", those who embrace the concept that the courage to lead is not solely contained within the leader, provide clues to new relationship dynamics between leaders and followers. Yet, unless more attention is directed to this topic, leadership students will not benefit from learning how to embrace these new dynamics.

This interactive case study focuses on a critical scandal that publically disgraced the charismatic leader of a well-known international non-governmental organization (NGO) and rippled out to his followers. The incidents further impacted other similarly oriented NGOs, possibly diminishing people's trust in philanthropic organizations. Thus, this case study has strong implications for leadership studies courses, especially those interested in courageous followership, ethical leadership, non-profit governance, and international development.

Case Scenario

Three Cups of Tea: One Man's Mission to Promote Peace ... One School at a Time was still on the New York Times nonfiction bestseller's lists after three years and Greg Mortenson, the author, was zooming across the globe enrapturing audiences with talks about the pivotal stories included. He generally always shared one fundamental anecdote: when Balti villagers in Pakistan saved him from freezing during an ill-planned mountaineering trip, he resolved to help them and other third world villages by building schools for their children. Along with stimulating his book sales, his talks resulting in donations to support the charitable endeavors mentioned in the book flowing into the Central Asian Institute (CAI), the non-governmental organization (NGO) he co-founded. Mortenson and the CAI were lauded for their efforts and in 2009, Mortenson received the *Sitara-e-Pakistan* (Star of Pakistan), Pakistan's third-highest civilian award (n.a., 2014).

And then the scandalous details erupted. First was the voice of Jon Krakauer, a previous friend of and donor to Mortenson, who declared *Three Cups of Tea* a sham and proclaimed that Mortenson was engaged in deception and embezzlement of funds (Krakauer, 2011). Then came the *60 Minutes* broadcast in which numerous people in the U.S. and Afghanistan were interviewed, leading to the conclusions that Krakauer's assertions were grounded and, further uncovering facts such as the amount of money CAI spent on promoting Mortenson's books, including hiring private jets, was excessive relative to other charitable institutions (Kroft, 2011). Additionally, reviews of CAI's records showed that four board members had resigned in 2002 due to concerns about financial oversight; however, they remained silent until the *60 Minutes* episode (Hessler, 2011).

On the heels of these discredits, the Montana Attorney General investigated both Mortenson and the CAI (Montana Department of Justice, 2012). Mortenson was ordered to pay $1.2 million in restitution, the CAI had to create an entirely new board of directors (*sans* Mortenson), and two former program directors were sued for misappropriation of funds. "We have a responsibility to make sure charitable assets are used for their intended purposes" stated the Montana Attorney General (Adams, 2011). Audits of CAI indicated that millions of dollars could not be accounted for, and furthermore, many of the schools purportedly built by CAI did not exist. Donations plummeted to a low of $2.7 million in 2013, down from $22 million in 2010 (Sieff, 2014). Mortenson admitted, "I always have operated from my heart. I'm not a really head person. And I really didn't factor in the very important things of accountability, transparency" (Kim, 2014).

The controversy spread beyond CAI. "Naturally, the issue has hurt the credibility of private organisations and their ability to garner funds. The most affected from Mortenson's fall, however, will be the girls of Gilgit-Baltistan, Wakhan, and Badakhshan. I am disheartened from the emerging stories", stated Senge Hasnan Sering, head of the Institute for Gilgit Baltistan Studies (Himal Southasian, 2011). Similarly, Conor Grennan, founder of Next Generation Nepal, stated his fear that the mistrust created among the public donors will spread (Grennan, 2011). The co-author of *Three Cups of Tea*, David Oliver Relin, "suffered emotionally and financially as basic facts in the book were called into question") and committed suicide in 2012 (Kaufman, 2012). Mortenson's daughter also attempted suicide (Sieff, 2014) and Mortenson, who disappeared from the public light for 31 months, confirmed that he experienced a heart attack and suffers from ongoing clinical depression (Associate Press, 2014).

The current CEO of CAI, Jim Thaden, contends that the controversy was stirred because of their success (Thaden, 2014). He stands behind their decision to keep Mortenson on as the public face of the organization, with a salary of $170,000, and stated that in the last several years they have shored up their systems, procedures, and personnel polices with a successful external audit and management reviews. He reported that they are operating at or above national and international standards. In 2014, Charity Navigator gave the Central Asia Institute a four-star rating with high scores on both capacity and efficiency, but continues to post a "Donor Advisory" with details of the malfeasance claims (Charity Navigator, 2014).

However, Krakauer remains openly cynical and continues to speak out against Mortenson. In addition to his rebuttal book, *Three Cups of Deceit* (2011), he continues to point the finger at

CAI and all donors as being implicitly responsible for the scandal and, in his opinion, the ongoing malfeasance:
Mortenson's success at dodging accountability can be explained in part by the humble, shambling, Gandhi-like persona he's manufactured for public consumption. But it also demonstrates how difficult it is to correct a false belief after people have made an emotional investment in that belief being true. When our heroes turn out to be sleazebags, self-deception is easier than facing the facts (Krakauer, 2014).

As the conflict continues to unfold, the role for courageous followers becomes more apparent. Similar to other convoluted problems found in the business and social realms, naïve loyalty or desires to relegate authority to a charismatic leader are inappropriate responses. But the question of how to be a courageous follower is not easily ascertained.

Purposes and Objectives

There are two main purposes to this unit of study:

1. Expose participants to a content-rich situation that is fertile grounds for exploring aspects of "courageous followers" (Chaleff, 2009), a popular leadership framework, and the roles of leaders and followers as they traverse issues of trust and deceit.
2. Create an opportunity for participants to role play as the NGO's board of directors and develop strategies for ameliorating the challenges faced.

By engaging this unit, participants will:

1. Demonstrate understanding of components of courageous followership and how they can apply these to complex leadership challenges they may face.
2. Display understanding of the dynamics between critical incidents caused by a leader and implications for followers, both intimate to that leader and more broadly within an industry.

Review of Scholarly Literature

Interactive Case Study

Case studies are powerful pedagogical tools that engage participants in critically thinking through real problems as presented (Killen, 2007). However, in traditional case studies, participants are passive receivers of knowledge. The process is generally one where participants read the facts and respond to questions asked by the instructor. This interactive case study unit, Three Cups of Conflict, presents a different approach. Group role play is employed as a pedagogical strategy (Gurung, Chick, & Haynie, 2009). Participants actively define how they wish to engage with the facts and, in teams, creatively employ the courageous follower framework as they craft their reactions. Additionally, rather than privilege individual outcome-oriented projects, this case study provides an opportunity for participants to use leadership theory in a team context, thus mimicking real-life scenarios.

Focus on Courageous Followers

By developing a case study focused on courageous followers (Chaleff, 2009), the field of leadership studies is expanded. This framework, developed 20 years ago, continues to have application in myriad fields, yet a search for case studies focused on its constructs revealed a lack of options. This interactive case study unit, Three Cups of Conflict, was designed to expand participant's knowledge of the framework and how to apply the constructs in current situations.

Michelle Bligh (2011) summarized the followership and follower-centered approaches literature and concluded that "first and foremost, organizations should consider adopting policies and practices that encourage proactive followership" (p. 433). However, she does not state how to teach so that "dynamic, interpersonal processes" are achieved. Other scholars, such as Robert Kelley (2013/1995), focused on follower training and included topics such as developing critical thinking, self-management, and responsible action. He also focused on how the follower can align personal and organization goals and move between necessary roles (p. 202). Even though his strategy prepares "effective followers" (p. 197), it still lacks the key focus on how to stand up courageously during difficult periods. A 2014 special followership edition suggested that more attention must be brought to the "intertwined nature of leaders and followers in the co-production of leadership" (Riggio, p. 15)

Ira Chaleff, by way of publishing *The courageous follower: Standing up to and for our leaders* (2009), seeks to fill that gap. He brought to attention new thoughts on relationships between leaders and followers and ways to promote the paradigm shift occurring in leadership and management circles. He stated "courageous followership is built on the platform of courageous relationships" (p. 4) and affirms that at times this means the follower may need to challenge leaders and the prevailing processes. He also expressed that "we have not had a lot of cultural support for doing this" (p. 5). Therefore, it is important that leadership educators expose students to scenarios where failure to be a courageous follower leads to disaster and conversely reveal scenarios where courageous followers were responsible for positive outcomes. Embedded in this is the need to create spaces for discussion about what makes a courageous follower and how to engage as one. In this case study, we specifically orient to creating a space, via role plays, for participants to experience using courageous follower principals as they try to solve a current events problem.

Figure 2. Five Dimensions of Courageous Followership. Created by [author, 2015].
According to Chaleff (2009), there are five dimensions of courageous followership. Each is complex and requires contemplation; however, there is value in uncovering the most basic aspects of these dimensions. Courageous followers assume responsibility and "initiate values-based action to improve the organization's external activities and its internal processes" (p.6). They show the courage to serve and "stay alert for areas in which their strengths complement the leaders and assert themselves in these areas" (p. 7). Courageous followers may need to challenge situations and "give voice to the discomfort they feel when the behaviors or policies of the leader or group conflict with their sense of what is right" (p. 7). Additionally, they may "champion the need for change and stay with the leader and group while they mutually struggle with the difficulty of real change" (p. 7) thus showing their desire to participate in transformation. Lastly, the courage to take moral action requires that the follower take bold actions when necessary. If attention to corrupt behavior has not altered the situation and "the corrective mechanisms of society respond too slowly or indifferently, courageous followers may feel responsible for firing them up" (p. 173).

Description of the Practice

This case study was piloted with graduate level students in a non-profit leadership course.

Table 1. Outline of case study unit as taught. See Appendix A for teaching notes.

Time frame:	Ninety minutes
Introduction	10 minutes
60 Minutes video	15 minutes
Role play	20 minutes
Role play decisions shared	20 minutes
Status update	5 minutes
Class discussion	20 minutes

We began the unit with a short introduction to the topic of trust between leaders and followers and how courage to lead intersected with those roles. Discussions about the pre-assigned text occurred in a free form style, with the facilitators ensuring the pertinent portions of the text were highlighted. Participants watched the *60 Minutes* exposé of Greg Mortenson, author of the popular book *Three Cups of Tea* and founder of the Central Asia Institute. Suspenseful, the TV show described Mortenson's well-publicized efforts to build schools in Afghanistan and Pakistan, but then depicted the accusations made against him by Jon Krakauer, a long-time friend and previous donor, other donors, and even tribal leaders in Afghanistan. Investigation into CAIs funds further exposed the deceptions.

Following the video, students broke into small groups and for 20 minutes acted as CAI Board of Director members and discussed what strategies they would implement to rescue the organization. They were directed to keep the week's readings in mind. Each group reported their decisions to the entire class. Next, the facilitators updated the class on the current status of the CAI and Mortenson's involvement as well as how others were impacted. Finally, the entire class

reacted to the status updates; comparing and contrasting their proposed actions with the reality of what was enacted. Students gave voice to their individual opinions on the situation.

Discussion of Outcomes

This case study had a profound impact on both students and the professor alike. Perhaps the most insightful observation was that students who did not regularly contribute to class discussions were animated as they engaged in the role plays and conversation. The entire class co-created lively debate, with many different opinions surfacing until the class was adjourned.

Another interesting observation was the outcomes students proposed. The scenario and activity provoked dramatically different reactions among the role play groups. One group agreed that Mortenson should stay on but with extensive monitoring and oversight; another adamantly stated that Mortenson must be dismissed and have no further affiliation with the organization; and the third proposed that the CAI merge with a similar organization in order to "piggyback" on their success and absorb some of the shock from Mortenson's involvement. Some groups cited the textbook as part of their rationale; however, most did not.

It was noteworthy that we had to literally cut off discussion due to the class's time constraints, which was not a normal occurrence. The professor disclosed during the following week's class that he had reflected on the case and the discussion the entire week between classes and prompted the start of the following class by revisiting the topic.

Reflections of the Practioners

Seeing the students engaged by the content and absorbed in their roles was the highlight of teaching this unit. We had become accustomed to some of the extroverted students ruling the class discussions with three or four students never chiming in. However, we worked to craft a space of intrigue from the beginning of the class and set the stage for interaction by telling them at the beginning that they would be role playing after the video. We sensed that from the class onset, students were enlivened.

The *60 Minutes* show was really the cornerstone of the entire unit. It was suspenseful. Talking about the case would not have had the same impact. Further, students were given authority to act out their role play groups without any prompts from us. We believe this allowed for more authentic discussion and creativity to emerge.

Recommendations for Scaffolding the Case Study

Expand this to a multi-lesson case by:

- expanding on other follower theories
- incorporating the last two chapters of Chaleff's book (2009).
- assigning the Courageous Follower Self-Assessment (Chaleff, 2009, p. 242) as homework and use in class for group processing.
- assigning students to find a similar current event and discuss how this framework applies in those situations.

- including how followership aligns with or challenges other leadership theories (such as connections to servant leadership, etc.).

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Appendix A
Instructional Manual for Enacting the Case Study

Lesson Title	Three cups of conflict: A need for courageous followers
Estimated time	Ninety minutes
Fundamental concepts	Charismatic leaders, courageous followers, ethics and leadership scandals, non-governmental organization, international development, role playing as pedagogy
Case synopsis	Mortenson was accused of lying in his books and tricking donors; his NGO was implicated in embezzlement. It appears that his board was complacent in running the international NGO and many purported activities never occurred. Despite a legal scandal, Mortenson is still active in the NGO, the CEO defends him, and people continue to donate to the NGO. However, the reputation of the NGO is diminished and donations are greatly reduced. The scandal hurt others tangentially related and impacted the international development NGO sector.
Leadership theory synopsis	Followers must courageously engage in their roles, hold leaders accountable, and challenge them to uphold high standards. Five dimensions of courageous followership include the courage to assume responsibility, the courage to serve, the courage to challenge, the courage to participate in transformation, and the courage to take moral action.
Educational objectives	• Demonstrate understanding of components of courageous followership and how they can apply these to complex leadership challenges they may face. • Display understanding of the dynamics between critical incidents caused by a leader and implications for followers, both intimate to that leader and more broadly within an industry.
Instructional reading	*Chaleff, Ira (2009) The courageous follower: Standing up to and for our leaders* (3rd ed.). • Assign all students to read: Introduction (p. 1-10), chapter 1 (p. 11-34), epilogue and meditation (p. 235-238). • Assign students to a group (1-5) and assign them with responsibility for reading one chapter per group and being prepared to provide a synopsis to peers at the beginning of class (chapters 2 -7). • Instructor will read chapter 8 and provide a synopsis to students at the beginning of class (particularly "the role of the board" p. 227-229).
Instructional video	• *60 Minutes* Interviews about Greg Mortenson found at

	http://www.cbsnews.com/videos/greg-mortenson/
Teaching Tips	• Read through the case scenario, lesson plan, and appendices B and C to gain familiarity with the context. • Purchase or check out *Three Cups of Tea* and bring to class for visual aid. • Assign readings prior to the unit being taught and expect students to have synopsis prepared for oral discussion. • Create handout to aid students (Chaleff, 2009, p. 229). • Only explain the unit outline of the class. Do not tell the contents of the video or the conflict in the case. The shock value of the video is impactful. • Monitor room to encourage all students' participation in role play activity. • Allow for break time. This effectively moves the energy from the group work and back to whole class room sharing. • Encourage each group to talk about their process in addition to what outcomes they wanted to see happen. Asking about their process should reinforce the relationship to the courageous follower framework. • The purpose of the coda assignment is to deepen the students' connection to the courageous follower constructs and have them interact with the recommendations given at the end of the self-assessment. It can be graded based on task completion, versus content assessment.
Outline (90 minutes)	• Begin by asking students their impression of the books introduction, chapter 1, epilogue, and meditation. Discuss. • Randomly ask a student from each group to provide a brief synopsis of the assigned chapter. Ask other students to add in as they desire. Write titles of the chapters on the board (or have student do) as each chapter is discussed. • Provide class with synopsis of chapter 8 and handout sheet with prompting questions from page 229. Tell student the outline for the class: watch video, break into groups, role play, come back together, and share. • Tell students they are going to watch a video related to The Three Cups of Tea book. Pass book around. • Show *60 Minutes* documentary about the scandal. • Break students into role play groups and tell them they are the Board of Directors for the Central Asian Institute. Ask them to process what they would do, how, and why. Ask them to keep courageous follower constructs in mind as they role play. Allow for role play to occur. Monitor the room for engagement. <Take a break> • Have class come back together as a whole and ask each group, one by one, to talk about their process and outcomes.

	• Read status report indicating what the organization did post-*60 Minutes*. • Allow time for discussion and reflections.

Appendix B

Status of Greg Mortensen and Central Asian Institute After the 60 Minutes Exposé

- The Montana Attorney General ordered Mortenson to pay $1.2 million in restitution for luxury items purchased, forbade Mortenson to hold any position within the charity that had anything to do with financial oversight and ordered the entire Board be replaced (Montana DOJ, 2012). However, before the Board dismantled itself, they appointed seven new members selected with Mortenson's input and Mortenson stayed on the Board as a non-voting member, circumventing the Attorney General's order (Krakauer, 2014).

- CAI has given no indicated that they will work with Viking/Penguin Publishing to revise *Three Cups of Tea* (Krakauer, 2014).

- Mortenson said "mistakes were made" rather than admitting to those mistakes, allowing his supporters to continue to believe in him (Krakauer, 2014). Mortenson said he plans to eventually leave the organization after first helping raise contributions and seeing the graduation of the first wave of girls who entered CAI's Afghanistan schools about a decade ago (Volz, 2014).

- Although Krakauer came under criticism for excessive hounding of Mortenson, he remains steadfast in his attempts to discredit Mortenson, saying the organization will not prosper as long as Mortenson remains in its spotlight. Current Board Chair Steve Barrett disagrees, asserting that people recognize Mortenson and that he must be involved in any effort to revitalize the work (Volz, 2014).

- "I suck as an administrator," said Mortenson. He is enrolling in graduate school courses in organizational leadership. "I'd really like to understand what it is to really be an ethical leader" (Sieff, 2014).

- Krakauer reminds us that everyone shares the responsibility for governance, stating "The only thing that allows people like him to remain in business is public demand for what they are hawking" (Krakauer, 2014).

- In May 2014, CAI announced the abrupt resignation of its executive director, who had been appointed to try to repair the organization's image and deal with the corruption, but had been stonewalled by the board (Krakauer, 2014).

- Mortenson remains the leader and the public face of the organization and is paid about $170,000 per year (Charity Navigator).

Appendix C

Figure 1. Greg Mortenson with school children in Pakistan (Central Asian Institute, 2014).

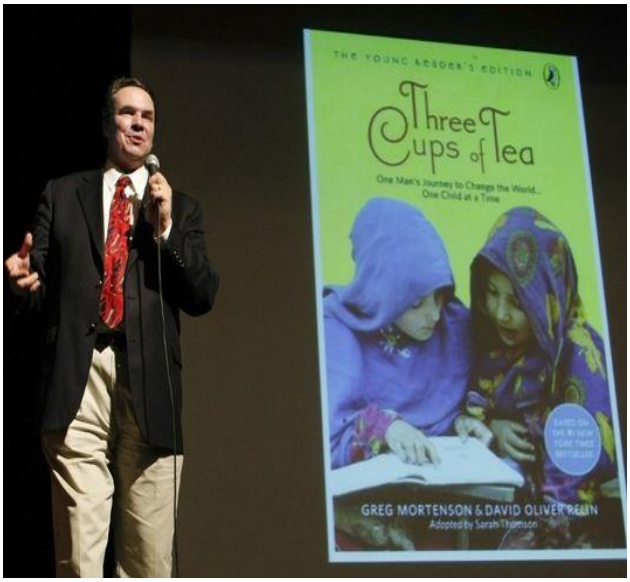

Figure 2. Greg Mortensen at a speaking engagement (2014). http://www.greatfallstribune.com/story/news/local/2014/09/18/three-cups-tea-author-plans-reluctant-return/15828337/)

Figure 3. Location where Central Asian Institute works (Central Asian Institute, 2014)

Talk the Walk: Developing effective communication skills to build self-leadership capacity among undergraduate students

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Abstract

This paper demonstrates the use of behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies within an effective communication course in order to develop self-leaders. Educators will demonstrate several undergraduate experiential activities that instill these strategies, developing students who can communicate their willingness and motivation to lead themselves.

Introduction

We currently live in a world where our organizations are shifting away from traditional hierarchical organizations into organizations of shared leadership, where autonomy is encouraged among employees (Pearce, 2007). Therefore, as leadership educators, we must adapt our leadership education models to best develop the capacity of our students. We must begin developing students who can effectively share leadership responsibility (Stewart, Manz & Sims, 1999), who strive for personal control and believe in their influence over their work (Yun, Cox, & Sims, 2006), and who are truly certain that they can accomplish what they want to accomplish (Maddux, 2002).

Individuals who desire for personal autonomy in the workplace have been found to be more inclined to be self-determined and ambitious, striving to become managers and leaders (Harrell & Alpert, 2979). Employees who possess this need for autonomy and self-efficacy are more likely to work effectively in today's empowering environments (Norris, 2008). Our students vary in the way they respond to these opportunities to shared responsibility (Yun, Cox & Sims, 2006). Therefore, as educators, it is imperative that we address the development of our leaders' communication skills, in accordance to these shifting organizational cultures that encourage autonomy and self-efficacy.

Review of Related Scholarship

Most self-leadership studies focus on a theoretical foundation that is built upon Bandura's social learning theory (1977) and social cognitive theory (1986) (Norris, 2008). Together, these theories undergird self-leadership theory and explain how individuals can personally influence their own behavior and motivation (Bandura, 1977) and how people and their environment interact simultaneously (Bandura, 1986). Self-leadership theory explores how leaders think and behave according to cognitive, motivational and behavioral strategies (Yun, Cox & Sims, 2006). These three strategies have been coined as behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies (Norris, 2008), which are reflected by an individual's need for autonomy and general self-efficacy (see Figure 1 below).

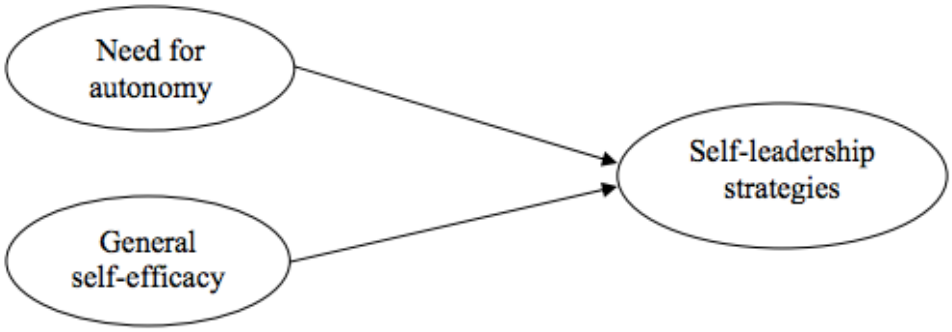

Figure 1: Model of relationship among need for autonomy, general self-efficacy, and self-leadership strategies (Norris, 2008, p. 44)

Behavior-focused strategies increase self-awareness and develop personal behavior management (Neck & Houghton). Such behavior-focused strategies include tasks such as goal-setting, self-reward, and self-observation (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Natural reward strategies utilize entertaining activities so that tasks become naturally rewarding (Manz & Neck, 2004). These strategies increase self-motivation, self-determination and feelings of competence (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Constructive thought strategies create more positive ways of thinking. By fostering positive self-talk, students can positively impact their expectations (Boss & Sims, 2008).

Self-leaders direct their own goals and vision, are persistent in situations of adversity, continually think through new patterns (Manz & Sims, 1989), constantly engage in creativity (Carmeli, Meitar, & Weisberg, 2006), and are intrinsically motivated (Manz & Neck, 1989; Maz & Neck, 2004).
De Vries, Bakker-Pieper and Oostenveld (2009) compared the relationship between the communication styles of leaders at a governmental organization with their leadership styles, knowledge sharing and leadership outcomes. Leadership styles analyzed were charismatic, human-oriented, and task-oriented leadership. Communication styles analyzed were verbal aggressiveness, expressiveness, preciseness, assuredness, supportiveness, and argumentativeness. Researchers found that charismatic and human-oriented leaders were especially communicative, while task-oriented leaders were significantly less communicative. The communication styles of leaders were also strongly related to knowledge sharing behaviors, perceived leader performance, satisfaction with the leader, and subordinate's team commitment. Researchers ultimately presented the importance of today's leader's supportiveness, assuredness, and preciseness when communicating with followers.

Maes, Weldy & Icenogle's (1997) study with undergraduate business students found that oral communication competency is most important for these students in the workplace. Drawing from the fact that business schools are failing to develop students' much needed communication competencies and skills, the researchers identified the top skills that are most important for entry-level business student graduates. Oral communication was consistently identified as the most important competency in entry-level evaluations. The four oral communication skills identified as most important: instructions, listening, conversing and giving feedback.

Because our self-efficacy influences self-leadership development (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008), our communication curriculum must reflect situations where students are able to initiate personal changes and set tangible goals (Maddux, 2002). The coursework must also allow for space to build confidence in students' abilities to cope, perform and be successful (Cordery & Burr, 2005). Through her work with graduate students at a small, liberal arts university in the Midwest, Norris' (2008) study found that the positively significant relationship between general autonomy and self-efficacy and self-leadership is developed by using behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies. Drawing from Norris' (2008) study, the researchers explored the effectiveness of developing self-leadership capacity through a pedagogical approach, which utilized the three strategies of self-leadership in order to address necessary communication skills.

Description of Practice

The study took place in a face-to-face lecture classrooms (n=373), followed by smaller lab section classes (n=15-17) enrolled in two semesters (fall 2014, spring 2015) of an Effective Oral Communication course at a Land Grant university located in the Southeast region of the United States.
Upon completion of this course, student will achieve the following learning objectives:

- Demonstrate effective articulation, organization, and prioritization of communication
- Demonstrate the ability to utilize engagement tools and tactics with respect to audience engagement
- Demonstrate capacity for interpersonal communication within leadership contexts
- Demonstrate self-awareness of personal communication styles, including nonverbal interactions, within small groups

The researchers utilized the three self-leadership strategies, in accordance to the learning objectives of the course and Maes, Weldy & Icnogle's (1997) study that identified the four most significant constructs of oral communication skills: instructions, listening, conversing and giving feedback. These three strategies were utilized in course exercises, activities, and discussions in order to develop self-leadership capacity when addressing communication skills.

Please see appendices for learning outcomes, assessments, and complete lesson plan.
Behavior-focused strategies (See Appendix A)

The curriculum included several exercises that heightened the self-awareness of students in order to develop effective communication skills. Self-awareness was heightened due to nonverbal and active listening exercises, as well as their personal narrative presentation. The instructors also facilitated personal behavior management through goal-setting demonstrated in student reflections and peer evaluations of communication strengths and areas of improvement.

Natural reward strategies (See Appendix B)

To implement natural reward strategies, the curriculum included a "What Motivates Me?" enjoyable exercise that increased self-motivation and feelings of competence in students' communication skills.

Constructive thought strategies (See Appendix C)

The curriculum also included several exercises that created positive habitual ways of thinking in order to develop effective communication skills. Positive self-talk was increased in the communication strengths exercise, and positive habitual ways of thinking was encouraged in the constructive dialogue and Emotionally Engaged Thinking (Stedman & Andenoro, in press) activities.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The following results are student quotes that were thematically coded from data collected from student evaluations, mid-semester "Stop, Start and Continue" evaluations, and post-semester focus groups in order to explore students' development of self-leadership. The data was gathered from written data (including audio-transcriptions from focus groups) into the following thematic codes: behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, constructive thought strategies, autonomy, self-efficacy and tangible demonstrations of self-leadership.

Autonomy:
"This class gave me more freedom than other [classes], with what we were able to do and what we were able to discuss; to find out what we need to find out for our future endeavors. The opportunity to grow personally."

Self-awareness (Behavior-focus strategies):
"I really feel like I can use this in my field; I'm preparing myself mentally with some of the clients that I'll have… I know I have areas of improvement – like my hand gestures – but I'm actually self-aware of it now."

"*I learned about myself! When I was writing in my reflections – I had to actually sit down and think about myself… and normally they [teachers] don't make us do that."*

"I always thought that when it comes to communicating in a group setting, the most important part was to know who you are communicating with. But in reality, the most important part is knowing yourself well enough to be able to communicate with others."

Self-awareness and personal development (Behavior-focus strategies):
"Overall, this was my best presentation. I talked about personal stories I've never shared with anyone out loud, let alone of group of somewhat strangers. If I take away anything from my speech, saying out loud my most personal stories would be my proudest accomplishment. I made a big step in my communication skills and learned how important effective communication is… I will continue to improve my communication skills and hope to apply the techniques I learned in my future career."

Setting goals (Behavior-focus strategies):

"Looking at old videos I made before [the completion of this course], I can already see improvements I've made compared to new ones, and I'm sure I'll continue to see improvement there as I put thought into my communication in the future."

Feeling of competence (Natural reward strategies):

"These are the things that I will remember for the rest of my life. In other classes, I just forget it after the class. I'm never going to forget to effectively communicate once you've learned it. It's kind of like riding a bike – and you taught us how to do that."

Enjoyable exercises that increased self-motivation (Natural reward strategies):
"*As of recent, many of my classes have been cut and dry and been mostly about getting the busy work done. This class gave me the freedom to pursue my own interest and the time for myself. And opened up topics in which I can tie these activities to the core curriculum. This coupled with the high level encouragement was a breath of fresh air."*

"*I think the biggest difference I noticed with this speech was, when preparing for it, I was actually excited to present it!"*

Understanding what motivates us (Natural reward strategies):
"Assignments [in this course] allow students to use what they think and know about their profession and test it against what is really true and what they are motivated by in their career path."

Critical thinking (Constructive thought strategies):
"*I already see that I'm applying [the skills I learned in this class]… I've always had problems with solving problems and thinking critically – it's a big problem in our generation… For me, this course has prepared me to take on leadership roles [in my club on campus] – this class has prepared me for that because I have the tools and understanding to reach my audience."*

Self-leadership:
"I will make a pledge to you, [my teacher], and myself to continue to practice and receive feedback from my communication. I really want to be a leader in the area of effective communication."

"Not only am I a better communicator after taking [this course], but I am truly a better person."

Reflections of the Practitioner

In comparison to the skills-based focused pedagogy of traditional public speaking courses, the authors saw a tangible demonstration of transformational leadership. Students were able to build confidence in their public speaking skills but also able to articulate their personal legacy, what motivates them, their own communication style, and how they're going to apply the material to their everyday life outside of academia. The more opportunities provided to students to critically think and reflect on these bigger picture constructs, the more engaged and excited they become. The authors witnessed empowered students having autonomy in their educational experience.

Recommendations

Organizational effectiveness improves when leaders share the power and control of their organization with others (Conger & Kanugo, 1988), which many times requires a change in organizational culture and structure (Gupta, 2007). It becomes imperative, therefore, to develop leaders who are ready to accept more responsibility and take personal initiative to improve their individual performance through self-leadership development.

Although the context for this course is based on the outcomes of personal development of communication skills, the results of this study can be generalized to many cross-disciplinary courses. Further research is encouraged by the authors to examine the effectiveness of utilizing these strategies of self-leadership among other disciplines outside of communication.

As educators, we strive to develop effective communicators who have the capacity to lead themselves. By developing and facilitating communication curriculum that utilizes behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies, we empower our undergraduate students to address the critical, wicked issues that currently face our world with increased autonomy and self-efficacy.

Appendix A
Behavior-focused Strategies

1. Heightens self-awareness

Activity #1: Nonverbal Communication exercise ("What You're Not Saying")

Objectives:

- Demonstrate heighten self-awareness of nonverbal elements

Assessment:

- Summative Assessment: Content analysis of "What You're Not Saying" worksheets (includes all elements of nonverbal communication covered)

Content:

1. Lesson will cover the significance of nonverbal communication
    a. Reinforces or modifies what is being said in words
    b. Conveys information about your emotional state
    c. Defines/reinforces the relationship between people
    d. Provides feedback to the other person
    e. Regulates the flow of communication
2. Lesson will include a summary and example of the following nonverbal elements: Facial expressions, Gestures (emblems, illustrators, affect displays, regulators, adaptors), Paralinguistics (tone of voice, loudness, inflection, pitch, pauses, speed), Body language and posture, Proxemics, Eye contact, Haptic, Appearance
3. Students will identify the above nonverbal elements in three video clips:
    a. Pop culture: "Crazy, Stupid Love" - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sZOfrwF7wHU
    b. Current event: Japanese Politician Ryutaro Nonomura - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ruj81RdqOqc
    c. Current event: Mitt Romney (Republican National Convention) - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GMuU-EwcIzs
    d. Research: TEDx Talk (Professor of Psychology, Allan Pease, at ULIM International University) - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZZZ7k8cMA-4

Activity #2: Nonverbal Communication activity

Objectives:

- Identify personal nonverbal interactions (effective and ineffective)
- Identify how to address each ineffective nonverbal interaction
- Demonstrate heighten self-awareness of personal nonverbal interactions

Assessment:

- Formative Assessment: comparison of the pre- and post-video nonverbal performances, in accordance to written strengths and areas of improvement

Content:

1. Lesson will cover the significance of nonverbal communication
    a. Reinforces or modifies what is being said in words
    b. Conveys information about your emotional state
    c. Defines/reinforces the relationship between people
    d. Provides feedback to the other person
    e. Regulates the flow of communication

2. Lesson will include a summary and example of the following nonverbal elements: Facial expressions, Gestures (emblems, illustrators, affect displays, regulators, adaptors), Paralinguistics (tone of voice, loudness, inflection, pitch, pauses, speed), Body language and posture, Proxemics, Eye contact, Haptic, Appearance
3. Students will receive 10 minutes to give a 1-minute presentation on the following prompt: *Determine one word that describes you in a personal or professional context. Your task is to discuss how the one word you have chosen describes you to your peers in lab. Describe how the word relates to fulfilling the needs of your dream job.*
4. While students are giving presentations, instructors will record the content. Upon completion of all student presentations, the instructor will disseminate the video link via URL. Students will be asked to evaluate their nonverbal communication only (currently disregard the actual content of the speech), and write down three strengths and three areas of improvement.
    a. Instructors will facilitate a reflection with students regarding what they learned about their nonverbal communication that was previously unknown.
5. Students are then instructed to give a 1-minute presentation on the following prompt, specifically focusing on the three areas of improvement identified after reflecting on their previous presentation: *Select an item (tangible or intangible) that you cannot live without. Your task is to sell this "item" to your peers in lab. Describe the value of the item, and why your peers should have it.*

Activity #3: Instructions & listening activity

<u>Objectives:</u>

- Understand the difference between listening and active/engaged listening
- Identify personal barriers to listening

<u>Assessment:</u>

- <u>Developmental</u>: aid students in the development of effective and engaged listening

<u>Content:</u>

1. Lesson includes the summary and examples of active listening
    a. Selecting a message
    b. Attending to the message
    c. Creating meaning from the message (interpreting)
    d. Remembering the message)
    e. Responding appropriately
2. Lesson includes the significance of listening (example: TED Talk "Are we losing our listening?")
3. Instructor tells the train story:
    a. Tell participants that you are going to read them a brief story about a train and that they need to pay close attention as you are going to ask them a question about the situation being described. Advise participants that they might want to make notes as you read the story.
    b. A train leaves the station with 3 passengers and stops at London and 5 more get on. It next stops and Albany and 2 passengers get off. Next stop is Pleasantville and 23 new passengers get on board. The train makes its next stop in Dallas where 21 get off and no one gets on. The train chugs along until it reaches Hollywood where 3 more passengers get on. The next stops are Buffalo where 6 get on and 4

get off, Moosehead where no one gets on or off, and Clarksburg where 24 passengers get on board. The train reaches the end of the route in Los Angeles where everyone gets off.

c. *How many stops did the train make?*
d. Instructor facilitates a follow-up discussion

4. Engaged Listening Farmer exercise (http://archive.learnhigher.ac.uk/Staff/Group-work/Top-3-classroom-activities/Teaching-notes/Communication-skills-exercise.html)
    a. Instructor will facilitate a follow-up discussion with the first successful team to tell the rest of the class the correct answer:
        i. *How did they organize themselves?*
        ii. *How did they feel throughout the process?*
        iii. *How did they share their information?*
        iv. *Ask the rest of the group what they thought about how they worked together, did they listen to each other?*
        v. *What might they do differently next time?*

Activity #4: Personal Narrative

Objectives:

- Demonstrate effective articulation, organization, and prioritization of communication
- Demonstrate self-awareness of personal communication styles
- Develop an interpersonal understanding of the self as it relates to communication within dynamic contexts

Assessment:

- Developmental: aid students in the development of authentic leadership and self-efficacy through the self-narrative process

Content:

1. In the personal narrative presentation, students will tell a story that provides their lab instructor and peers with context for (1) their passions and/or (2) their future career. Students will attempt to successfully engage their audience by utilizing dynamic personal narrative elements discussed in lecture and the course text (Talk like TED; Gallo, 2014).
2. The informal speech will be **5 minutes.** Visual aids are optional; PowerPoint is not allowed and professional dress is not required for this speech.
3. Students will then be asked to provide a 2 page personal narrative reflection that presents a critical reflection on the following prompts: (1) Based on peer feedback and personal critique, what are my current strengths and weaknesses as a communicator? (2) How did the subject matter of my speech impact my communication skills and the communication process at large (i.e. audience feedback, engagement, tone)? (3) What elements of personal narrative did I implement from lecture and/or Talk like TED?

2. Facilitates personal behavior management

Activity #1: Communication goal-setting

Objectives:

- Identify effective and ineffective elements of personal communication style through self-assessment and peer evaluations
- Identify how to tangibly address each ineffective communication elements
- Demonstrate heighten self-awareness of personal communication style

Assessment:

- Summative Assessment: Content analysis of presentation reflections and peer evaluations

Content:

- Throughout the course, students will engage in personal reflection of each presentation to identify the strengths and areas of improvement. Students will not only identify these elements in their reflection papers, but will also list tangible goals and means to grow.
- After each presentation, student will provide peer evaluation forms that state the presenters' strengths and areas of improvement. Students are encouraged to utilize these evaluation forms in the critical reflection paper.

Appendix B
Natural Reward Strategies

1. Increases self-motivation

Activity #1: What motivates me? Activity

Objectives:

- Identify personal motivation and understand its significance
- Demonstrate effective articulation of introspective communication
- Demonstrate self-awareness of personal communication styles

Assessment:

- Developmental: aid students in their identification of personal motivation in order to deepen their understanding of personal motivation
- Formative: upon the conclusion of the course, students will reflect on their personal motivation and how they have developed their motivation to be successful in this course

Content:

1. Lesson will cover what is motivation.
    a. Forces that compels us to action
    b. Drives us to work hard and pushes us to succeed
    c. Influences our behavior and our ability to accomplish goals
2. Lesson will cover a summary and example of the following types of motivation: Incentive, Fear, Achievement, Growth, Power, Social
3. Students will complete the "What Motivates Me?" worksheet (Beck, 2015)
4. The instructor will facilitate a class discussion of the significance of understanding our motivation.
    a. *Do you have more than one style of motivation? Why or why not?*
    b. *Has your primary type of motivation changed throughout your life? Why or why not?*
    c. *Why is it important to understand our own personal type of motivation?*
    d. *Why is it important to articulate what motivates us?*

Appendix C
Constructive Thought Strategies

1. Creates positive ways of thinking

Activity #1: Communication Strengths exercise

Objectives:

- Demonstrate self-awareness of personal communication styles
- Identify communication strengths in order to build student confidence and self-esteem

Assessment:

- Developmental: aid students in their identification of personal communication strengths in order to build confidence
- Formative: upon the conclusion of the course, students will reflect upon their development throughout the semester as effective oral communicators

Content:

1. Students will receive a note card and asked to reflect and write the strengths they currently hold as a communicator.
2. Upon completion of the strengths notecard, the Instructor will explain to students how a self-positive mind-set builds confidence and self-esteem.
3. Students are encouraged to keep their strengths notecard in a drawer, and continue to add to the notecard throughout the year to reinforce positive qualities.

Activity #2: Constructive Dialogue

Objectives:

- Identify tools to create constructive dialogue
- Develop conflict management skills
- Build confidence to engage in challenging topics or conversations with differing opinions
- Demonstrate the ability to utilize engagement tools and tactics with respect to audience engagement

Assessment:

- Developmental: aid students in addressing conflicting or challenging conversations in order to achieve constructive daily dialogue

Content:

1. Give a background for constructive dialogue movement (Arguing our lives: A user's guide for constructive dialogue; Jenson, 2013)
2. Establish a foundation for critical thinking: Interpretation, Analysis, Evaluation, Inference, Explanation, Self-regulation (Andenoro & Stedman, 2014)
3. How do we establish an environment for constructive dialogue
    a. Setting goals about the dialogue
    b. Creating a safe space
    c. Developing tools for dialogue
        i. Active listening
        ii. Taking ownership of our comments
        iii. Acknowledging diversity of thought and social identities
        iv. Modeling (providing personal examples)
    d. Developing awareness of the other (emotional intelligence)
    e. Tools for Conflict Management (CDR Associates Training Package: Conflict Resolution for Managers and Leaders; Jossey-Bass, 2007)
4. Embracing the discomfort
5. Fishbowl Conversation
    a. Instructors will create a fishbowl conversation, with two students in the middle of the circle and the remaining students surrounding. The two students in the center of the Fishbowl will initiate a conversation surrounding a controversial topic (gun

control, immigration reform, GMOs, climate change, veganism, paying student athletes, censorship). The outside students will simply observe.

b. The Instructor will facilitate a discussion surrounding elements of constructive dialogue that were observed and tactics or tools that could have been used to more effectively address elements in the conversation.

Activity #2: Emotional Engaged Thinking activity

Objectives:

- Demonstrate the difference between critical thought and emotional intelligence
- Utilize critical reflection to stimulate thought and long-term attention
- Develop self-awareness of personal emotions
- Provide a strategy for confronting challenging decisions
- Demonstrate the ability to utilize engagement tools and tactics with respect to audience engagement

Assessment:

- Developmental: aid students in identifying how they make challenging decisions, and encouraging them to develop a more holistic approach to decision-making

Content:

1. Split the classroom into two groups, distributing "Group 1" slips and "Group 2" slips of paper with the below messages. Ask them to read their paper individually and answer the question on the remaining space on the paper.
2. Ask someone from Group 1 to explain their scenario to the entire class and then ask for responses from Group 1 recipients. Then have someone from Group 2 explain his or her scenario to the entire class and share responses from Group 2.
    a. Group 1
        i. You just graduated from UF, and you have been asked to apply for a job across the country. There are many pros and cons about this opportunity. It's not necessarily your dream job, but it's a great opportunity to network and get started on your career.
        ii. Using your best logic, devise a rational process for how you would approach deciding to apply for the job.
        iii. Do you apply or not?
    b. Group 2
        i. You just graduated from UF, and you have been asked to apply for a job across the country. There are many pros and cons about this opportunity. It's not necessarily your dream job, but it's a great opportunity to network and get started on your career.
        ii. Using your instinct of what you would like about this opportunity, think through all the emotional elements of what this could mean.
        iii. Did you apply or not?
3. Then follow-up with Emotionally Engaged Thinking process with the class (Stedman & Andenoro, in press):
    a. Foundational Awareness
    b. Authentic Engagement
    c. Connective Analysis
    d. Empowerment and Change

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The Action-Based Effective Leadership Development Model: A Framework for Leadership Education

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Abstract

This practice session gives a brief overview of the Action-Based Effective Leadership Development (ABELD) Model, and discusses its application to graduate students enrolled in a leadership course at a business university in Brussels, Belgium. The facilitator will demonstrate how the framework can incorporate leadership theories and approaches. Participants will have the opportunity to learn about ways to make use of existing leadership theories and approaches in the leadership literature through the utilization of the ABELD Model.

Introduction

In making use of many of the theories and approaches to leadership education featured in Northouse (2013), among various other leadership education concepts and ideas, the ABELD Model provides the scaffolding for these concepts to be presented in three different phases: Focusing on the development of self; Focusing on the development of others; and focusing on the development of both self and others. Additionally, other aspects from the leadership education literature can be applied to the ABELD Model - within a customizable format adjusted to address the needs and objectives of a particular class, workshop or similar – in order to challenge participants to step outside their comfort zone, and thus experience growth and development toward becoming an effective leader. This model makes up one-half of the Action-Based Effective Leadership Development and Influence, or ABELDI method of leadership education (Payne, 2014) which features additional areas encompassing effective leadership influence. Please see 'Appendix' for more information.

Background

In reviewing ideas such as those presented in the leadership dyad model (Bass, 1960), the ABELD Model attempts to provide for the participant an approach to the process of becoming an effective leader that is intentional, and allows for personal reflection and growth. The model assumes that an individual should first take action to demonstrate potential for oneself before being able to do so effectively for others with regard to leadership development. With this in mind, the course material follows this format, and its structure allows for a flexible selection of corresponding material from the leadership literature. In addition, the ABELD Model allows for a responsive, emergent approach to the selection of material and to the course overall (Riley & Roach, 2006). Palus & Drath (1995), in noting the work of Kegan (1980) make the argument that development programs need to provide opportunities for the participant to make their own sense of meaning, and this is what the ABELD Model attempts to accomplish:

"…well-designed development programs provide individuals with significant experiential lessons that cause a temporary disequilibrium in their meaning-making system. The individual's

attempt to deal with such disequilibrium opens a window, however briefly, into new ways of making sense of their experiences. This glimpse of new possibilities creates the potential for development after (sometimes long after) the program is completed" (p. 18).

Description of Practice

During the Fall 2014 semester, the ABELD Model was utilized as the framework for a leadership course for approximately 80 international graduate students at the Solvay School of Economics in Brussels, Belgium. The course, entitled "The Moral Leader," was designed to provide for the student participants the opportunity to learn about some of the tenants of leadership education in a self-reflective format with an emphasis on allowing the students to decide how to best chart their course toward becoming an effective leader. A series of leadership self-assessments were administered to students in order to provide some baseline information as to how they saw themselves in relation to effective leadership capabilities. From this, composite scores for each of the three phases of the ABELD Model were created. A pre-survey was administered, asking students to report these scores as well as to rate their preferences and tolerances for leadership environmental factors. Additionally, some basic demographic information was also collected. Once the baseline information was collected, students were then presented with each phase of the ABELD Model over the majority of the course, and the task was to select bits of this information which they felt pertained to their respective results on the self-assessments, in order to build a personalized "action plan" for their effective leadership development.

Phase I, which focuses on the development of self, introduced leadership approaches and concepts from which the student participants could choose. Phase II, which focuses on aiding in the development of others, provided background information which emphasized ways in which participants could champion on behalf of others through various means. Phase III, focusing on the development of both self and others, highlighted leadership theories which emphasized the simultaneity of developing self while also aiding in the development of others, which can be a way to view the very essence of effective leadership. All information was presented in a traditional lecture-based format while incorporating as many interactive and small-group activities where possible. Please see 'Appendix' for an overview of the ABELD Model as used for the Moral Leader course.

Other deliverables, including a team assignment and an exam, were utilized in order to assess student participant's understanding and retention of the material presented. The course text included *The 48 Laws of Power* by Greene (2000), which was also easily formatted to fit within the framework of the ABELD Model.

At the end of the course, once students submitted their individual "action plans," a post-survey was administered. The design was very similar to that of the pre-survey, except the questions were framed in such a way to assess students' potential growth and development as a result of taking the course.

Results

The results of the post-survey indicated that the majority of students saw an increase in their perceptions of their various leadership capabilities as a result of taking the course. This information was further corroborated by the scores on the team assignment and exam. One item of note where students saw such an increase was being able to succeed despite being given a limited amount of instruction and directive guidance on assignments. This idea of being able to tolerate ambiguity is one of many essential aspects of effective leadership, as leaders must often lead amidst unknown outcomes. This demonstrates that the approach of having students direct themselves through the course - having the freedom to select the concepts which they felt applied most to their respective leadership journey – was somewhat successful in giving them the confidence to lead themselves as well as others. Click here for a graphical overview of the course.

Reflections

Overall, the experience in working with the graduate students helped to show that the ABELD Model can be a helpful tool used toward helping students to perceive themselves as becoming more effective leaders. Though the class size was large, many opportunities for experiential learning at the individual and group levels were executed, which made for a "small-class" feel. This is an important element in allowing each student in a course to feel important, and to feel that their contributions and overall effort matters. The international student participants were largely accustomed to a more traditional class format and structure, but in spite of this, they seemed to appreciate the attempts to make the experience more engaging and interactive.

Recommendations

This experience highlighted the importance for leadership education courses to find ways to allow for participants, to some degree, to "chart their own course" within an academic class, as the lessons which can be learned from doing so can be of much more benefit. If this effort is not made, the potential for students to become less engaged and also more reliant on the directive approach that is and has been more germane to the academic experience. Additionally, leadership educators should find ways to customize the experience of learning about leadership in as many ways as possible, so that participants feel engaged and thus, are given the opportunity to build confidence in their respective capabilities & overall leadership tool belt.

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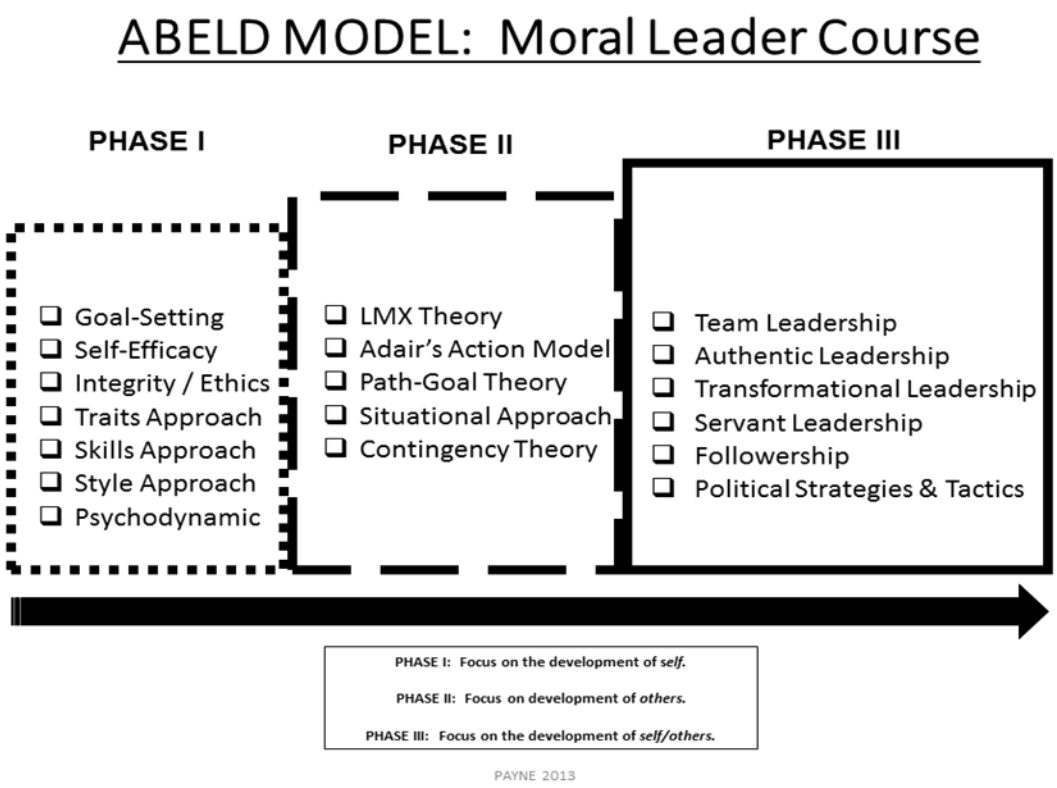
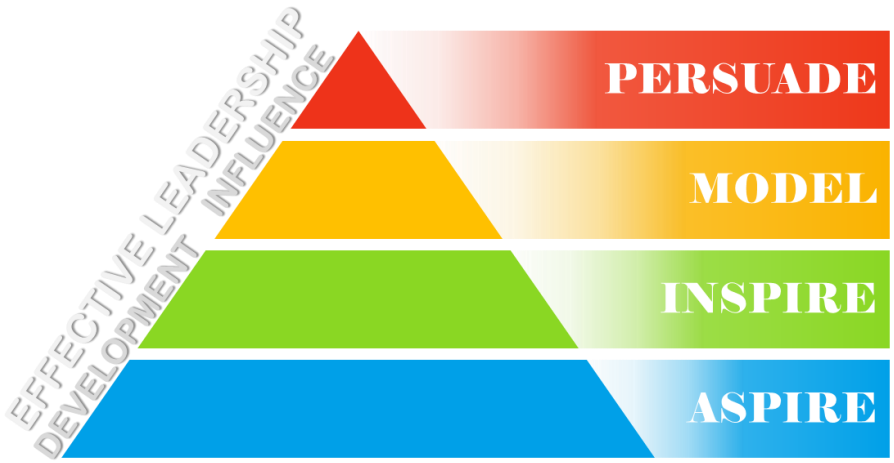
Appendix: ABELD & ABELDI



ABELDI



Teenage Blogger to World Leader: A Case About Courage

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Abstract

The courage to lead is revealed in the case of Malala, a young female blogger propelled to the world stage where she promotes education for all and influences world leaders. It challenges participants to see authentic, servant, and transformational leadership manifest in complex situations. Gender and culture aspects are explored.

Introduction

Education is an essential human right. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) listed it as a force for social change and the single most vital element in combating poverty, empowering women, and safeguarding children from sexual exploitation (2012). Education is the way to protecting the environment and controlling population growth; while leading us down the path towards international peace and security (UNESCO, 2012). There is growing momentum in the international community to focus on providing fair and equitable access to education for all regardless of country of origin, socioeconomic status, sex, or gender.

Unfortunately, females remain deprived of full and equal opportunity for education (n.a., 2014). Malala Yousafzai, a young girl from Pakistan, has courageously stepped into the leadership vacuum advocating for education reform in Pakistan and beyond. She is at the forefront, championing children's, especially female's, right to education. Using her innate courage and evolving leadership skills, Malala demonstrates the changing role of women in the world today as they struggle against cultural restraints. Her story, as she transformed from a teenage blogger to a world leader, is one of bravery and shows how she influenced, and was influenced by, multiple actors and situations that have culminated in a global campaign to bring education rights to females.

This case, Teenage blogger to world leader: A case study about courage, highlights various leaders. Most importantly, the central character is a leader who, while considering herself a servant, engages passion to create change for herself, her people, and the world. She inspires others in a shared vision of education for all; influencing some of the most powerful people around the world. Resolute in her mission, she embodies authenticity as she challenges cultural paradigms that restrict knowledge and female's leader capacities.

Purpose and Objectives

The overall purpose of exposing participants to this current, relational case, is that they will gain a perspective on how various concepts within leadership theory studies affect and advance

resolution of social issues such as equitable access of education to all. By the conclusion of the three class unit, participants will be able to:

1) Identify courageous contributions of each actor in the case.
2) Define the main elements of three leadership theories: authentic, servant, and transformative.
3) Critique the ways that cultural and gendered aspects affect leadership enactment.
4) Articulate their own philosophy and approach to utilizing these concepts within similar social movement contexts.

Background Scenario

Malala's beginnings as a courageous leader started about three years before the attempt was made on her life (BBC, 2009). The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) wanted to create a blog about the life of rural women in Pakistan. Their search for an articulate, educated, young woman led them to Malala. For several years she wrote anonymously, before finally being revealed during a *New York Times* documentary (Ellick & Ashraf, 2009). The story went viral and her name became known to the world, including the Taliban within her own country. Her recognition led to several honors and opportunities to speak out for the rights of females and education. At the same time that she was showered with awards, the Taliban were plotting her murder. As Malala rode the bus one day, she and two friends were viscously attacked by the Taliban. Her life was saved with immediate medical intervention and after stabilization, she moved to a hospital in England for complex surgery and recovery. During this time, many world renowned advocates spoke out about the situation in the Taliban-riddled Pakistan regions and Malala was forever propelled into the mainstream (Brown, 2012, Malala Fund, 2014, Nelson, 2013, n.a., 2012, Rashid, 2012).

Malala continues to be the focus of media worldwide because of her courage and confidence. Despite gender barriers and cultural taboos, she bravely speaks to media, has published a book, and continues to be highlighted in feminist books. She receives international recognition due to her voice reaching far beyond the educational situation in Pakistan, to that of a global human rights issue. Over the course of the last few years, the Malala Fund, which she co-founded with her father, has brought leadership opportunities to women around the globe.

Malala resolutely continues providing leadership in the social movement for equal access to education and the empowerment of females. Her courage continues to grow. She uses her influence to meet with some the most influential leaders of our time and continues to edify the human right to education. Additionally, actors on the global, national, and local level have used her story as a leverage to advance global education for all (Brown, 2012, Clinton, 2013, n.a., 2012, Rochon, 2013).

Through the influence of Hillary Clinton, a Malala advocate, Obama established the White House Council on Women and Girls, which promotes gender equality and the empowerment of women globally (Office of the Press Secretary, 2014). The United Nations propelled strong statements and funding into the global education system, citing Malala as inspiration (Brown, 2012). Pakistan passed the Right to Education legislation due to petitions signed following the assassination attempt (n.a., 2012). Her leadership, which is illustrated in multiple ways in the

following case study, has arguably been the most influential catalyst toward social change for global education.

Central Characters and Quotes

In the international fight for education, numerous people work to shape the path. Malala is the central figure in the case study (and thus she is listed first); however, other actors contributed to and continue to sustain her courage. We also acknowledge detractors as important to this story.

Malala Yousafzai is a teenager girl from Pakistan born on July 12, 1997, into a Sunni Muslim family of Pashtun ethnicity. Her advocacy of female's educational rights resulted in an assassination attempt by the Taliban. She is an international advocate for the rights of females and the right to education around the world. She started the Malala Fund with her father and circumvents the globe giving talks. She continues to study in pursuit of being an educator. In 2014, she won the Nobel Peace Prize. "Let us wage a global struggle against illiteracy, poverty, and terrorism and let us pick up our books and pens. They are our most powerful weapons. One child, one teacher, one book and one pen can change the world" (Rochon, 2013).

Asif Ali Zardari served as the 11th President of Pakistan from 2008 to 2013 and is the first democratically elected president of Pakistan. His wife, a prominent political leader exiled from Pakistan, was assassinated, and this spurred him to return to fight for societal improvements. Personally visiting Malala while she was in the UK hospital, he also made strong statements against her attackers. He promised $10 million toward a "Malala Fund" to promote girls' schooling in Pakistan and worldwide. "I have no doubt that our resolve to provide education to all, in particular to the millions of schoolgirls, is the best strategy to defeat the forces of violence" (*Gender Concerns*, 2012).

Gordon Brown is the former Prime Minister of the United Kingdom. As the United Nations Special Envoy for Global Education, he advances global education on behalf of the United Nations. After Malala's assassination attempt, he organized her expedited medical transport to the UK, offering shelter and support to her family as well as helping find key figures to start the Malala Fund. "With today's announcements we show that as a result of Malala's courage and her inspiration the whole world is now on a bolder and more urgent path for change" (Brown, 2012).

Hillary Diane Rodham Clinton served as United States Secretary of State from 2009 to 2013. She is a long-time advocate for the education as a human right and for health needs of children. Clinton was one of the first political leaders to make statements regarding Malala's shooting and continues to support Malala's efforts. The "Clinton Global Initiative" recognized Malala recently with a "Global Citizen Award." "When they couldn't shut-up Malala because she had learned to speak for herself, they tried to kill her. And now she's a symbol of what education for girls can mean, deep in the hearts of so many children who are otherwise denied" (Clinton, 2013).

Ziauddin Yousafzai is the father of Malala and two sons. He is poet, educator, and social activist. Previous to leaving Pakistan, he owned and ran the Khushal Public Schools. He currently co-administers the Malala Fund and is a special envoy to the United Nations. In 2014,

he gave a TedX talk, “My daughter, Malala”, in which he strongly condemned the Taliban for suppressing education.
Dear brothers and sisters, we were striving for more rights for women, and we were struggling to have more, more, and more space for the women in society. But we came across a new phenomenon. It was lethal to human rights and particularly to women's rights. It was called Talibanization (Yousafzai, 2014).

The media, in various formats worldwide, played a major role since the beginning of Malala’s public story. It was the BBC that created the avenue for Malala to share her story and experiences with the world. It was a *New York Times* documentary that gave her a public identity, resulting in the attack by the Taliban. The media continues to feature the work of Malala and the Malala Fund. Numerous books have been published about her and her connection to other courageous female leaders. “Malala may become a role model not just for girls in the region but also for peace. Her story now has the potential, if fully utilized, to bring about a serious geo-political change in the region” (Rashid, 2012).

The Taliban regime: Ehsanullah Ehsan and Maulana Fazlullah (main spokespersons). Operating as a shadow government in Pakistan, and other nations, they staunchly limit the freedoms of women, and access to education and basic resources for many in Pakistan’s northern regions. They confirmed attacking Malala’s life and trying to insight fear in all Pakistani people. “Characters like Malala should know that we are not deterred by propaganda of *Kuffar*. We have prepared sharp & shiny knives for the enemy of Islam” (*India Today*, 2014).

Teaching Leadership

It is in the spirit of Malala’s bravery that this case study seeks to challenge individuals to see authentic, servant, and transformational leadership manifest in complex situations. Further, aspects of culture and gender are inherent to this case and it would be an injustice to ignore them, thus, the case challenges participants to grapple with how those social aspects influence leadership in social issues.

Authentic Leadership. Leaders such as Malala present a deep awareness of their own values, morals, and perspectives. Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004) identified that hallmarks of an authentic leaders are that they are perceived by others as being confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character. Further, being authentic includes being aware of the context in which they operate and staying true to their course (Northouse. 2013). In this case, not only Malala but several other characters embody authentic leadership.

Servant Leadership. Greenleaf expressed a core tenant of a servant leader as the desire to be of service to others and thereby meet the needs of others and help them grow into more awareness (1977). Optimally their prime motivation for leading is to help others flourish (Russell & Stone, 2002, Northouse, 2013). This ideal is vividly evoked in the case presented and stimulates participants to ask deep questions about their ability or desire to be embrace their theory of leadership.

Transformational Leadership. Leaders often seek to transform a situation or scenario by enhancing the motivation, morale, and performance of followers (Northouse, 2013). Kouzes and Posner's (1995/2002) transformational leadership model serves as guidance for leaders to accomplish their achievements or "to get extraordinary things done" (p. 9). The five strategies they suggest: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart are embraced by almost all the actors encountered in the case. Seeing how each performs them in different ways allows participants to engage the model at various levels.

Cultural Affects. Leadership styles are affected by cultural values, beliefs, and expectations through a complex set of behavioral processes involving culture-specific roles and responsibilities that are deemed appropriate (Jogulu, 2010). Further, cultural norms often dictate concepts of power and social engagement. In this case, various nuances of culture such as collectivists versus individualists behaviors are encountered (Duggan & Media, 2014).

Gendered Leadership. Moving beyond the concept that gender differences are not based on biology and that men and woman are similar in their common humanity (Lorber, 2001) is still a vital need in the world. Malala's story brings the complexity of female's struggles for education, and to be leaders, into context. Juxtaposed against Hillary Clinton's position of power, and seeing the interface of these two courageous leaders, causes students to address the topic at a deep level.

Teaching the Case

The case study is spread across three segments of instruction. The curricular framework follows a "what, so what, now what model" that effectively scaffolds participants' ability to understand the case, apply it to leadership theories, and then apply skills to areas of interest for the participant. Appendix A provides detailed teaching notes and tips for resolution.

The first segment of instruction details the progression of Malala's journey. Using the stimulating New York Times video and interactive popplet concept map ([author], 2014), the key actors and critical moments come to life via group sharing and small group activities. The second section introduces leadership theories applicable to the case context and integrates this with the narrative. A worksheet guides student learning. Homework, to listen to Malala's Nobel Prize speech and read her blog transcripts, asks participants to reflect on how the leadership theories are embedded into her speech and prepares them for the third lesson. The third section challenges participants to further analyze components of the case taking into account social constraints and finishes with them applying insights gained from the case to an issue that is important to them. Utilizing clips from Hilliary Clinton's Women of the World speech (Clinton, 2013) and Ziauddin Yousafzai's TedX speech (Yousafzai, 2014), participants revisit the leadership theories previously discussed and dissect the speeches in group discussion. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model (BEM) is introduced by way of a handout and short lecture (Bronfenbrenner, 2009). Participants use the handout to sketch out a current social issue that is important to them and report on this. The capstone assignment is development of a three to four page reflection piece culminating the participants' considerations on how, or if, they would employ the leadership

theories learned in order to advance awareness about an issue that they deem important, using Malala's story as a referential point.

Outcomes From Teaching the Case

This case was tested during a leadership theory course. Because of time restrictions, a shortened version of the case was enacted.

Presenting the First Section. We asked participants to view the *New York Times* video prior to coming to class rather than show it in class. We began class with the interactive Popplet. Unfortunately few students had watched the video and this limited their understanding of the case and our discussion. Students reported thinking the Popplet was unique and eye-catching and a few mentioned wanting to use it in their future activities.

Presenting the Second Section. We found that it took more time to discuss the theories than anticipated. The handout aided with discussions and with matching the theories to the actors. However, students had a hard time matching theories to actor's quotes.

Presenting the Third Section. Students were unfamiliar with the BEM but responded very positively. Using it created great dialogue and opened the conversation so that students shared about social issues they found worrisome. We presented the capstone project assignment; however, it was not formally assigned. Students reported they thought it would be an accomplishable task given the content of the unit and expressed appreciation that it would be reflective in nature.

Practitioner Reflections

Our team wanted to craft a case that was very modern and on-going. In the initial days of research it was amazing to learn how Malala has influenced, and continues to influence, the world's discussion of equal rights to education and women's rights specifically. Thus, it became easy to create a teaching case that brought in the construct of courage and of various leadership theories displayed in the case as well as culture and gender aspects.

We expected that the students would watch the *New York Times* video prior to the unit starting; it was disappointing that no one had and that this limited our ability to go deep during the first section presentation. There was no way to fully recover from their lack of knowledge about the depths of Malala's courage and the impact of this on locals and world leaders. Further, even though we enacted this unit with students in a leadership theory course, it was surprising difficult to get them to connect the actions of case actors with the leadership theories. They were more confused than we anticipated and this caused uncertainty among the facilitators. In reflection, we decided that section two needed more time for explaining the theories, assigning pre-class readings, etc. On the other hand, the engagement level during section three was better than expected. Even though new to the students, the BEM (in handout form) profoundly engaged their thinking. We were pleased to experience the openness of the students during these discussions. After debriefing, we realized that the BEM was probably the best tool we incorporated. It would be fruitful to spend more time on the BEM activity.

Recommendations

Watch *The New York Times* video in class together; do not expect participants will watch on their own. Consider devoting more time to exploring the leadership theories by adding pre-class readings or adding an additional segment; conversely, considering reducing the amount of content to be covered (eliminate some theories or delete culture or gender aspects).

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Appendix A.
Teaching notes for resolving the case study.

Teenage Blogger to World Leader- Lesson One	
Lesson Title	Malala's Journey: Who is she and how did she impact world leaders?
Estimated Time	90 minutes
Objectives	• Students will identify and recall the major actors and events surrounding Malala's story. • Students will distinguish relationships among the key actors and recognize their impacts. • Students will communicate how Malala used her blog and relationships to advance her message to the world.
Equipment and Supplies needed	Computer, Internet, *New York Times* "Class Dismissed" Video (http://www.nytimes.com/video/world/asia/100000001835296/class--dismissed---malala---yousafzais--story.html), and "Malala's Journey" Popplet (http://popplet.com/app/#/2167375).
Instructor Directions: Unit outline, procedures and key questions	
Opening/Framing the Lesson/Introduction (10 minutes)	• Ask students if they are familiar with Malala Yousafzai. If so, ask for commentary. If not, ask if they heard about the 14-year-old Pakistani blogger who was shot in the head on October 9, 2012. • Introduce the topic of learning about various leadership theories and strategies via the life story of Malala and actors who helped her in her transition from unknown teen blogger to world leader fighting for equal access to education for all, and for girl's rights.
"Class Dismissed" (40 minutes)	• Show *The New York Times* Video: Class Dismissed: Malala's Story • Students will pair with a partner and discuss their responses to the documentary and then report on their paired conversations to the large group. *Encourage students to think about the societal implications of the story.
"Malala's Journey" (25 minutes)	• Have Malala's Journey Popplet (at 100% of view) on a screen and tell students this represents her life story and important actors. In the center is the box representing the day she was shot. By moving along the timeline, they can learn about incidents that occurred prior to and after the shooting. • Ask students to work through the lifeline in pairs, clicking on the interactive features and exploring the various actors. • Students will report on their paired conversations to the larger group.
Application/Homework (5 minutes)	• To ensure students deepen their understanding of the intricate relationships between the actors, ask them to focus on one actor

	and read how that person relates to education rights. • Students will prepare a one page document about the actor they chose and turn it in at the next class.

Teenage Blogger to World Leader—Lesson Two	
Lesson Title	What Can Malala Teach us About Leadership?
Estimated Time	90 minutes
Objectives	• Students will identify, understand, and apply three leadership theories (authentic, servant, and transformational) and two additional concepts impacting leadership (culture and gender). • Students will expand their ability to apply leadership theories by relating them to actors in the case study.
Equipment and Supplies needed	Computer, Internet, Malala's Journey Popplet (http://popplet.com/app/#/2167375), leadership theories handout.
Instructor Directions: Unit outline, procedures and key questions	
Opening/Framing the Lesson/Introduction (10 minutes)	• Call attention to the idea that Malala is seen as a world leader. Ask students to recall what characteristics or behaviors they remember learning in the previous lesson that relate to Malala's leadership capacity. • Read the following quote from her United Nations speech: Here I stand.... one girl among many. I speak – not for myself, but for all girls and boys. I raise up my voice – not so that I can shout, but so that those without a voice can be heard. Those who have fought for their rights: Their right to live in peace. Their right to be treated with dignity. Their right to equality of opportunity. Their right to be educated (Yousafzai, 2013). • Ask students what this quote makes them think about Malala? Does it speak to Malala's leadership style? • Tell students that this lesson exposes them to three specific leadership theories and two social conditions that impact leadership potentials.
"Malala's Journey" (15 minutes)	• Put the interactive Malala's Journey Popplet on the screen and ask students to recall what they learned from using the Popplet in the previous section. • Have students speak about the various characters they learned about (from class and homework assignment) and what kind of leadership they showed.
"Connecting Leadership Theory" (40 minutes)	• Discuss the three leadership theories (Authentic, Servant, and Transformational) and the two social aspects (culture and gender) using the text in the case introduction and the handout (Appendix D). • Have students individually use worksheet to further connect the theories to the case actors. Go over correct responses and dialogue as needed.

	• Ask students to give examples from their own life where they used the attributes of the leadership theories learned. Ask them to speak to how culture and/or gender has affected their potential to be a leader.
Application/Homework (10 minutes)	• To aid students in further applying the leadership aspects learned, assign reading: Diary of a Pakistani schoolgirl (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/south_asia/7834402.stm), and listening to her Nobel Peace Prize Speech (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kmqF9Y2Yq1U). • Students will prepare a one page document linking one quote from Malala, or other main actor, to one of the leadership theories and social aspects learned.

Teenage Blogger to World Leader- Lesson Three	
Lesson Title	Courageous Leaders Everywhere: What Invokes Your Courage?
Estimated Time	90 minutes
Objectives	• Students will identify social aspects that impact courageous leadership. • Students will consider their own leadership approach to an issue that is important to them.
Equipment and Supplies needed	Computer, Internet, Clinton's speech Malala Was A Threat (http://news.yahoo.com/video/hillary-malala-threat-153656368.html),Yousafzai's speech My Daughter, Malala (http://www.ted.com/talks/ziauddin_yousafzai_my_daughter_malala), Bronfenbrenner Ecological Model handout
Instructor Directions: Unit outline, procedures and key questions	
Opening/Framing the Lesson/Introduction (10 minutes) *The intro exercise is designed to stimulate awareness of the reason for Malala's passion. Her passion gave her courage which served as a basis for action.	• Instruct students to stand up if they think all individuals should have access to a quality education. Ask the boys to sit down. Ask the remaining girl students to count off: 1, 2, 3. Ask the number ones to sit down. Students numbered two and three should remain standing. Reveal that the sitting students represent those that, in Pakistan, might have access to primary school education (all boys and approximately 1/3 of girls). Ask those standing how this feels (the fact that they would not have access to school). • Tell students this lesson digs deep into social aspects that might hinder a person's ability to be a leader. It will also ask them to dig into their courageous leader potential.
Social Aspects Influencing Leadership (15 minutes)	• Provide the Bronfenbrenner Ecological Model (BEM) handout (appendix E) and discuss the various levels of relationships. • Have students plot Malala's relationships on the handout based upon information learned. • Ask students to consider: Where the actors are located? What relationships are positive and which are negative? What relationships helped Malala attain the courage to be the leader

	she is? Why is using the BEM to plot out relationships helpful in evaluating Malala's story and her ability to lead? • Discuss the social aspects that hindered or helped the other actors in the case.
Does Gender and Culture Affect Leadership Styles? (40 minutes)	Watch Clinton's Women Conference Speech Malala was a Threat. • Ask students to choose a quote from her address and explain why it's particularly meaningful or memorable. Ask if it displays a social aspect affecting leadership theory. • How does this speech show Clinton displaying leadership in comparison to Malala's speeches? Can the BEM help explain some of the difference? Watch Yousafzai's speech My Daughter, Malala. • Ask students to choose a quote from his address and explain why it's particularly meaningful or memorable. Ask if it displays a social aspect affecting leadership theory. • How does this speech show Yousafzai displaying leadership in comparison to Clinton's speech or Malala's speeches? Can the BEM help explain some of the difference?
Becoming Courageous Leaders (15 minutes)	• Return students attention to the introductory activity and the BEM handout. Malala had a passion for going to school but was denied. She used her courage to fight for her rights. Along the way, many helped her but also social factors opposed her. • Ask students to reflect on a topic that they are passionate about and write this on the BEM handout's second side and create their own BEM regarding the issue that is important to them. • Ask that they consider: what actors might support or hinder them? What social factors might give them more or less status? How they can use the leadership theories to advance awareness about an issue that they deem important like Malala did? • Ask a few students to share.
Capstone Assignment (10 minutes)	To fully integrate the theories, students are charged with development of a three to four page reflection piece culminating their considerations on how, or if, they would employ the leadership theories learned in order to advance awareness about an issue that they deem important, using Malala's story as a referential point.

The Executive Class
A Leadership Learning Community for Entrepreneurs and Business-Minded Students

Stevie Blakely
Tarrant County College

Abstract

The Executive Class program was designed and implemented in 2013 at the Tarrant County College-Trinity River Campus, as a leadership learning community with an entrepreneurial focus. In this session, participants will receive an overview of this program and have the opportunity to join in discussion regarding the curriculum and data. The presenter will not only discuss the program as it stands, but also the history of the program from concept to design and improvements that have been made along the way. The hope is that participants will be able to use this innovative program as inspiration for developing entrepreneurial focused programming on their own campuses.

Introduction

Developing co-curricular leadership programs at the community college level can be difficult. It can be as much about marketing the program as the curriculum itself. The question to be asked is, "what do students need?" The development of the Executive Class program was a response to this question. Many of our students are not looking to go the traditional four-year University route. Instead they are focused on starting their own business; becoming their own boss. As many of our students enter the workforce, there are skills that they need, such as how to run effective meetings, the use of agendas/minutes, budgeting at a department level, understanding office politics, and more. I felt that these topics were not necessarily covered in the traditional academic classroom. This was a gap that I could easily fill. With a background of small business management, including a BA degree in Small Business Administration and a string of self-employment ventures, I felt that I had the unique knowledge to create a program for these students. This session will describe the Executive Class program in detail as well as share qualitative data on the impact the program has had on students.

Review of Related Scholarship

College mission statements often include the mention of leadership, civic engagement, the workforce, or service. In recent years, higher education has become more intentional and dedicated to the mission of training society's future leaders. There is a clear need to develop leaders during the college experience, whether through academic or co-curricular programming (A. W. Astin & Astin, 2000). At the community college level, there is a strong need to create programming the reaches students where they are, both in developmental level and career interest.

In 2013, the Gallup-Hope Index (2013) published a report regarding the entrepreneurial spirit of 1,009 5th-12th grade students in the U.S. The findings showed that students have an interest in owning their own business (42.1%), specifically nonwhite students. Despite their interest in

entrepreneurial ventures, students had limited exposure to workforce experience and small business knowledge. While many colleges now offer entrepreneurship courses/degrees as well as small business management programs, there are fewer programs at the community college level, and even fewer co-curricular programs (Center for Entrepreneurial Excellence, 2014). At the college level, academics focus and discuss how students can be better employees for organizations, however, it is rarely discussed how to manage yourself. Entrepreneurship education includes skill development such as out-of-the-box thinking, how to build organizations, networking, sales, and effective teamwork (Rideout & Gray, 2013).

The importance of leadership development, coupled with the need for students to develop workforce skills, served as the catalyst for the development of the Executive Class program. Research was conducted regarding small business management programs, entrepreneurship education programs, and necessary workforce skills to determine course topics and curriculum cornerstones. With previous research detailing the benefits of a learning community structure to encourage group experiences (A. W. Astin & Astin, 2000; H. S. Astin & Antonio, 2000; Dugan, 2011), it was decided to create a co-curricular learning community program. Alignment with the Council for Advancement of Standards assisted in the development of learning outcomes and class assignments.

Description of Program

The Executive Class program is a co-curricular leadership learning community. The class meets two hours per week for both fall and spring semesters. The program requires a one-year commitment from students. The first experience is a training day held right before the fall semester begins. At the training day, students are introduced to each other and the program. A significant amount of time is dedicated to students learning about each other, since these students will become their community for the next year. Ice breakers and team building activities are conducted throughout the morning. During a lunch break the students have the opportunity to meet the champions of the program including the Vice President for Student Development Services and the President of the Campus. This lunch is another chance for team bonding. In the afternoon, the students are given a detailed explanation of program requirements and expectations, as well as program benefits. The final part of the day is a closing activity where students commit to each other and the program.

The program then commences with the one meeting per week schedule when the semester begins in August. The students attend class every week where they have the opportunity to learn skills through lectures, group discussions, and interactive workshops. Many classes are led by guest speakers, who are community business leaders and give students insight into the business world. This also promotes the growth of the student's social/business network. Networking is a large focus of the program. Students receive business cards for the program that they can use when networking with business leaders. They have the opportunity to ask questions and receive personal mentorship from administrators on campus.

In addition to the weekly classes with reflective activities and assignments, the students are also required to complete two big projects. At the beginning of the year, the students are put into groups of 3 to 5 people, and charged with organizing a networking event for fellow students.

These networking events are focused on the areas of community non-profit organizations, business leaders, and university transfer opportunities. The goal for these events is for the Executive Class members to learn how to plan and host an event, work on a team, and give back to the campus community.

The second big assignment and capstone to this program is the presentation of an original business plan. The students are assigned to a team during the first few weeks of the fall semester and together, they are to create and develop an original business plan. This is a year-long project for the students, where they must work in a team towards a certain goal. In addition to the development and submission of the business plan, each team must prepare for a friendly competition that takes place at the end of May. Each group presents their plan in a 7 minute presentation to a panel of community business leaders. They are then asked questions based on the presentation and the plan. The panel at the end selects a winner. A small scale version of a no money shark tank!

See Appendix for full topic list and cornerstone handout.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Data collection takes place throughout the program year including quantitative and qualitative elements. There are 4 different evaluation/assessment pieces to the Executive Class program: Pre-test and Post-test, Qualitative Interviews, Focus Groups, and Program Evaluations. Over the last two years, students have found the program very impactful, which is evidenced in the data.

For the 2013-2014 Year, these are the pre-test and post-test scores self-reported by the students. These were Likert scale questions with a 1 being “expert” and a 4 being “no experience”.

Skill Area	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Public Speaking	2.4	2.2
Conflict Management	2.1	2.0
Event Planning	2.4	1.9
Budgeting	2.5	2.1
Group Dynamics	1.9	1.9
Goal Setting	2.2	1.5

Based on the table above there is slight growth for students in these skill areas during the academic year. However, with such a small number of students (12), statistical significance cannot be determined.

In a second set of Likert scale questions, with a 1 for strongly disagree and a 5 for strongly agree, the students self-reported scores are below. The data shows improvement in scores, however, no statistical significance can be determined based on the small sample.

Statement	Pre-Test	Post-Test
I have a personal leadership identity.	3.9	4.7

I have a personal vision/mission statement.	3.8	4.6
I feel confident in my ability to network and establish professional relationships.	3.4	4.1
I have a strong sense of self.	3.8	4.4
I am confident in branding/marketing myself and my ideas.	3.2	4.3
I feel comfortable talking to a large group of people.	3.6	4.3
I feel confident in my ability to have a one-on-one conversations.	4.2	4.5
I understand the various aspects of a business plan.	2.6	4.5
I feel confident in my ability to lead myself.	4.2	4.7
I feel confident in my ability to lead others.	3.9	4.7

The student voice is extremely important when collecting data. The following answers were given by the students when asked the question, what was the best part of this program?

* The Leadership Summits
* Meeting new people
* Networking
* Meeting Local Business Professionals
* The Business Plan
* The Start-Up Culture
* The growth of my confidence

This data shows that the students found value in the curriculum and activities focused around creating a business plan and focusing on networking and the entrepreneurial spirit. Recently, one of our students was given the opportunity to present his business plan to an investor with Merrill Lynch, who might be interested in financing his venture. This opportunity was a direct result of this student growing his network through the Executive Class program.

Reflections of the Practitioner

I have found this to be the crowning jewel in our leadership line-up. The ability to have a focused program for those students with an entrepreneurial spirit is a huge advantage, especially as a community college. These students are not only given the opportunity to learn leadership skills, but also are given the opportunity of networking with community business leaders. The students have the opportunity to experience numerous guest speakers as well as create networking events where numerous business leaders attend. These opportunities have been called “priceless” by the students. With a number of our students leaving the community college to go straight into the workforce, the students relish these experiences. Many have gained employment and internships through the relationships created during this program. I also have found that the co-curricular design of our programs works. While many schools have the options for an academic leadership curriculum, we do not and therefore we are battling to get students to give up their free time to attend these programs. However, I have been pleasantly surprised in the turnout for these co-curricular programs and think that more schools should try to develop these leadership learning communities to give intense and specific, real-world opportunities to our future leaders.

Recommendations

As leadership educators, we are always looking for new and innovative ways to reach our students. With diverse student populations, it is up to us to find creative ways to offer leadership development that fits within our student's time, availability, and future goals. The opportunity to create co-curricular learning communities allows for more institutions to impact more students. I specifically feel that at a community college level, it is imperative to find more ways to reach the students where they are at and offer them exciting and innovative programming. At some institutions, academic leadership is not an option, so creating co-curricular programming is the best way to get our students trained for the future.

The development of entrepreneurial education or business centered leadership allows educators to target a new population of students while creating a long-lasting network with the college and campus community. By bringing in community business leaders, the college has the opportunity not only to create dynamic learning for students, but also to show the community what the college has to offer. I feel that the development of this course, has encouraged the college and the community to work as partners to create the leaders of the future.

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APPENDIX A
EXECUTIVE CLASS LEADERSHIP CORNERSTONES

COMMUNICATION TOOLS (Microphone)

- Word choice/vocabulary
- Public Speaking
- Persuasive Speaking
- Non-verbal communication
- Business communication skills (agenda, meeting minutes, emails)
- Leading Meetings
- Business Etiquette
- ASK Training

BRANDING TOOLS (Branding Iron)

- Values and Mission
- Leadership Brand
- Projection vs. Perception
- Self-Reflection
- Image Management
- Interview Skills
- Personal Leadership Identity

COLLABORATION TOOLS (puzzle piece)

- Meeting Style
- Group Roles
- Leadership vs. Management
- Problem Solving
- Conflict Resolution
- Team Goal Setting
- Resource Management

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE TOOLS (mickey ears)

- Creating/Adapting Business Culture
- Business Planning
- Understanding business issues
- Becoming community leaders
- Self-Advocacy vs. Team Advocacy
- Circles of Influence

APPENDIX B

Date	**Weekly Leadership Workshop Topic**	**Presenter**
8/27/14	Leadership vs. Management	Stevie

9/3/14	Leadership Styles	Stevie
9/10/14	Office Skills 101	Tara Lawrence
9/17/14	Business Plan Overview	Cheryl Jones
9/24/14	Work Meeting	Everyone
10/1/14	Monthly Executive Meeting	Stevie
10/8/14	Networking and Webutation	Stevie
10/15/14	Professionalism and Business Etiquette	Jason Geesey
10/22/14	ASK Training	Mandy Melton
10/29/14	Monthly Executive Meeting	Stevie
11/5/14	Work Meeting	Everyone
11/12/14	Business Plan Specifics	Stevie
11/19/14	Linked In	Stevie
11/26/14	*Thanksgiving Break*	Everyone
12/3/14	Monthly Executive Meeting	Mike Reid
12/10/14	Future of Fort Worth	Andy Taft
1/21/15	Business Plan Market Analysis	Cheryl Jones
1/28/15	Business Plan Financing	Cheryl Jones
2/4/15	Executive Coaching	Sandi Mitchell
2/11/15	Business Law	Jeff Whitfield
2/18/15	Monthly Executive Meeting	At the BAC with Lucas
2/25/15	Focus Group	Stevie
3/4/15	Personal Leadership Identity Presentations	Executive Class
3/11/15	*Spring Break*	*Everyone*
3/18/15	Personal Leadership Identity Presentations	Executive Class
3/25/15	Monthly Executive Meeting	Stevie
4/1/15	Lean Training	Tentative
4/8/15	Lean Training	Tentative
4/15/15	Presenting Your Plan	Cheryl Jones
4/22/15	Monthly Executive Meeting	Stevie
4/29/15	Business Plan Presentations	Executive Class
5/6/15	Completion Ceremony	Everyone

APPENDIX C

Level Up In Leadership Development!

Tarrant County College®

Are you ready to take your leadership skills to the next level? The Executive Class focuses on learning how to lead in a corporate environment with business planning skills and an understanding of corporate culture. This program is focusing on engaging students with community members and leaders in effort to expand social networks and give students the opportunities to interact with professionals in a variety of fields.

Benefits:

- **Community & Industry Education Certificate (Executive Leadership Skills)**
- **Certificate of Completion**
- **Letters of Recommendation**
- **Leadership Portfolio**
- **Leadership Transcript**

Requirements:

- **Desire to become a business leader**
- **Interest in developing an executive leadership skillset**
- **Minimum GPA of 2.0**
- **Enroll in at least 3 credit hours on the Trinity River Campus (both fall and spring semesters)**
- **Ability to attend weekly workshops every Wednesday from 3pm-5pm (both fall and spring semesters)**

Applications Due: April 17th 2015

Link to Application: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/L8NF6NL

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The Courage to Lead the Next STEM Generation: A Strategic Planning Process for Monsanto's STEM Outreach Program

Robin Peiter Horstmeier
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Holly J. Butka
Monsanto Company

Abstract

This practice session showcases a strategic planning process conducted by Monsanto, a Fortune 500 company to evaluate and re-structure the existing Youth Science Outreach Program. A consultant utilized document analysis, personal interviews, and focus groups to examine the current program. Facilitators of this session will highlight the process, findings and recommendations. Best practices will be examined and participants will be engaged to think both broadly and critically with the goal of enhancing your leadership programs.

Introduction

America will need over 1 million more STEM professionals by 2018 than it is projected to produce at the current rate (Honeycutt, 2013). Furthermore, currently 60% of U.S. employers are challenged finding qualified workers to fill vacancies (STEM Education Coalition, n.d.). To address this issue the President of the United States announced interest in increasing the proficiency of the general population in science, technology, engineering and mathematics areas (The White House, 2009). From this point, a call for increased proficiency and leadership in STEM areas existed. Researchers argue that the key to a growing and stable economy lies in PK-12 education. Recently, both the *Common Core State Standards for Mathematics* (CCSSM) and the *Next Generation Science Standards* (NGSS) have called for more and deeper connections among the STEM subjects. The NGSS details practices and core disciplinary ideas from engineering along with those for science, raising the expectation that science teachers will be expected to teach science and engineering using integrated and innovative methods (National Academy of Engineering and National Research Council, 2014). Educators must prepare students through increasing students' skill levels for addressing challenges. A few of these challenges include requiring technical expertise while also demonstrating effective problem solving.

Growing STEM programs in schools is a priority of the National Science Foundation. NSF recommends that university faculty members include K-12 outreach as part of their broader impact statements when submitting a proposal. The National Science Foundation (NSF) also value increased interaction between experts and local school systems (Moskal & Skokan, 2011).

Bayes (2014) stated that a company possesses one of their greatest resources – their people, experts in their field. Monsanto, an agricultural science company with international headquarters in St. Louis, Missouri desires to give back to local communities through Science Outreach Programs. Employee volunteer's time and talents to mentor the next generation of scientists

within the K-12 school system and community outreach programs. The combination of company leadership increased value of science outreach, increased marketing efforts, and a stronger emphasis on STEM education in schools and community, led to higher program exposure and the demand for this company's outreach program exploding from 4, 719 youth reached in FY 2012 to 40,943 youth reached in FY 2014 (Monsanto Company Science Outreach Annual Report, 2015).

Due to a drastic increase in youth served in such a short time and duplication of company outreach efforts, many challenges existed due to the context of economic, social, and organizational realities. Leaders at Monsanto felt the need to examine the existing Science Outreach program. A leadership and educational consultant was hired to provide a comprehensive analysis of the current program and provide recommendations to address areas of economic, social and organizational impact of a growing outreach program.

Review of Related Scholarship

Demand for increased proficiency and leadership in STEM areas resulted as the President of the United States announced his interest in increasing the proficiency of the general population in STEM (The White House, 2009). Researchers argue that the key to a growing and stable economy lies in PK-12 education. Increased emphasis for increasing the skill level of PK-12 STEM experiences exists in the US educational system (Chedid, 2005). This responsibility falls on educators, as they must prepare students through increasing students' skill levels for addressing challenges. A few of these challenges include requiring technical expertise while also demonstrating effective problem solving. Increased interactional between experts and local schools systems are highly valued by NSF (Moskal & Skokan, 2011).

STEM throughout the Curriculum

Creating a meaningful curriculum for all STEM areas is critical. The Bayer Corporation (2012) stated that STEM department heads revealed improving the STEM curriculum is the single most important thing the US K-12 education system can do to better prepare all students to study STEM in college. This type of investment in STEM curriculum would have large returns for the next generation. In another study, Carr, Bennett and Strobel (2012) stated that more intentional inclusion of STEM skills into state standards would advance the educational value. The presence and extent of engineering standards were examined and engineering skills and knowledge were found in 41 states' standards. Most items rated as engineering were found in either science or technology and vocational standards (Carr, Bennett & Stobel, 2012). Furthermore, through collaboration with educators and industry professionals, the *Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS)* were released in 2013 (Next Generation Science Standards, 2015). Specifically, the NGSS raises the expectation that science teachers will teach science and engineering in an integrated fashion (National Academy of Engineering and National Research Council, 2014).

Benefits of STEM Outreach Programs

Economic grow and inflation has been directly tied to STEM education (Chedid, 2005). By investing in technology for sustainable, efficient, clean and economical energy could help avert

an economic crisis and encourage growth. Although somewhat obvious, student learning is a key benefit to STEM Outreach programs. Bagiati, Yoon, Evangelou, & Ngambeki (2010) found developing strong foudnations in mathematics and the sciences at earlier ages will allow students to experience STEM education at deeper levels sooner. In addition, the use of technology has been linked to youth empowerment and advocacy (Thackeray & Hunter, 2010). Skills such as technology are critical to building a successful next generation. In addition, the Afterschool Alliance (2011) found benefits of high quality STEM programs for Middle School Youth. These benefits included: 1) improved attitudes and enrollment in STEM fields and careers; thus also increased STEM knowledge, 2) higher tests scores and skills as compared to their non-STEM participating counterparts, and 3) a higher likelihood of graduating and pursuing a STEM career.

Youth leadership experiences result through STEM Outreach programs. Murphy and Johnson (2011) state leadership identity occurs before leadership development. Specifically, identities reflect a child's conception of his or her individual characteristics in relation to larger categories or social groups. Parental and other adult influences are critical in nurturing and developing a child's leadership ability, which enables the child to model the same nurturing for others as an adult (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Youth engaged programs benefit through the relationships established by volunteers. MacNeil (2006) framed leadership as a relational process combining ability (knowledge, skills, and talents) with authority (voice, influence, and decision-making power) to positively influence and impact diverse individuals, organizations and communities.

Company employee volunteers, who serve as experts and conduct STEM outreach, also greatly benefit from their involvement in the program. Providing expertise, mentoring others and leaving a legacy is important. The process of passing one's self through generations, creating continuity from the past through the present to the future, exemplifies the phenomenon of legacy (Hunter & Rowles, 2005). Furthermore, collaborative K–12 science outreach programs provide opportunities for scientists to engage in broader impacts by enhancing K–12 student achievement; professional development of scientists and teachers; public scientific literacy; and the missions of universities, school districts, and funding agencies (Komoroske, Hameed, Szoboszlai, Newsome, & Williams, 2015).

Framework

The Leadership Identity Development Model (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Maninella & Osteen, 2006) serves as the framework for this applied/scholarly, practitioner-oriented business strategic plan examining a STEM Outreach program. Monsanto's goal through the STEM Outreach Program is to provide opportunities for PK-12 youth; which also contributes to future generations. Through this work in STEM Outreach positive outcomes in students, teachers, educational administrators, and company's employee volunteers result. These outcomes result in an interconnected developing self and group influences. Specifically, a deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy, applying new skills, and expanding motivations occur. In addition, key participants develop self and group influences by engaging in groups, learning from membership continuity and changing perceptions of groups. The company's employee volunteers are developmental influences as they serve as mentors and meaning makers.

Purpose and Objectives

This scholarly and practitioner-oriented perspective describes a strategic planning process and outcomes, improving upon an existing Science Youth Outreach Program. Business leaders at Monsanto utilized a consultant to provide leadership and educational expertise to accomplish the following objectives.

1. To examine the current state of the Youth and Science Outreach Strategy.
2. Identify the various types of Youth and Science Outreach Initiatives offered
3. Identify [Company]'s Executive Leadership Team's expectations for the Youth and Science Outreach Strategy.
4. Seek perspectives of those engaged (school curriculum coordinators, teachers, administrators) as a participant of the Youth and Science Outreach initiatives.
5. Seek perspectives of employee volunteers in the Youth and Science Outreach initiatives.
6. Describe the current Youth and Science Outreach Initiatives by providing a summary report to the Global Consumer Engagement Lead.
7. Provide recommendations for future initiatives in building [Company]'s Youth and Science Outreach Strategy.

Description of the Practice

The Leadership and Education consultant engaged a variety of methods to gather information to determine the current "state of the Science Outreach Strategy". Specific methods incorporated included document analysis, personal interviews, and focus groups. **Document Analysis** examined the Science Outreach Engagement for the number and type of programs conducted. Documents were also analyzed to examine the cost verses impact regarding both the financial and time invested by the company and its employees. Printed documents highlighting and describing each Science Outreach Initiative offered; financial documents described and determined the cost verses impact of each program; and evaluations related to each Youth and Science Outreach initiative (from employee volunteers, school administrators, and school teachers, youth and company executive leadership team) were analyzed.

Personal interviews were conducted with a wide variety of audiences to seek depth examined the overall program in addition key Youth and Science Outreach Initiatives. These key audiences include key company leaders (i.e.: Executive Leadership Team, Global Consumer Engagement Lead; participants of each program (i.e. employees, program coordinator); and recipients of each program of each Youth Science Outreach Initiative (i.e. teachers, principals, students, and leaders of youth organizations). **Focus Groups** closely examined the thoughts, processes, and impact of each project. Each type of participant was grouped by type to gather important information and clarify key issues related to each Youth and Science Outreach Initiative. These focus groups provided further clarification and gained a deeper analysis of processes and viewpoints.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Document analysis was conducted to examine the number of hours employee volunteers participated in Science Outreach initiatives, the number of employee volunteers utilized, and the

number of events conducted in the overall Science Outreach program. Table 1 highlights the large growth in Monsanto's Science Outreach Program since the tracking system was implemented in FY2011.

Table 2 identifies the number of youth reached through Monsanto's Science Outreach Program. As the program has progressed from FY2012 to FY2015, the numbers have grown in school outreach, community outreach.

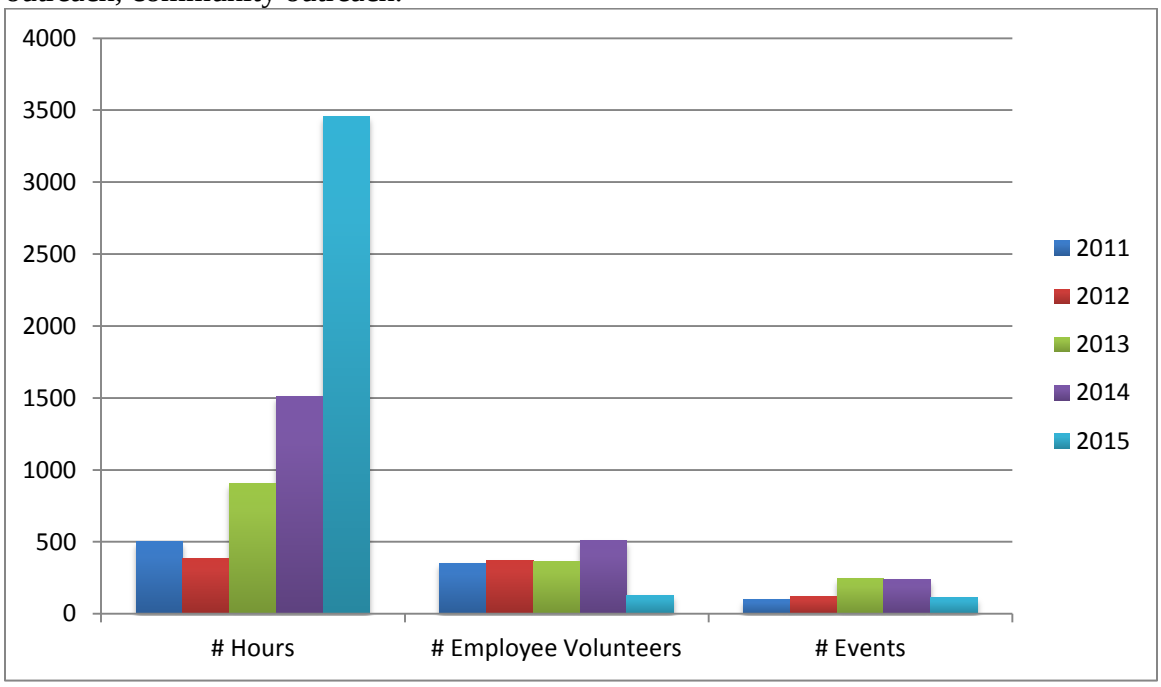

Table 1. Science Outreach Data for Company HQ Community - FY 2011–FY 2015

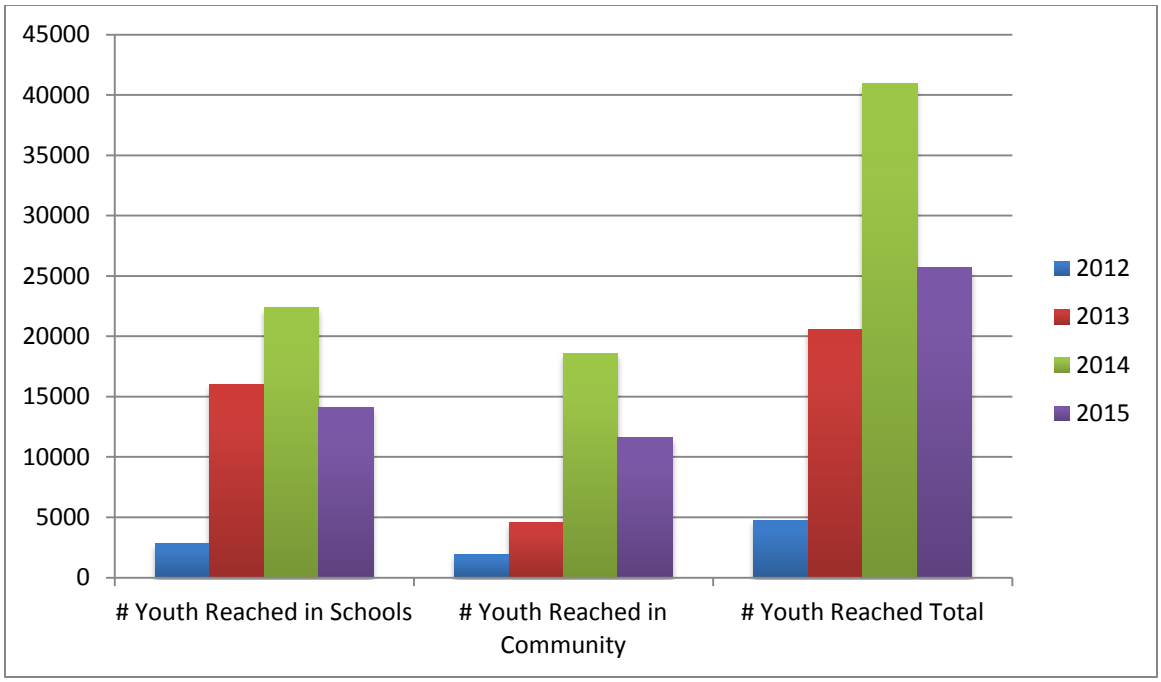

Table 2. Number of Youth Reached in Science Outreach for FY2012 - FY2015.

One of the objectives was to identify the current Science Outreach programs offered by Monsanto. The consultant conducted personal interviews with company employees and also analyzed company documents to determine the current program in existence: K-12 students, K-12 teachers, and community organizations. Numerous requests occur utilizing the company resources such as employee experts as speakers, hands-on science demonstrations, shadowing opportunities, serving on curriculum boards, providing consulting services, and participating with science fairs, career fairs, science nights, and company tours (See Appendix – Figure 1).

Interviews were held with company leaders to examine their thoughts, feelings and perceptions regarding the Science Outreach Program. An analysis of employee leader interview responses revealed six clear themes. Quotations supporting each theme are located in Appendix 1.

- Positive programs are underway.
- Enthusiasm and support for Monsanto's role in youth and science education is strong.
- Strategy is lacking and better collaboration, organization and communication is needed.
- Company is behind competition in Youth and Science Outreach.
- Inspire the next generation.
- Career relevance and future pipeline.
- STEM is needed, but it is beyond STEM Outreach

Reflections of the Practitioner

Through the examination of Monsanto's Science Outreach Program, much information was gained. The following conclusions and recommendations were provided:

1) The Science Outreach Program should be rebranded to include STEM Outreach with all aspects of STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) infused through all aspects of the outreach program.

2) The new rebranded STEM Outreach program should be enhanced to provide a specific focus to engage middle school youth. By providing a focus to middle school youth, activities in STEM outreach can be at a higher level, more meaningful and potentially spark interest in a career at this point in the student's career development. In addition by working with Middle-School teachers, the goal would be a sustainable outreach program. Elementary and High School students would also be included, if a company employee volunteer choses to participate (See Appendix – Figure 2).

3) Providing a quality STEM Professional Development to K-12 educators is a critical in moving the STEM Outreach program forward. Teachers, curriculum directors and administrators are hungry for quality professional development. It is recommended a partnership be established with company employees and educators. Through this partnership, experts in the industry (the employee volunteers) can share their experiences, knowledge and skills to the next generation (students). Likewise, educators and students provide motivation and satisfaction to the company employee volunteer.

4) With the re-structure to Middle-school Focus, company leadership must provide training to prepare employee volunteers for the outreach experience. Training topics may include STEM activities taught through the STEM kits, teaching methods, age-appropriate developmental topics, and mentoring and leadership training.

5) It is recommended to continue to be a major partner in the STEM outreach community in the company headquarters community. Great strides and much has already been accomplished with other companies and private foundations have been established for this important work (See Appendix – Figure 2).

6) An important element to the future of STEM Outreach is the ability to expand beyond the company's corporate headquarters' community. It is recommended that production facility sites establish a STEM Outreach program. Through this network, employee volunteers will grow the program across the US. After this step is accomplished, the next goal is to expand the STEM Outreach Program to the Global sites across the World (See Appendix - Figure 3).

7) Lastly, it is recommended a Youth and STEM Outreach Leadership Advisory Council be established. Through the personal interviews it was uncovered that often because the company is so large and the program grew so fast, the communication channels needed to be improved. It is recommended that the Leadership Advisory Council meet to discuss important issues facing STEM Outreach, new programs that may arise, and other topics to advance the STEM Outreach Program. The Leadership Advisory Council would be comprised of key company leaders from across the business (See Appendix – Figure 4).

Recommendations

Future research should be conducted to evaluate impact of Monsanto's STEM Outreach program. Using The Leadership Identity Development Model as a framework, participant outcomes in the STEM Outreach (including both school and community programs) should be evaluated. Factors such as youth's change in knowledge, skills and viewpoints on STEM specific areas and also the leadership experiences through participation in this STEM Outreach program. In addition, company's employee volunteers' knowledge, skills and viewpoints should be examined as a result of their participation serving as teachers, mentors and leaders. Change in leadership perspectives and style would be examined.

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Appendix

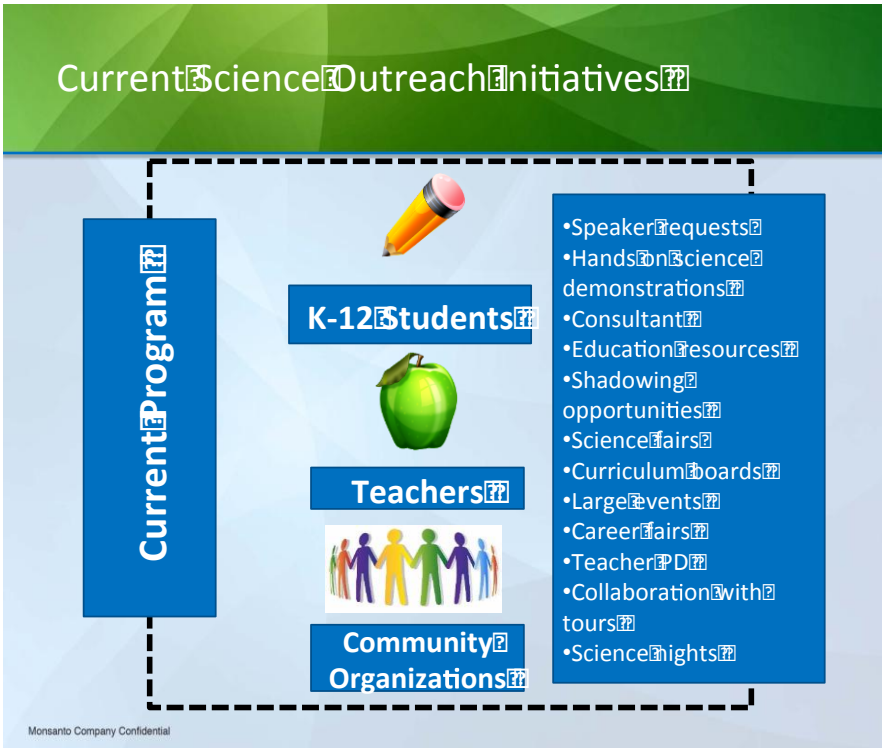

Figure 1. Current Science Outreach Initiatives Offered

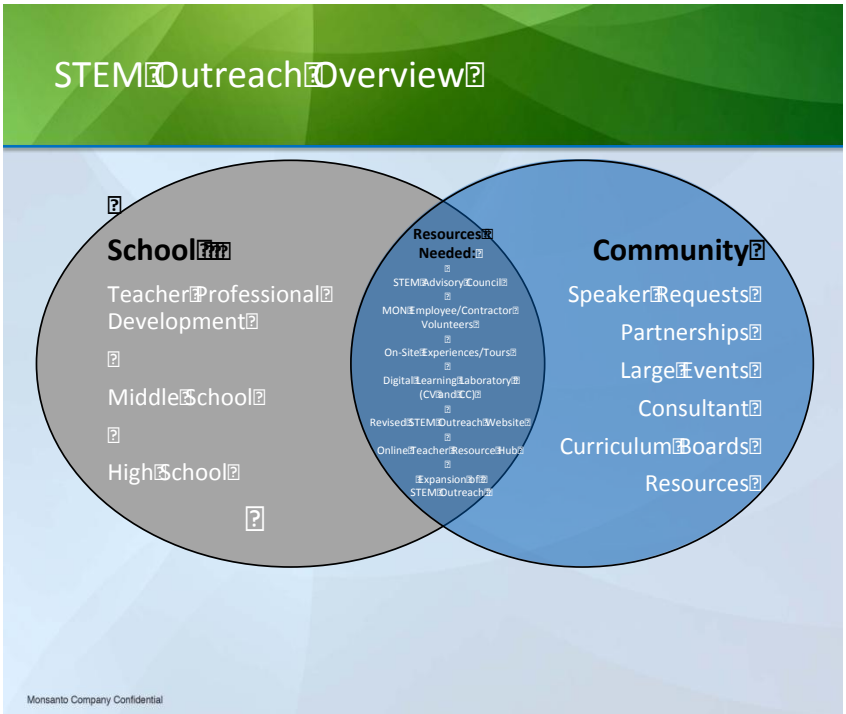

Figure 2. Proposed STEM Outreach Overview

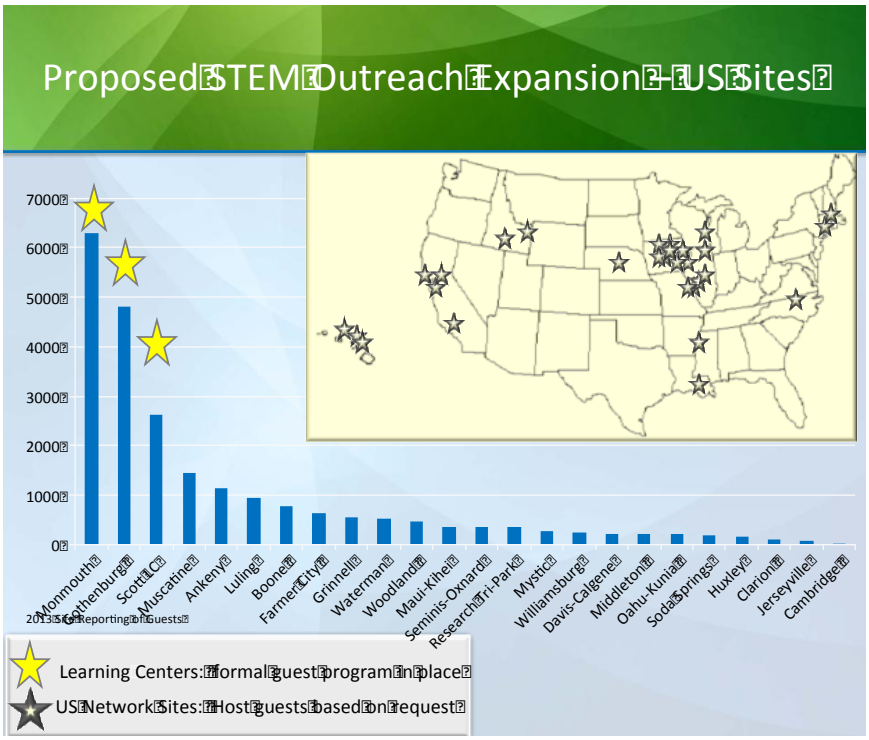

Figure 3. Proposed Expansion Sites for STEM Outreach

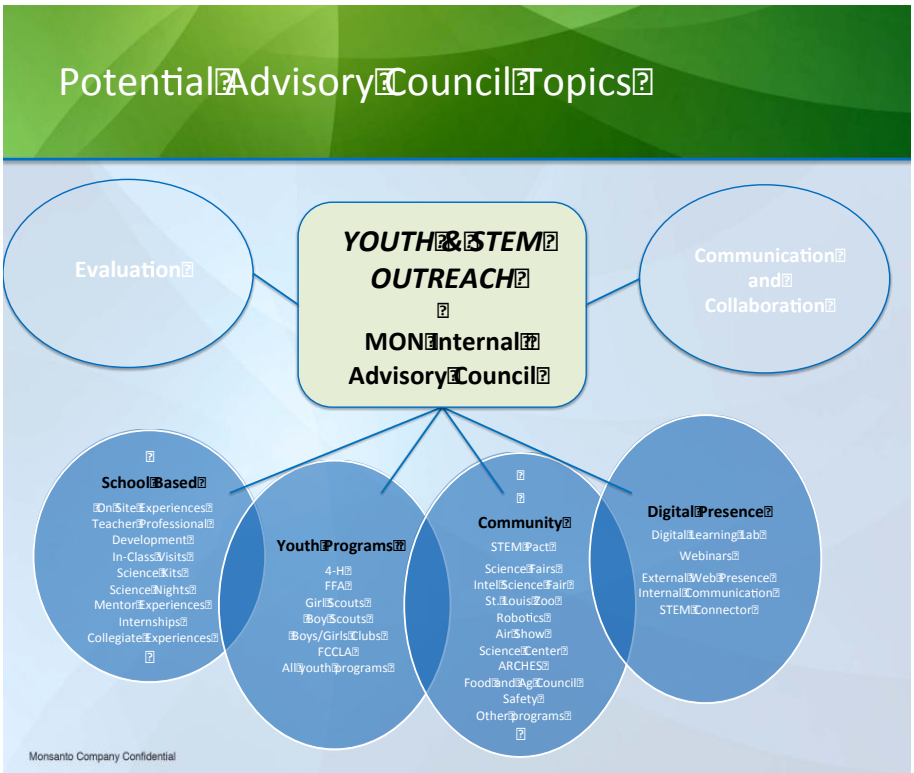

Figure 4. Outreach Leadership Council

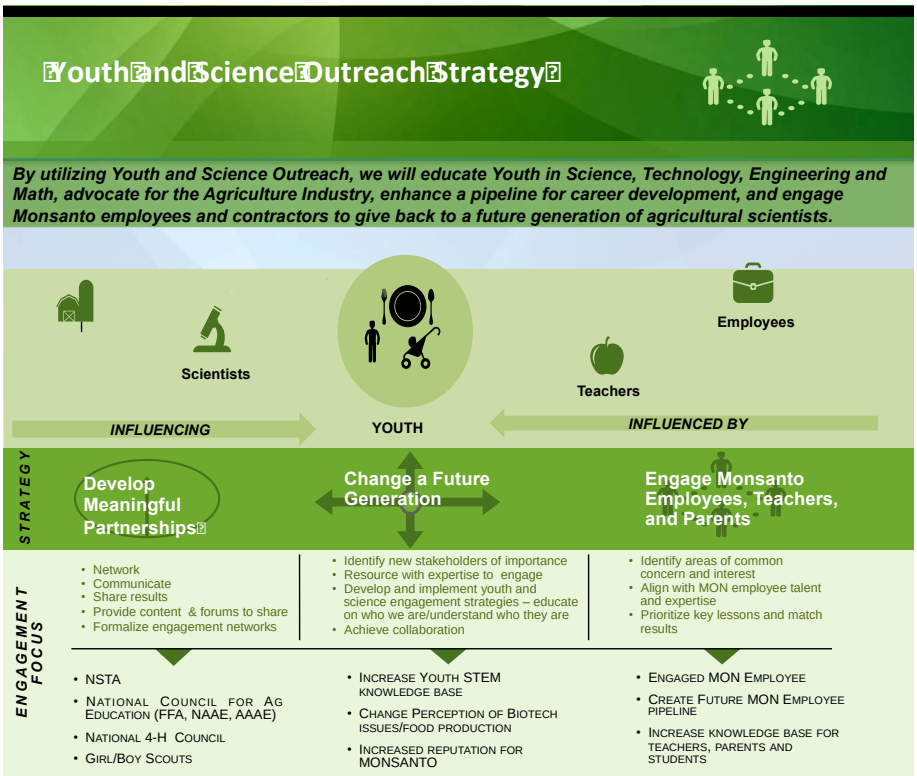

Figure 5. STEM Outreach Strategy Summary

Learning Leadership by Teaching it Cross-culturally: Lessons from Haiti

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Introduction

In meeting the challenges of a complex and interdependent world, the field of leadership education needs a movement of thoughtfully implemented transformational pedagogies to develop global citizens and responsible leaders (Andenoro et. al., 2013; Owen, 2015). One such promising pedagogy has been international service-learning (ISL): an academic course that involves a short-term immersion experience in a developing country where students serve, apply, and reflect on course content. ISL is a powerful way to prepare engaged citizens and leaders because it links theory and practice in a context where responsible citizenship is essential, it reflectively engages higher-order thinking with experiences, and exposing students to a different culture in transformational ways (Brown, 2010; Plater et. al, 2009). ISL is potentially influential in promoting values-based and non-hierarchical models such as the Social Change Model of leadership and servant leadership. These models promote capacity-building, mutual learning, and responsible approaches to global citizenship (Andenoro et. al., 2013; Andenoro & Bletscher, 2012; Aycan, 2006). Leadership educators need a deeper understanding of how innovative practices within international service-learning interact with these models and draw implications for leadership development.

Review of Related Scholarship

The International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership (IPSL) has articulated among the primary learning outcomes of service-learning leadership skills in collaboration, examination of beliefs and values, and civic responsibility (Brown, 2005). Among the postindustrial leadership frameworks the Social Change Model of Leadership Development incorporates these areas together in a meaningful way. The values in the model are: Consciousness of Self (self-identity and awareness of values and strengths), Congruence (alignment of values and actions in building trust), Commitment (one's passions that drive responsibility and contribution), Collaboration (sharing responsibility, authority, accountability), Controversy with civility (thoughtful dialogue about differences), Common purpose (shared desires, hopes and goals of a group), and Citizenship (working for positive change on behalf of others). Change is the central "hub" of relationships in the model (HERI, 1996; Komives, Wagner and Associates, 2009).

Recent studies have substantiated the link between involvement in community service and socially responsible leadership in college (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, 2006, Thompson, 2006, Astin & Astin, 2000). Some have found a relationship between service and particular values in the model, such as citizenship and collaboration (Dugan and Komives, 2007), and the aforementioned plus common purpose (Soria, Nobbe, & Fink, 2013). Other studies have examined intervening variables that promote socially responsible leadership. Dugan and Komives (2010) found that peer conversations about topics like personal values and multicultural concerns, as well as self-efficacy for leadership, contributed to socially responsible leadership.

Some studies have provided evidence that ISL offers added value for deep learning. Niehaus and Crain (2013) found that participants in international compared to domestic short term service experiences reported more interaction with community, more reflection, more emotionally challenging experiences, and more learning about social issues. A few studies have focused on the particular outcomes of ISL. Keily (2004) found that social justice ISL projects impacted student sense of empowerment in lifestyle changes, and shifts in moral, and cultural and political worldview. Keily (2005) developed a model of "transformative learning" based on Merizow (2000) which includes the dimensions of contextual border-crossing (personal, historical, programmatic factors that frame experience), dissonance (incongruence between frame of reference and context), personalizing (responding to dissonance), processing (reflective and dialogic learning processes) and connecting (affective development through relationships). Using Keily's model, Jones et. al. (2012) found that short-term immersion trips helped students personalize social issues, examine their privilege, dispel stereotypes, interrogate their experiences at home, and reframe their sense of purpose upon return.

International service-learning as a practice does not always mean transformation and deep learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Arthur, 2001; Tonkin & Quiroga, 2004). Critical self-reflection as a process of metacognition is consistently demonstrated as a key component of transformational learning (Brown, 2010; Densten & Gray, 2001; Arthur, 2001; Whitney and Clayton, 2010), and Dugan (2006) postulated that critical reflection may contribute to developmental gains in socially responsible leadership. Faculty play a vital role in facilitating these experiences. Key factors for learning in preparation for ISL include: active participation between students and community decision-makers (Huerta, 2006), self-assessment, building community among the service team, and anticipatory strategies of cultural immersion (Keily, 2005; Grusky 2000). Programs that support reciprocity, cultural competence, and "accompaniment" support mutually beneficial relationships with the host community (Andenoro & Bletscher, 2012). These approaches challenge radical individualism, narcissism, and ethnocentrism among American college students (Monard-Weissman, 2003). There is now a great need to discover how specific approaches and projects impact student development of leadership abilities.

Research questions

The purpose of this study is to explore an innovative leadership practice of designing and implementing a two day leadership conference in Haiti. The primary research questions are:

- To what extent does preparing and delivering a leadership conference in another culture influence student development of socially responsible leadership?
- How do students articulate their leadership growth and learning as a result of preparing and delivering a leadership conference?

Description of the Practice

In 2014, Cumberland University in Tennessee began a partnership with Many Hands for Haiti (MH4H) which works in Pignon, Haiti. In Spring 2015, 16 Cumberland University students and 5 faculty and staff members participated in an new upper-level undergraduate course called Leadership Academy Service Initiative. The course included seven three hour sessions leading

up to a week-long trip to Haiti over Spring Break. The learning outcomes of the course included designing and facilitating a culturally sensitive leadership session, distinguishing between a relief and development approach to poverty, and assessing growth in terms of socially responsible leadership. In addition to readings, assignments included a research paper, service reflection paper, group project, and post-trip reflection paper. The course was taught by a leadership professor, with anthropology and history professors, and included discussions about the concepts of paternalism and ethnocentrism. Students were placed into four groups to develop topics for the leadership conference and built their topics by becoming familiar with the Social Change and Servant Leadership models; having a Skype conversation with MH4H staff in Haiti; getting feedback on topics from MH4H staff as well as faculty and students from the group; and participating in a servant leadership training that modeled participatory learning and was led by two international NGO leaders. Students also participated in a poverty immersion and service day in an economically depressed area north of Nashville.

In Haiti the first two days, the group became immersed in the local culture by attending an church service, going to a local market, helping with a cement floor project, and planting gardens with local families. Each night after dinner the group gathered for a faculty-led reflection session. The leadership conference was held in a local church building in Pignon. Haitian participants were selected by an invitation process by local community leaders. MH4H hired a team of translators since the conference participants spoke very little English. The overall structure included an introduction and opening session, morning session, lunch, and afternoon session on the first day; and morning session, lunch, afternoon session, and closing session on the second day. Session topics were: integrity and trust, teamwork, promoting a shared vision of liberty and equality, and managing conflict. The conference opened with a short presentation of concept of servant leadership through the example of Jesus of Nazareth washing his disciples' feet, followed by the students and faculty washing Haitian participants' feet. Each of the student sessions were led completely by the students and included experiential activities, small group discussions, games, and participant presentations. The conference ended with a closing session inviting participants to wash each other's feet. The translators facilitated a final opportunity for participants share what they learned.

Method and Participants

Due to the small sample at a single institution and the focus on an innovative practice, a qualitative case study approach was employed. As a baseline for the interviews, students took the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS)-R2 before and after the course. Qualitative data was gathered through post-trip student reflection papers, group reflection sessions, and individual structured interviews with the researcher after the trip. All data was obtained and utilized through informed consent of the participants. The student participants were 3 freshmen, 2 sophomores, 4 juniors, 6 seniors, and 1 graduate student. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 28. The racial diversity of the group included 5 African American, 10 Caucasian and 1 Haitian student. Besides the Haitian student, all but 4 students had never before travelled overseas.

Discussion of Results

Although the SRLS-R2 showed modest gains in the areas of consciousness of self, common purpose, and change; the qualitative results gave these areas a more pronounced depth. For the first research question about the impact on socially responsible leadership, the two most salient values that emerged from interviews and reflections were consciousness of self and common purpose. Each of the other values of the model was apparent, but seemed to stem from these two organizing values. For all but four participants this cross-cultural encounter was their first in a foreign country. Students described the receptivity and lack of judgmental attitude of the Haitian culture as a factor that was the greatest contribution to them opening up to the experience. One student said what many implied, "I've never felt more myself, like just in my own skin, comfortable with myself."
The leadership conference facilitated a new self-understanding in terms of participants own habits and personal leadership styles. As a senior student noted, "I help others. I never do anything for myself …I like being in charge, I like being in control . . . In Haiti they take time to just sit and to be, to sit and to learn like at our leadership conference. And I never really realized that that's okay to do." Another student realized his tendency to want to push his idea forward and give up easily when others don't agree. Participants consistently interrogated the American culture push for achievement, control, and efficiency and Haitian culture presented a spiritually significant alternative to them as they came to appreciate the equanimity—finding meaning and peace in times of hardship—in the lives of Haitians.

Common purpose was built by both a spiritual connection and confronting paternalism. The cultural context of Haiti is highly spiritual. Each of the groups decided to incorporate lessons from the Bible in conference sessions to make a connection with their audience. As they described the leadership conference students would use phrases like "I felt God's power." One student remembered, "God was with us, I felt his power and I know he is always beside me and this way I feel that I turned into a leader during my week stay in Haiti." The lesson on paternalism in the trip preparation was the most impactful for the trip. Students observed the disconnect with common purpose that paternalism could cause. A freshman female student reflected, "A lot of the times we assume that all cultures function the same way as our culture does, and whenever we see that they don't, we get that paternalistic feeling to fix them. . . One statement that stuck in my mind that [the professor] stated was 'be a partner not a parent'". This helped her become more culturally aware while in Haiti. Another way that participants reflected common purpose was in identifying common needs and struggles between Haitian and American culture. In a conference session, one group decided to use themselves and their own struggle as an example to trying to find common purpose and resolve conflict.

There was no more powerfully symbolic representation of the rejection of paternalism than beginning and ending the conference by washing feet. A student described the emotional experience: "When I kneeled down to wash that first lady's feet, I looked up at her and saw tears in her eyes and she looked at me and said "Merci." At that moment I knew that this was much bigger than just washing feet. This was making connections; this was building relationships; this was showing these people that we are not better than they are, and that we are all equal." Students grasped how central the principle of equality and humility is to having common purpose.

The second research question concerned how students articulated leadership growth. The key themes were growth in self-efficacy for leadership, building a powerful bond with the group, and being in a position of receiving the "gifts" of the Haitian people. From preparation to implementation, the students underwent a personal process of appreciating their own knowledge, abilities, and the power of the leadership concepts for transforming a community. A student described the progression, "The first couple days your like 'oh yeah I'm a leader' and then the third day you're like, 'am I really a leader?' and then when you do your leadership conference you're like, 'I'm a leader and I know what I need to do' and you may not have everything worked out but you're more bold in your standing." A second important theme of growth was the deepened relationship amongst the group. Students described this growth as learning to "open up" and trust others. A student reflected, "I think we can all agree that there was a shift in the general relationships between group members from 'classmates or peers' to 'friends, supporters, companions.'" This was an important groundwork for effective collaboration. The third growth theme was embracing the Haitian people, which helped break down stereotypes. As one student expressed it, "I was so caught up on what I thought originally, that I failed to notice the greatness and fun that lives within their culture." Students formed a greater appreciation and mutual learning between themselves and Haitians.

Practitioner reflections

The findings suggest that preparing and implementing a leadership program has a powerful impact on socially responsible leadership growth and learning. This has resonance in Dugan's (2006) suggestion that interweaving leadership and service involvement could dramatically increase learning. The Haitian culture, space for critical self-reflection afforded by a setting in a developing country, and the student immersive experience combined in furthering student self-efficacy in leadership, consciousness of self, and common purpose. Each of the elements of Keily's (2005) model of transformational learning were evident in student reflections. Dissonance—incongruence between students previous frame of reference and the context of service—was especially pronounced for most of the group who were out of the country for the first time. Students contrasted and interrogated U.S. culture compared to Haitian culture, but also saw the same needs and issues between the two cultures.

One somewhat surprising outcome of the experience, in the degree it manifested itself, was spirituality. Astin, Astin, and Lindholm (2011) found that domestic service-learning as well as study abroad enhanced several aspects of spirituality in college students, but did not examine international service-learning. Gehrke (2008) found a link between spirituality and the value of consciousness of self. Students seemed to use cultural myths to challenge themselves spiritually during the trip. Students used phrases like "they are so unselfish" or "they are a unified people" partly to express a desire in themselves for transformation. According to Jarnagin & Slocum (2007), myths reflect and direct the human psyche. Often these comments were the most emotional and genuine.

Some aspects of sustainability were present in the plans to follow up from the leadership conference in the community and continue the partnership (Andenoro & Bletscher, 2012). The depth of the experience for students in just five full days in Haiti exceeded the author's expectations of its potential. In large part, it speaks to the importance of the environment for learning and reflection. The students were able to give something beyond charity or relief, and the people there gave the students something far beyond anything they expected.

Recommendations

The following are recommendations essential to the success of this innovative practice, for those desiring to adopt this innovative practice for leadership education.

1. Develop a solid partnership with a host organization that has a history of positive experience, has a capacity-building approach, and staff from the host country.
2. Use a leadership model that students can practice and use to interpret their experience with each other and with another culture. Allow student groups to select their own topics and work out how they will coordinate and synthesize the topics together, providing feedback from community partners and faculty/staff.
3. Provide plenty of opportunities for formal and informal reflection and feedback. Select faculty and staff to go who embrace mentoring and who can informally "check in" with students as they are processing their experience and help with processing U.S. re-entry.
4. Prepare students for the experience historically and culturally with an emphasis on the problem of paternalism of the U.S. toward developing countries.
5. Encourage student spiritual growth as an outcome of international service learning. Include in reflection sessions the spiritual connections and/or struggles of students.
6. Give students two days of relationship and reciprocity-building with the local community before the leadership conference. It is important for students to incorporate their cultural learning into leadership sessions.
7. In the leadership conference, use a symbolic practice (such as washing feet) to set the tone and approach of the time together.

The partner organization, Many Hands for Haiti, now plans to build a consortium of colleges and universities who are willing to deliver leadership conferences in Pignon and surrounding communities, which speaks for the success of this practice. Perhaps there is a model in the making.

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Appendix A
Course and Trip Schedule and Assignment Due Dates

PREPARATION CLASS SESSIONS

[**KEY:** *The Big Truck* = Our textbook *The Big Truck That Went By*, by Jonathan Katz
Guide Reading = Readings at the end of this Guide For Preparing to Serve in Haiti]

1. Friday, January 16th: Their Story, Our Mission
   - Bring laptop to class for SRL assessment

2. Friday, January 23rd: Socially Responsible Servant Leadership
   - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Prologue and chapters 1 & 2
   - Guide Reading: "An Overview of the Social Change Model of Leadership" (Komives et al, 2009), and "Confession #121: Where Are the Men?" (Kittrell, 2015)
   - Come with questions for MH4H Staff

3. Friday, January 30th : Introduction to Haitian History and Culture
   - **DUE: Group topics for leadership conference**
   - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Chapters 3 & 4
   - Guide Reading: "The Servant as Leader" (Greenleaf, 1977); "Fear-Power Cultures" (Georges, 2014); "Prologue" and "Introduction" From Taking Haiti: Military Occupation, and the Culture of U.S. Imperialism: 1915-1940 (Renda, 2001).
   - Special guest instructors, Dr. Natalie Inman on Haitian History and Dr. Fred Heifner on Servant Leadership and Culture

4. Friday, February 6th: Trip to Blood: Water Mission in Nashville ("Participatory Learning")
   - **DUE: Mini Research Paper**
   - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Chapters 5 & 6

- Hosting us are Jena Nardella, co-founder of Blood: Water Mission and author of One Thousand Wells (release date Aug. 15, 2015), and James Nardella, Executive Director of Lwala Community Alliance in Kenya.
- The purpose of this trip is to learn from two international leaders who have worked and trained leaders cross-culturally; and understand better how to deliver a leadership conference in another culture that honors that culture and empowers participants.
- Arrive at Learning Commons at 8:45 a.m. for departure in vans

5. Friday, February 13th: Service Project in Lexington Gardens (Madison, TN)
    - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Chapters 7 & 8
    - Guide Reading: "What's the Problem?" from When Helping Hurts (Corbett & Fikkert, 2009)
    - The purpose of this service project is to work as a team in an impoverished neighborhood and to understand how to "help without hurting" poor communities and ourselves.
    - Leave campus by 8:30am- Return by 1pm

6. Friday, February 20th: Cultural Sensitivity
    - **Due: Servant Leadership Reflection paper**
    - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Chapters 9 & 10
    - Guide Reading: Excepts from "Not all Poverty is Created Equal" and "Doing Short Term Missions Without Doing Long-term Harm" from When Helping Hurts (Corbett & Fikkert, 2009); "Race, Revolution, and National Identity" and "Conclusion" from Taking Haiti (Renda, 2001).
    - Guest Presentation by Dr. Inman on "How US intervention in Haiti has Shaped the Need for Careful Cultural Sensitivity"

7. Friday, February 27th: Group Presentations for Leadership Conference & Clean Water
    - **DUE: Group Lesson Plan for Leadership Conference**
    - Textbook Reading: *The Big Truck*, Chapters 11 & 12
    - 4 Groups Present/facilitate their aspect of leadership conference
    - Guest Presentation by Kim Atwood on the Biology of Clean (and dirty) Water

The TRIP TO HAITI

Friday, March 6th: No Class Meeting, Finish Packing and Leave for Haiti!

- Leave campus at 3:00p.m.
- Nashville International Airport- 5:20pm American Eagle flight
- Arrive Miami airport 8:34pm
- Stay at Hotel in Miami

Saturday, March 7th at 9:50 a.m. American Airlines Miami to Cap Haitian, Haiti

- 11:50a.m. arrive in Cap Haitian
- Drive to Pignon about 4 hours

- Walk around city during Market Day
- Orientation

Sunday, March 8th Church/culture/ preparation

- Optional church attendance
- Visit orphanage and possibly hospital in late afternoon
- Final planning for leadership conference
- Prep chorine and bottles for clean water project

Monday, March 9th Workday

- Morning: split into 2 teams, one with cement floor project and other with garden/home project
- Visit local school
- Time visiting villages

Tuesday, March 10th Leadership Conference/Clean Water Project

- Split into 4 different groups (each group will develop a session teaching and help others practice a leadership principle):
    - Morning: Groups 1 & 4 lead leadership conference sessions; Groups 2 & 3 do clean water system training in the village / Thrive for 5
    - Afternoon: Groups 2 & 3 lead leadership conference sessions; Groups 1 & 4 do clean water system training in the village.

Wednesday, March 11th Leadership Conference/Clean Water Project

- Split into 4 different groups (each group will develop a session teaching and help others practice a leadership principle):
    - Morning: Groups 3 & 2 lead leadership conference sessions; Groups 1 & 4 do clean water system training in the village / Thrive for 5
    - Afternoon: Groups 4 & 1 lead leadership conference sessions; Groups 2 & 3 do clean water system training in the village.

Thursday, March 12th Travel for Cultural/Historical day in Cap Haitian

- Travel to Citadel in Cap Haitian
- Late afternoon on beach
- Stay in Cap Haitian "resort" next to beach

Friday, March 13th Travel day back to Nashville

- 12 noon arrive at Cap Haitian airport
- 2:00 p.m. American Airlines flight to Miami (3:59p.m. arrival)
- 9:35 p.m. flight to Nashville (arrive at 10:54 p.m.)

<u>AFTER TRIP DEBREIFING GATHERINGS</u>

1. **Friday, March 27th Group Gathering for trip debriefing (9-11am)**
    - **DUE: Haiti Trip Reflection Paper**

- Sharing reflection papers and learning

2. **Friday, April 17th at 6:00p.m.: Group dinner in Nashville**

Using Film to Teach Authentic Leadership

Meagan Scott & Penny P. Weeks
Oklahoma State University

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to explore the use of the film, *Iron Jawed Angels*, in a personal leadership development course at Oklahoma State University as a tool to help students synthesize course concepts. The film facilitates the lesson as students critique, identify, and analyze Alice Paul's leadership.

Introduction

Developing authenticity, or being true to the self, is the first step toward becoming an authentic leader. Self-awareness, self-acceptance, and authentic actions and relationships all play a role in the movement toward authenticity (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). The effectiveness of participative, achievement-oriented, transactional, supportive, and other forms of leadership are likely enhanced when a leader's actions are genuine and focused on the development of the self and others. Heightened levels of self-awareness are required for authentic leadership, leading to authentic leaders knowing where they stand on important issues, values, and beliefs (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

As part of an undergraduate leadership program at Oklahoma State University, students have the opportunity to enroll in a personal leadership development course (Pennington & Weeks, 2006). The personal leadership development course is designed to teach authentic leadership development, a key component for collegiate-level leadership programs. Self-exploration, understanding one's true self, and recognizing one's values are all components of authentic leadership development. Enhancing self-awareness through an exploration of personal values and then aligning behaviors with identified values are the intent of the course (Pennington, 2006). The use of films is one of the many delivery methods employed in the course to help students move toward authenticity. The purpose of this innovative practice session is to explore the use of *Iron Jawed Angels* in the last weeks of the semester as a tool to help students synthesize what they have learned throughout the course.

Review of Related Scholarship

Teaching leadership at the collegiate level poses a challenge for many leadership educators because it involves explaining abstract concepts and theories to students (Halpern, 2000; Williams & McClure, 2010), making it even more important to explore new, innovative teaching methods to convey course content (Williams & McClure, 2010). Class discussions, projects and presentations, self-assessments and instruments, critical reflections, media clips, and other signature pedagogies are used in the leadership classroom to help students become self-aware and develop as leaders (Jenkins, 2012). In fact, research points to the success of integrating 229popular culture artifacts, such as movies and television clips, into leadership education. They are not only easily obtained and widely recognized, but they are also readily understood,

allowing students to relate to and identify with characters and trends as they process leadership concepts (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Callahan, Whitener, & Sandlin, 2007).

Using films in the classroom is a good approach when teaching today's Net Generation of students who are digitally minded, because it appeals to their multiple intelligences and learning styles, resulting in increased student success (Berk, 2009). In fact, research points to a relationship between the media and the intelligence of students (Gardner, 2000; Veenema & Gardner, 1996). Additionally, Lavelle (1992) identified three reasons supporting the use of films in college classrooms: a) viewing films stimulates student interest to research and read about a subject more, b) films trigger class discussions, and c) they make abstract concepts more concrete and convincing. Films capture the attention of students, helping to outline issues. However, they are not a substitute for scholarly work, but they can frame questions for those sources to answer (Harper & Rogers, 1999).

The successful use of films in the leadership classroom is supported by several research studies (Callahan & Rosser, 2007; Callahan et al., 2007; Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004; Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann, 2003; Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012). Students are able to learn from characters in media clips, making a connection with real-life events as they think about how they would act in similar situations (Wimmer et al., 2012). Additionally, films in the leadership classroom can be used to teach leadership lessons through situations that may be difficult to replicate in real-life (Wimmer et al., 2012). Movies also stimulate emotional intelligence development among leaders, as they allow students to construct personal meaning as they move toward authenticity (Graham et al., 2004).

Description of the Practice

The final lesson of the personal leadership development course at Oklahoma State University requires students to synthesize the concepts learned about authentic leadership throughout the semester. The film, *Iron Jawed Angels*, facilitates this lesson, as students are asked to apply what they have learned to the characters in the film. Using films in the classroom should be driven by specific objectives related to teaching and learning, linking them to the course curriculum (Duhaney, 2000). Three objectives guide the final course lesson:

1. Critique Alice Paul's leadership as it relates to the components of the Discovering Leadership Framework (King, Altman, & Lee, 2011) by creating a Discovering Leadership Framework for Alice Paul.
2. Identify key film scenes, quotes, and characters, applying them to course concepts by composing short essay responses to specific questions as they relate to Alice Paul.
3. Analyze Alice Paul's leadership as it relates to authentic leadership development by composing short essay responses to specific questions about Alice Paul's leadership.

Four class meetings are designated for the final lesson. Components of the lesson include: viewing the film with guided note-taking and assignment of Discovering Leadership Framework homework (Days 1 and 2), class discussion over Alice Paul's Discovering Leadership Framework assignment (Day 3), class discussion over Alice Paul as an authentic leader and essays assignment (Day 4).

Viewing the Film (Days 1 and 2) The first two class meetings are reserved for viewing *Iron Jawed Angels.* The film is relatively new, as it was released in 2004 and features names such as Hilary Swank, Anjelica Houston, and Patrick Dempsey, all actors familiar to the majority of undergraduate students. *Iron Jawed Angels* follows the story of Alice Paul and Lucy Burns as they advocate for women's rights in the early 1900s.

Before beginning the film, students are instructed to take notes about Alice Paul's leadership as it relates to the components of the Discovering Leadership Framework. They are encouraged to note specific scenes and quotes to support their analysis of Alice Paul's leadership. After viewing the film, the students are asked to complete the first assignment for homework, a Framework for Alice Paul. The following instructions are provided:

Draw and complete the Discovering Leadership Framework for Alice Paul based upon what you observed during the movie. An example of a completed model can be found on page 150 of *Discovering the Leader in You.* Make sure you include **all** components of the model including what you think the character's purpose (center of the model) and impact and legacy will be/was.

Alice Paul's Discovering Leadership Framework (Day 3) During the third class meeting, the instructor facilitates a class discussion about Alice Paul's Framework and the film in general. The discussion helps the students synthesize and apply course concepts to an observed leader.

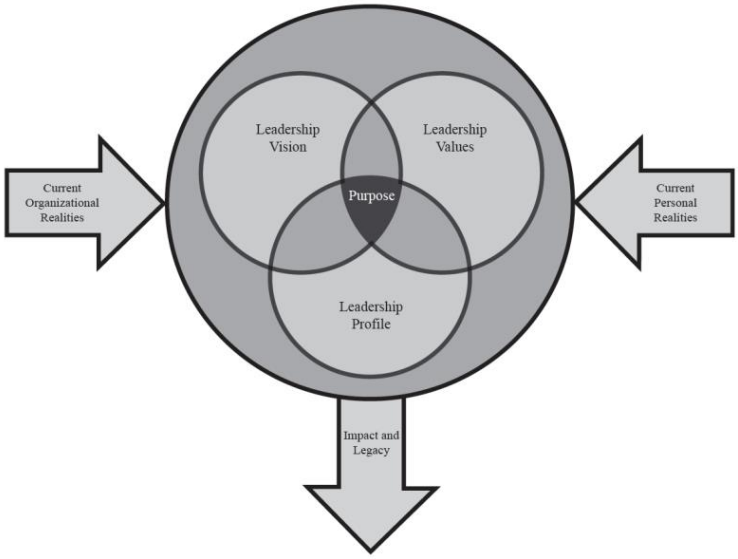

Figure 1: Discovering Leadership Framework. Adapted from *Discovering the Leader in You* (p. 153), by S. N. King, D. G. Altman, & R. J. Lee, 2011, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Adapted with permission.

One of the course textbooks serving as the foundation for the course curriculum is *Discovering the Leader in You*. The text utilizes a systematic approach to help students understand how leadership fits into their lives, what unique leadership qualities they possess, and the impact they want to have as a leader (King et al., 2011). King et al. (2011) created the Discovering Leadership Framework to provide a visual interpretation of how an individual's leadership vision, values, skills, and motivation align with organizational and personal realities (King et al.,

2011). The Framework is based on five main topics: current organizational realities, leadership vision, leadership values, leadership profile, and current personal realities (King et al., 2011) (Figure 1). These topics serve as the foundation of the personal leadership development course as the students move toward authenticity.

Putting it all Together—Alice Paul and Authentic Leadership Development (Day 4)
The fourth and final class meeting is devoted to the second assignment, five essay questions requiring the students to consider the concepts they have learned about authentic leadership development. The students are instructed to apply both course concepts and scenes and quotes from the film as they relate to Alice Paul's leadership. The students are provided the following questions to consider regarding Alice Paul:

1. Topic: Main View of Leadership and Costs of Leadership (Chapter 2)

Explain Alice Paul's main view of leadership, as well as the costs of leadership that impacted her situation. Use ideas from the text.

2. Topic: Vision (Chapter 3)

How did Alice Paul create congruency of direction (defined on p. 51)? Describe both her personal vision and leadership vision. Evaluate Alice Paul's leadership vision based on the 3 criteria listed in the text on page 53.

3. Topic: Motivation and Values (Chapter 4)

Identify Alice Paul's motivation to lead. How does it relate to the reading? Also, identify what you believe to be 3 of Alice Paul's core values. Explain.

4. Topic: Leadership Competencies (Chapter 5)

Identify 3 of Alice Paul's leadership competencies. Select from the list of 11 competencies in the text (p. 100). How did Alice use each of these competencies to carry out her leadership tasks? Explain.

5. Topic: Leadership and Balance (Chapter 6)

Discuss leadership and balance as it relates to Alice Paul. Did she use any of the strategies described in the text? Explain. If not, what strategy do you think she could have used? Explain.

Essays are worth 20 points each and are graded given the following criteria: a) overall writing quality and depth of thought, relevant use of scenes from the film, use of course concepts, and ability to analyze the film based on the course (five points per essay); b) appropriate use of at least three key terms and at least two key phrases or sentences per essay from the course readings (15 points per essay); and c) key terms and phrases/sentences must be in bold print.

Following discussion of the requirements for the essays, students are given the opportunity to work in small groups to discuss the questions and begin formulating their responses. Students are split into five groups, with each group assigned one of the questions to consider. The students are given approximately 25 minutes to work together to formulate ideas to include in their response. The groups write their answers on a large post-it pad and present their ideas to the class. After all groups have shared, students are given the opportunity to take a picture of the five post-it sheets

so that they have ideas to help them formulate their responses. Students are given one week to complete this second assignment which serves as the culminating piece for the personal leadership development course.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The Discovering Leadership Framework assignment was used to complete lesson objective one:

1. Critique Alice Paul's leadership as it relates to the components of the Discovering Leadership Framework by creating a Discovering Leadership Framework for Alice Paul.

Student synthesis of Alice Paul's leadership was evident. The Discovering Leadership Frameworks created by the students included all of the components and they were able to successfully evaluate Alice Paul's impact and legacy. A sample of student work is provided in the Appendix.

The five essay questions assignment was used to complete lesson objectives two and three. Students were instructed to use bold print for course concepts. Excerpts from past student essays are given to support each objective:

2. Identify key film scenes, quotes, and characters, applying them to course concepts by composing short essay responses to specific questions as they relate to Alice Paul.

The final **cost of leadership** Alice faces is **infrequent relief and its strain on your family**. For Alice Paul, obtaining suffrage and equality for women was her number one priority. This even continued to the point that she left no time for a personal life or family. At one point Alice's friend Lucy even asked her if one day she would eventually get married and Alice responded, "I'm busy that day."

Demonstrating integrity is all **about doing the right thing.** Alice shows this competency continuously by sticking to what she believes in, from not paying a fine that she did not deserve to persevering after Inez's death.

By creating a hunger strike, throwing her shoe out the window and singing during lunch, Alice gave the others alternatives to proceed in their life and eventually this helped her get out of prison. Alice's **command** is seen every day. Alice can **take control of a situation and make decisions.** She never takes no for an answer and expects things to get done. This is shown in her demand for the letter to be typed by the senator's wife.

3. Analyze Alice Paul's leadership as it relates to authentic leadership development by composing short essay responses to specific questions about her leadership.

Alice also always knew that gender equality was what she wanted to achieve, and even at her lowest moment when speaking with the prison psychiatrist, Alice illustrated the **authenticity of her vision** when she was baffled by the psychiatrist asking why she was doing this, and she replied that she simply wanted the same thing anyone else did.

Ms. Paul also was very prominent about being **authentic and anchored to who you are as a person.** She never once pretended to be someone she wasn't. She was **always one to let her actions speak for her, over her words,** and her actions were always to help benefit the name of her cause.

Being **authentic** means it must **reflect your values of leadership.** Alice had the same **passion** from the first day she became a leader until the day that she reached her goal. This included the time that she was in prison and became very weak during a hunger strike. They put her into the psych ward and even had a doctor talk to her during her stay there. Throughout this time she **stayed true to her vision** and even then was focused on the end.

Because suffrage was Alice Paul's whole life, it was utterly **authentic** and was such a deep part of her **identity** that Alice Paul and women's suffrage are nearly synonymous.

The majority of the students wrote well-developed essays. Students were able to apply what they learned over the course of the semester to Alice Paul. Instructors believe that this is a result of the class discussion and the small group work that took place prior to the submission of their essays.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Over the course of the semester, students practice writing essays using course concepts and analyzing leaders through film. Students complete three short essays on topics related to concepts covered in the course and compose essay responses to one question each on two exams. After watching films on Temple Grandin, Dan West, and Katie Davis, students assess these leaders in regard to course concepts from specific chapters. Leadership competencies and strengths, congruency of values and behavior, and personal leadership vision are three of the concepts students have experience evaluating. Seeing actors they know and are able to connect with makes it easier for the students to understand the leadership concepts. As a result, the students are prepared for the final lesson, which pulls together writing and analyzing as they explore Alice Paul's leadership through course concepts.

Recommendations

Use of films in the leadership classroom is recommended, as it continues to be an effective way to teach leadership concepts. For leadership educators wishing to implement the *Iron Jawed Angels* lesson in their personal leadership development classroom, we offer the following recommendations. The activity is not designed as a stand-alone leadership lesson. The lesson has been created to fit within a personal leadership development course. The success of the *Iron Jawed Angels* lesson is due in part to activities utilized to teach the Discovering Leadership Framework, helping students move toward authenticity. While two class meetings are reserved for viewing the film, educators not wishing to devote instructional time to viewing could require students to purchase or borrow the film for viewing outside of class. Alternatively, viewing times could be scheduled for the students to come and view the film as a group. Finally, the success of the final lesson is based upon leadership educators purposefully preparing students throughout the semester for the final leader analysis project.

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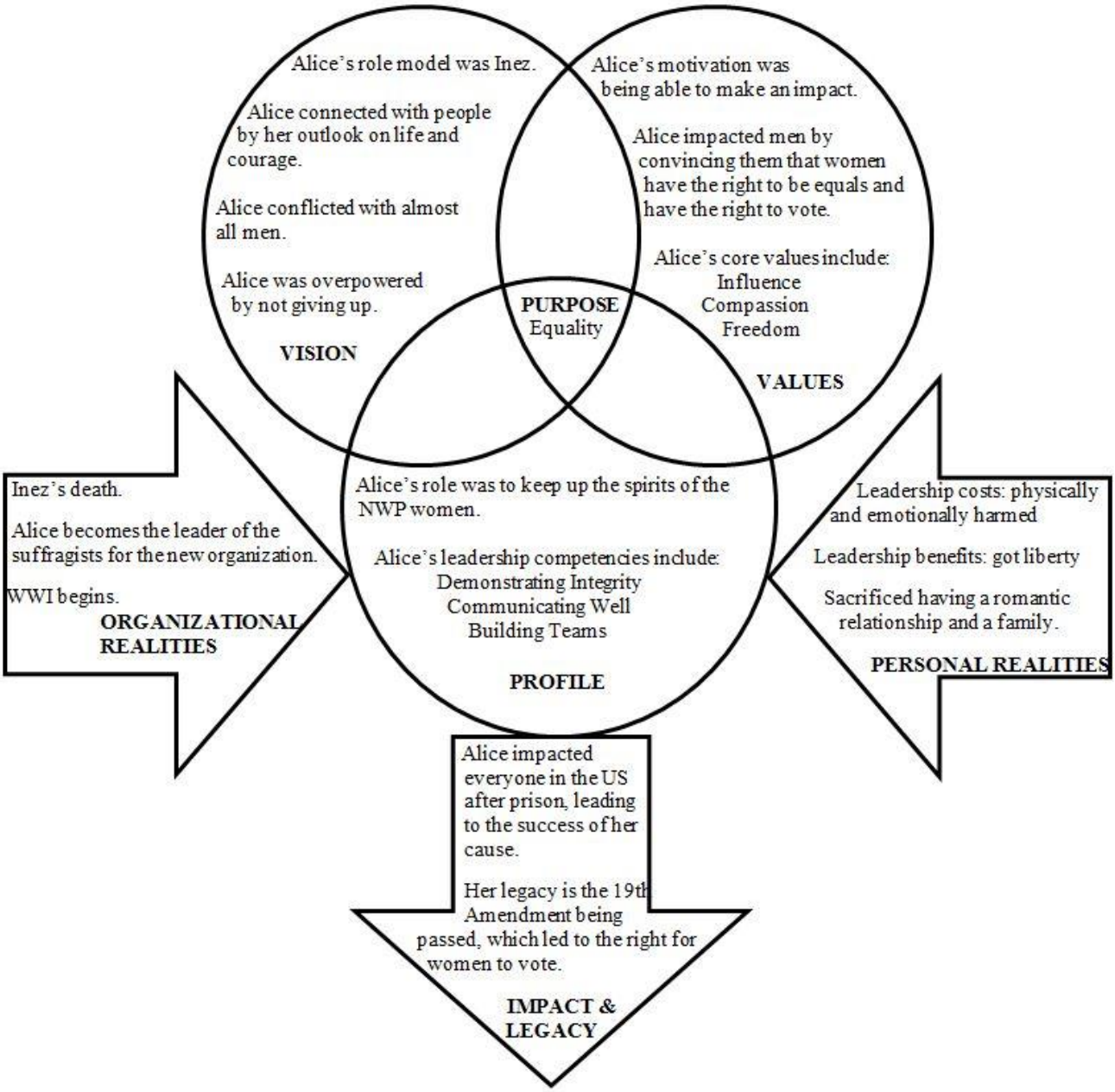
Appendix

Recreated Student Example of Alice Paul's Discovering Leadership Framework



Empowering underprivileged youth to practice leadership: Using mentorship, experiential learning, and examples from the Battle of Gettysburg

Andy Hughes
Gettysburg College

Short Description

This session explores the use of history, experiential learning, and mentoring in youth leadership development. The Richard J. Bartol Youth Quest in Gettysburg, PA, a leadership camp for disadvantaged high school students, serves as a model for fellow leadership educators on how to engage youth in enhancing their leadership skills.

Detailed Abstract

Today's youth need access to leadership development more than ever.

Per the Center for Creative Leadership's report on developing the next generation of leaders, 90% of organizational leaders surveyed believe that leadership development should be part of every student's educational experience. The respondents cite that leadership competencies are essential for the workforce today and tomorrow. In fact, these leaders also state that leadership development should start before the age of 21. Unfortunately, leadership development is not a pivotal part of youth education, especially for children from low-income families. Title 1 schools in the United States, which are designed for this target population, receive financial assistance from the Department of Education to provide the opportunity for a high quality education for all students.

More than half of all public schools are considered "Title 1 schools" under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and the number of them has only increased from 47,600 in 2002 to over 56,000 in 2010.

Recognizing this need, several institutions have partnered to create a leadership program that engages a new generation of youth in leadership development through exploring the relevancy of history—particularly that of Gettysburg—to their lives today. The Richard J. Bartol Youth Quest, a four day leadership camp that occurs every two years, is designed to provide 25 young students from underserved schools in Pennsylvania, Maryland, West Virginia, and New York an opportunity to learn foundational leadership skills, explore Gettysburg history, and experience student life on a college campus.

The program's name honors Richard J. Bartol, a seasonal Park Ranger in Gettysburg for 30 years who led by example and influenced the Gettysburg experience of thousands of visitors. The program, started in 2013, is fully funded by a collection of generous organizations and foundations including The David Bruce Smith Education Initiative, The Robert H. Smith Family Foundation, The Claude Worthington Benedum Foundation, M&T Bank, The Hershey Company, and The IFC Foundation.

Students are nominated by their teachers to apply for the program and are selected based on their passion for learning and their desire to make a difference. Upon selection in March, the students are assigned a College Leader who serves as their guide and camp counselor throughout the program. The students arrive for the summer camp on the institution's campus. All transportation, lodging, food, etc. are provided at no cost to the student to ensure access. The students stay in a college residential hall under the supervision of the camp counselors. The camp counselors are supervised by administrators and receive comprehensive five day training in student development, leadership education, and risk management.

The College Leaders, high-achieving college students with experience working with youth, are an essential part of each participant's leadership development. The College Leaders serve as formal mentors for five participants, leading group discussions and one-on-one meetings throughout the camp. Mentorship has been identified as an effective strategy for leadership development and this proves true at Youth Quest. Participants have indicated that being exposed to a positive role-model who encourages them increases their self-efficacy which is essential to leadership development. In addition, participants interact with other adults such as professors, admission counselors, and community members who inspire them to see their potential.

Throughout the four day camp, the students participate in experiential learning exercises that deepen their self-awareness, increase their ability to work with others, and help them see their potential for leadership. Participants learn about the three day battle of Gettysburg by walking the landscape with a licensed battlefield guide. The students learn about the different leadership styles of officers on both sides of the battle by physically walking in their footsteps and thinking critically about their decisions and actions. The participants engage in group exercises, such as a canon drill and building a Virginia Worm Fence, that expose them to the dynamics of working with others. The students also experience a low ropes challenge course that fosters key leadership skills such as confidence, collaboration, and community-building. Leadership studies research indicates that experiential learning is an effective method for skill development and the participants of Youth Quest agree.

Students attribute their development in these areas to practical and engaging exercises that help reinforce key lessons and concepts.

The evaluations of two cohorts who have completed the program indicate that mentoring, experiential learning, and learning from historical examples are powerful instruments of youth leadership development. These findings can be used by leadership educators across the world to construct meaningful developmental experiences for youth in an effort to prepare them for leadership today and tomorrow.

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Self-Awareness, Self-Reflection, and Self-Directed Learning in a MBA Business Leadership and Ethics Course

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Abstract

This practice sessions outlines the advanced process of integrating self-awareness, self-reflection, and self-directed learning to students in a MBA Business Leadership and Ethics course. In this session, the leadership educator will describe the importance of self-awareness, self-reflection and self-directed leadership as a critical component of teaching business leadership and ethics. In addition, the leadership educator will discuss the specific methods, assignments, and exercises employed to lead graduate business students through this learning process.

Introduction

In 1974, the Association to Advance the Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) began to require that ethics learnings constitute some portion of business school's core curriculum (Sims & Felton, Jr., 2006). Since that time, varying views on the best and most impactful way to teach ethics in a business school setting have emerged, as has the recognition that there is not uniformity in the best approach to take in achieving the AACSB's directive (Sims & Felton, Jr., 2006). Despite this lack of pedagogical consensus, theories have emerged that suggest that including elements of self-awareness (Hartman, 1998) and self-reflection (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, & Dolle, 2011) in the process of teaching business ethics is critical to the learning process. Additionally, Sims and Felton, Jr. (2006) argue that students must engage in a self-directed learning process to fully embrace and absorb the concepts and to "…pro-actively participate(s) in the business ethics learning process" (p. 311).

Importantly, a study conducted in 2012 found that mindful meditation, including the processes of self-awareness and self-reflection, resulted in more ethical decision making (Lampe & Lampe, 2012). Prentice (2014) indicates that emotion plays a primary role in ethical decision makes and recommends asking students to reflect on the type of moral development they wish to achieve. Despite the finding of a strong correlation between self-awareness, self-reflection and ethical thinking, a Carnegie Foundation report (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, & Dolle, 2011) indicates that business schools do an inadequate job of fostering an environment that encourages critical, independent thinking. Instead, the authors argue, "…such pedagogies are rarely accompanied by comparable experience with modes of reflection…(e)ven less common is the inclusion of a critical approach that might provide the cognitive distance from which students could probe and question the larger significance of business and its institutions (p. 39). This concept takes on critical importance in the development of independent, critical thinking as statistics support the notion that business students are less likely to engage in outside reading outside their class texts, support the arts, or discuss intellectual concepts outside of what they absorb in the context of their business courses (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, & Dolle, 2011). Indeed, Goleman and Senge

(2014) stress that a more holistic approach to education, which includes self-awareness and systems thinking, is required to provide a more balanced education to students of all ages.

Description of Practice

The leadership educator inherited a MBA course syllabus from the previous instructor and observed that the leadership and ethics course lacked any amount of self-assessment or self-reflection, both critical to the development of self-awareness (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, & Dolle, 2011; Hartman, 1998; Lampe & Lampe, 2012; Sims & Felton, Jr., 2006). Additionally, the leadership educator observed a lack of opportunity for students to guide their individual and respective learning interests throughout the course. The instructor revamped the course to include the following: 1) individual assessment utilizing the free on-line VIA Character Assessment (http://www.viacharacter.org), 2) a self-reflection section in every in-person course tied to the weekly readings in the course texts, 3) a mid-course self-reflection paper that required the students to reflect on their life experiences and influences to discern how they arrived at their current leadership style and ethics approach, 4) an individual ethics case study that required them the assess the ethical implications for all stakeholders involved in the situation and suggest the best course of action, as supported by course readings and ethical paradigms, 5) weekly analysis in the online platform on an ethics or leadership topic that interested them from the course reading of the week, and 6) a group case study at the end of the course that provided a significant ethical dilemma (e.g. unfair global labor practices or untested pharma in developing countries), that required significant critical and ethical thinking, as well as the requirement that they develop a solution that was in alignment with the ethical leaders they had stated they intended to be in their individual reflection papers.

The course took place over a full semester and was a hybrid on-line and in person course, meeting for an hour an half once a week with the other learning taking place on-line via an established educational hosting platform. In the innovative practice session, the course texts, course reflections, syllabus and case studies will be presented.

Recommendations and Implications

While there are differing viewpoints on how to teach business ethics, there is also agreement that the historical pedagogical approaches are failing to meet the mark in accomplishing the learning objectives (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, & Dolle, 2011; Lampe & Lampe, 2012; Prentice, 2014). As such, a dynamic new approach that incorporates cutting edge reseach in required. By incorporating self-awareness, self-reflection and self-directed learning with the standard business ethics texts, the leadership educator achieved a level of discourse around business ethics and leadership that would not have been possible in a more generic business ethics and leadership course. The implications of this approach in a MBA course were that the students expressed that they had not been required to look at problems through the lens of a) all stakeholders involved, as their studies mainly focused on corporate entity or shareholders; b) what they, as current and

future leaders, believed was ethical behavior in the case situations; and c) what they valued as individuals. By utilizing the concepts of self-awareness, self-reflection and self-directed learning, the leadership educator raised the discourse from abstract to personal.

Reflections

As the majority of the course students were undergraduate business majors, the leadership educator found that the bulk of the students were initally incredulous regarding the course pedagogy. As most of them had focused on the importance of quantitative data in decision making during their undergraduate education, the inclusion of abstract, qualitative data was a new and difficult concept for many of them to grasp. As was the theory of considering the needs of multiple stakeholders in an ethical dilema. Despite the leadership educator having significant experience in the corprate world (in addition to a MBA), the stark black and white nature of many of the course particpants presented an interesting teaching challenge to overcome.

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Encouraging Risk and Innovation

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Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to introduce a tool, F.O.C.U.S., that is simultaneously useful in driving innovation through a visioning/planning process as well as a tool effective in resolving conflict.

Introduction

And it should be realised that taking the initiative in introducing a new form of government is very difficult and dangerous, and unlikely to succeed. The reason is that all those who profit from the old order will be opposed to the innovator, whereas all those who might benefit from the new order are, at best, tepid supporters of him. This lukewarmness arises partly from fear of their adversaries, who have the law on their side, partly from the skeptical temper of men, who do not really believe in new things unless they have been shown to work well. The result is that whenever those who are opposed to change have the chance to attack the innovator, they do so with much vigor, whereas his supporters act only half-heartedly; so that the innovator and his supporters find themselves in great danger (Machiavelli, 1513/1988, pp. 20-21).

Perhaps the true risk in innovation and creativity is the risk of isolation for the innovator. As we encourage risk and innovation we need to provide useful tools to keep the process healthy when the inevitable conflicts arise. Vision springs from the ability to be an actor instead of a reactor. Two terms, proactive and reactive, have surfaced to explain the notion of leading change or conflict instead of reacting to change or conflict. To be proactive is to lead change and to transform the nature of conflict. The purpose of this paper is to introduce a tool, F.O.C.U.S., that is simultaneously useful in driving innovation through a visioning/planning process as well as a tool effective in resolving conflict.

Embracing Conflict

The word conflict conjures up images of heated exchanges, anger, mistrust, opposing forces, or other forms of battle. In fact conflict is normally associated with such words as contention, controversy, dissension, friction, strife, struggle, clash, and confrontation. It is a small wonder we view it with such reluctance.

Embracing conflict is much easier when we have the right tools in hand. Such potentiating leadership practices would transform our relationship with conflict by putting to rest the whole notion that we can somehow manage it. Conflict management is merely a way of hiding from or over-powering the issues that created the conflict. Denial, suppression, and the use of power generally fit into the area of conflict management. Negotiation, collaboration, cooperation, interaction, and participation are terms that are used for conflict resolution. It is interesting that many of these terms are antonyms of conflict while synonymous with peace. Conflict resolution,

using the right tools, can be a guiding practice not a destructive or violent process. It can become creative and productive visioning process.

The first task in redirecting our notion of conflict is to put to rest the whole concept of managing it. Conflict management is merely a way of hiding from or over-powering the issues that created the conflict. Denial, suppression, and the use of power generally fit into the conflict management area. Negotiation, collaboration, cooperation, interaction, and participation are terms that are used for conflict resolution. These are also terms and conditions critical to the opportunities ideal. It is interesting that many of these terms are antonyms of conflict. Conflict resolution is not designed to be a destructive process; it is a growth, a change process, or a creative process (Baruch Bush & Folger, 1994).

If we insist in trying to manage conflict two scenarios are likely, 1) the issue remains unresolved, and 2) the change process is destroyed. Since leadership, as a relationship, seeks real change that reflects our common purposes (Rost, 1991), leadership is destroyed in the process. What is created, however, are dissension, mistrust, and combativeness that surfaces again and again. Cohesion is destroyed along with any hope of future growth.

Leadership embraces conflict as an indicator of the change process (McCaslin, 2001; McCaslin & Snow, 2010; and McCaslin & Christensen, 2013). Conflict is driven by change. Since in a natural community change is a constant factor, so is the likelihood of conflict. Given this fact it becomes critical to develop a new appreciation for conflict as well as a healthy respect for it. Leadership can resolve this issue for us because it does not look to stop the cause of conflict; it looks to change the effects of conflict (Burns, 1978). The effects of conflict have traditionally been negative and divisive. These effects lead to the concentration of power and to the choosing of sides that further polarizes the issues and limits the ability of those involved to find solutions agreeable to both sides. Hence, we find mediators who first look to deny or avoid the cause of conflict and seek only to manage the effect of conflict. In the end no change is allowed unless a concentration of power clearly overwhelms the opposing view. In all likelihood the cause of conflict has not been removed and it will again begin to build in an unending cycle that drains the resources of the organization which could be put to better use.

The cause of conflict is the driver of the change process. By understanding the necessity of real change that reflects our common purposes, leadership can check the negative effects of conflict and direct it to an outcome that does not kill the growth process. Leadership resolves the conflict by embracing change and guiding it in directions that reflect the common purposes of all. As a result, the cause of the conflict becomes transformed by the resolution of its effects.

Description of the Practice: Resolving Conflict

To resolve the conflicts that are a natural occurrence within our communities where creativity and innovation is encouraged requires the basic skills of understanding the real issues at hand.

When presented with conflict individuals in leader roles would begin their process by asking a series of questions. This can be done as an individual leader or it can be employed as a group or team process. The questions:

1. What is the real issue?
   a) Is the issue emotionally charged?
   b) What can be lost by doing nothing?
   c) What would each party like to see happen?
2. What are the facts?
3. What are the opportunities?
4. What are the consequences of any action taken?
5. Do we understand the impacts on the people?

These questions are the keys to a technique that is useful for conflict resolution and problem solving is called the **F.O.C.U.S. Model** (**F**acts-**O**pportunities-**C**onsequences-**U**nderstanding-**S**olution). The normal pattern for managing conflict is to look at **pros** and **cons**. The problem with this process is that it further polarizes the process simply by pushing the organization or community into an inter-actional relationship. This process leaves little room for discussion as opposing forces become clearly defined. On the other hand, the use of the **F.O.C.U.S. Model,** shown in Figure 1, does not stop discussion; it encourages it in a visionary manner.

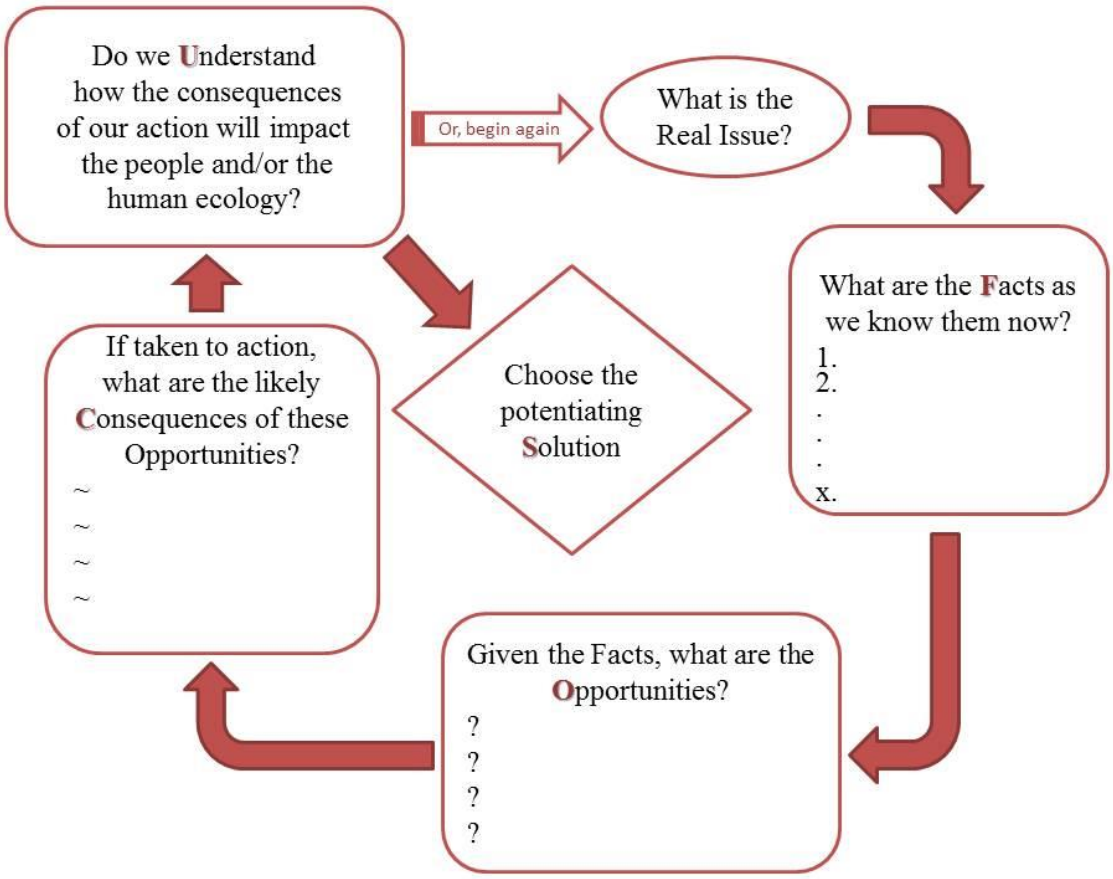

Figure 1. The **F.O.C.U.S. Model** (**F**acts-**O**pportunities-**C**onsequences-**U**nderstanding-**S**olution) for constructive conflict resolution.

What is the Real Issue?

Given the unlikely scenario that it is possible to build community or leadership without disagreements, we must be prepared for the inevitable. The first step in resolving conflict is to uncover the real issue(s) facing the community. Too often we find ourselves so involved in bickering about the processes of identifying the real issues that we never get to the core of the community. If we can agree upon the issues that divide us and that prevent the community from becoming whole, we can then use our strengths to build the vision that will unite us.
A simplistic example may be helpful. Consider a community that is debating installing a traffic light at a fairly busy intersection. A complaint has been issued by parents who believe that the current stop sign is not adequate to protect their children who regularly cross the street. An opposing view is that the current system would work with a little more education about street safety. This view opposes the expenditure of tax dollars to install a very expensive and, in their view, unnecessary traffic light. The city council is to vote on this issue.

This situation is primed for conflict. The city council should be aware that first of all this issue could become emotionally charged, after all children's safety is involved. Also involved is the increase in taxes to pay for this safety, another emotional issue. They should be aware that doing nothing in this case would not be healthy. At the very least they need to hear the opposing views. If the council were to address this issue using "pro" or "con" procedures the issue becomes that of the traffic light and the related expenditures. The emotional issue of children's safety is waiting to derail them if they vote without fully understanding the issues at hand.

The F.O.C.U.S. approach needs to know the real issue under consideration. If the city council were to make the streetlight the issue then they are unlikely to resolve the conflict. The best they can hope for is to make the majority of the people happy. Unfortunately the minority will do everything in their power to make the council unhappy. But what is the real issue? If we were to hear both sides of the conflict we may agree that children's safety is important. If we can make that the real issue instead of the traffic light we may open ourselves to possibilities unseen for resolving this issue. If safety is the issue, then is the intersection unsafe? This requires that we understand the facts.

What are the Facts?

Once the real issue facing the community is identified it is a simple five-step process (F.O.C.U.S.) to bring about consensus. The first step is to ask, "What are the facts as we understand them now?" In any situation we need to know the logistics facing us as we approach an issue. Given that safety at the intersection is the current issue, what we already know or what our current strengths or resources are that can be used to address this issue are extremely relevant. In this case of intersection safety facts could include records of accidents, volume of traffic, current speed limits, cost of traffic lights, maintenance of traffic lights, cost of education programs, and any other related item. Facts are facts, and if we are armed with them when beginning our discussion they can serve as valuable tools. Ignorance is the conflict's best resource.

What are the Opportunities?

Once the facts are known we need to begin the process of examining what is possible by exploring our opportunities. This can be accomplished by a simple listing of possible alternatives or opportunities. This is the physical means by which the real issue will be addressed; it is in essence troubleshooting. It is the ability to venture into new arenas of opportunity in a physical way. These opportunities are not likely to be castles in the sky; they are likely to be achievable given some measure of risk. Given the freedom to act upon these opportunities extraordinary things may become possible for the community. The more that is risked the more that can be gained.

In our simple example what is at risk is our children's safety. Given the facts of the situation possible solutions would include; doing nothing (always an alternative), installing traffic lights, installing warning lights, installing a four way stop intersection, building an overpass, conduct safety classes, speed bumps, safety monitors, change the speed limit, etc. Each of these alternatives, except for the first, addresses the real issue. Prior to this process we were going to vote only between doing nothing and traffic lights. What we see is that our opportunities to address the issue were far greater than we may have initially realized. We are no longer discussing a "pro" or "con" issue, now we are seriously exploring the safety of our children who use this intersection. Any solution adopted from here on will in some way address this issue.

What are the Likely Consequences?

The process of seeking opportunities is balance by asking, “What are the likely consequences of each of these opportunities?” Given the facts and a set of opportunities the next step is an analysis of each combination to determine the outcome of any given choice. In this process the organization examines each solution for its strengths and weakness. An effort to be cognizant of the concept of fairness and seek balance in creating a solution is essential. It is possible within the consensus building model (F.O.C.U.S.) to reduce the possible solutions to a few workable models.

In this case of intersection safety two possible alternatives were selected for consideration, placing four way stop signs at the intersection or installing speed bumps to slow approaching traffic. Each of these solutions requires very little in the form of investment or maintenance and they address the issue of safety. However, before we can choose one of these solutions we must ask one more question.

Do We Understand the Likely Impact on the People?

This question is one that is rarely asked in the building of possible solutions. This is where we are reminded that the solutions we choose will be felt by real people. We must understand that the most efficient, least risky, most logical choice is not always best. Sometimes it would seem we need to be a little less efficient, take a bigger risk, and resist our temptation to think away opportunities, and trust to the people who will enjoy or hate the solutions we are determining. A logical solution is no solution at all if people will not accept it.

In our example we would be reminded of the value of educating our children about safety and recognize that speed bumps would be upsetting to most drivers. In the end they may suggest that the four-way stop coupled with an educational effort may be the best course of action.

Creating a Solution

The last step is to create a solution. If no workable solution can be found then we start the process over again re-examining the facts, the opportunities, the consequences, and understanding the impact on the people until consensus is reached and a solution is created. Without consensus a holistic approach to community is not possible. In our example we reached the consensus of a four way stop with educational safety efforts. Granted this was a simplistic example, however, even if we had had two or more choices still remaining as we voted on intersection safety, all of our choices would have addressed the real issue in some regard. We were not polarized by an early vote that would have missed the real issue and maintained the conflict. We arrived at consensus because we were willing to discuss the real issue. We built a vision that was in focus with our common community. Indeed the conflict began the process, however, it will be consensus that moves our communities forward.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results/Reflections

Good practice presents an opportunity to evolve a new approach to relating that engages and potentiates the farther reaches of any community of learning. In observing the qualities I have seen and felt among the good models witnessed, it became clear to me that these potentiators are first and foremost self-aware. I came to understand that they are able to hold space for acts of potentiation for themselves, and others, by way of an opening awareness, a welcoming acceptance, an ability to sustain attention, and through setting their intentions on the full actualization of human potential. *Awareness*, *insight*, and *discernment* (A.I.D.) are cultivated when we become cognizant of the essential qualities of the practice of encouraging risk and innovation - creativity. Practicing conflict resolution, problem solving, or generating a vision for the future through *awareness*, *insight* and *discernment* allows for an illumination of possibilities.

- *Awareness:* Cultivating thoughtful/thought-provoking mindfulness or "presence" and responsiveness;

- *Insight*: Potentiating purposeful interdependent consideration, perceptiveness and participation; Literally, a looking within for illumination, analysis, and direction;

- *Discernment*: Catalyzing astute and principled response/responsibility. The previous two features inform this discernment stage; our awareness and insight give us a knowing, a sense of direction, an ability to discern conduct and choice for the furthering of the widest purposes.

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Educating Students on Women's Leadership

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Abstract

Women's leadership education can be challenging to implement with students. At the University of Kentucky, the EMPOWER program, a weekend retreat with post-retreat activities focusing on identity within leadership, has been successful in its first two years. This session will provide an overview of the program and its curriculum, with time for group discussion.

Introduction

Although equality of certain social identities is currently the focus of government and the media, it can still be difficult to effectively educate college students on women's leadership. Despite the notions that women's leadership is outdated or "for feminists only, it is something that is deeply needed among college women. At the University of Kentucky (UK), the EMPOWER: Women's Leadership Program (EMPOWER) has been successful in the first two years of its existence in educating women on the importance of their identity as a woman in their leadership journey. EMPOWER is a year-long program which consists of a weekend retreat, monthly meetings focusing on a different topic relevant to women leaders, and the opportunity for students to take on a leadership role in the following year's program. The EMPOWER program is innovative in that it allows students to explore authenticity, increased their self-awareness, and begin the process of identity development. While this program has still been challenged with skepticism and criticism from those who do not see women's leadership as relevant, the program's participants appreciate its existence and its originality. This initiative aims to empower students to take on leadership roles on campus to create change. This Innovative Practice Session will focus on this program, including the literature used and the content for the retreat, the assessment results of the first two years of the program, and further implications and recommended next steps. Practitioners, whether they serve as faculty, student affairs professionals, or leadership consultants, will be able to take away some effective group and individual activities, selected reading materials, and topics that have captivated the students at UK in regards to women's leadership. There will be time for question and answers, as well as brief discussion allowing for idea-sharing.

Review of Related Scholarship

Convincing college students to care about gender inequality can be difficult. Part of the issue is the possible stigma the word "feminist" carries when a certain Rosie the Riveter image comes to mind; but another is complacency because "today in the United States and the developed world women are better off than ever." (Sandberg, 2013). With powerful women and role models in business such as Sheryl Sandberg, Chief Operating Officer of Facebook and Marissa Mayer, Chief Executive Officer of Yahoo!; and in politics, namely, Hillary Clinton, former Secretary of State and candidate for presidency for 2016, college women can actually see themselves in leadership roles in this country. It can be easy for students to wonder "why is a focus on

women's leadership still relevant?" The facts show that it is still very relevant not only because women still only make 77 cents to the dollar that men earn but also because of the limited amount of women in leadership roles on college campuses and in the post-graduate world. Women became 50% of the college graduates in the United States in the early 1980s. Since then, women have slowly and steadily advanced, earning more and more of the college degrees, taking more of the entry-level jobs, and entering more fields previously dominated by men. Despite these gains, the percentage of women at the top of corporate America has barely budged in the past decade. A meager twenty-one of the Fortune 500 CEOs are women. Women hold about 14 percent of executive officer positions, 17 percent of board seats, and constitute 18 percent of our elected congressional officials" (Sandberg, 2013).

Gender identity development begins in children at around ages 3-4, well before students ever step foot on a college campus. Bem's (1983) gender schema theory incorporates aspects of cognitive-developmental theory and social learning theory. This theory proposes that the child "learns to recognize and organize incoming information in gender-based categories…Children learn which elements of their environments and cultures belong in male and female categories, and then link those elements to themselves based on the category in which they feel they belong…" (Evans, et al, 2010). Aspects of campus life (residence halls, academic coursework, clubs and organizations, athletics, career planning, etc.) can either challenge or reinforce the gender schemas that students may bring with them to college (Events, et al, 2010). Therefore, we feel it is our role as leadership educators to impress upon students they do not have to fit into these categories they have been developing in their mind since they were three. As women are the target group of gender identity and as such face specific barriers around their gender identity, it is important that we provide a safe and supportive space for them in particular to embrace their identity and express their ideas and goals while simultaneously providing encouragement, empowerment, and guidance to accomplish these ideas and goals.

Description of the Practice

EMPOWER started at the University of Kentucky in the fall of 2013. The program is primarily an off-campus retreat early in the fall semester that is free for students, but includes monthly meetings throughout the rest of the academic year. The program is a collaborative effort between the Leadership Exchange in the Office of Student Involvement and the Violence Intervention & Prevention (VIP) Center. The retreat gives students the opportunity to discover their strengths, refine their leadership skills, complete a high ropes course challenge and a multitude of other activities, network with other leaders, practice group and individual reflection and be empowered as a woman. EMPOWER is open to any UK student that identifies as a woman and is based on topics such as understanding privilege and identities, clarifying values and strengths as a leader, and living and leading authentically.

During the first retreat in the fall of 2013, the program saw a total of 12 participants, one student committee member, and three staff members. We utilized a few outside resources to enhance the retreat and serve as themes throughout the program, including an excerpt from *The Gifts of Imperfection* by Brene Brown, a book focused on vulnerability, shame, and resiliency, and the StrengthsQuest™ Assessment, allowing students to discover their own Strengths. These, along with vision-writing and goal-setting, a brief history of women's leadership, and a high ropes

course challenge were the main pieces in the curriculum of the retreat. The learning outcomes for this retreat were: 1) participants will learn about how their personal strengths related to their leadership ability and/or leadership style, 2) participants will understand the role of women's leadership, and 3) participants will learn effective techniques of action planning and goal-setting. For the second EMPOWER retreat in the fall of 2014, we made several changes to the curriculum, marketing methods, and structure of the retreat. Firstly, to utilize the continued interest of students who attended the first retreat, we provided a student leader role within the retreat as a Student Facilitator (SF). The SF role consisted of two major responsibilities: 1) leading a small group of participants in various discussions, which served as a time to debrief large group activities, and 2) creating and leading a breakout session during the retreat. With the help of the SFs, our marketing methods were much more robust. In order to attract students who were serious about attending the retreat, we were intentional in communicating the expectations of the retreat through email communication, as well as holding an information session about the retreat during welcome week activities at the beginning of the fall semester. Additionally, the switch to an online application made the process more easily accessible for students. Through these methods, we were able to attract a large pool of candidates, which we narrowed down to 20 participants, in addition to the four student facilitators and three staff members who attended the retreat.

We drastically changed the content of the retreat from the first year, with only the high ropes course challenge remaining the same. With the addition of the SFs, there was much more time spent in small groups, which existed during the first retreat but was certainly not utilized enough. Instead of StrengthsQuest™, we utilized a different activity that allowed participants to discover and share their personal core values, which was the most enjoyed activity among participants. We complemented the values discussion with an activity that allowed participants to create their own 'life story map' made up of highlights from their past they believed molded them into their current self and leader. These two activities were meant to help participants increase self-awareness by focusing on their own history and allow them to be more authentic when leading. Based on assessment results and feedback from the 2013 participants, we replaced *The Gifts of Imperfection* with *True North* by Bill George due to its greater emphasis on tangible leadership skills. We also felt that discussing privilege and identities was an important part of women's leadership, so we modified the previous year's breakout session on this topic to be a large group session. The combination of these activities formed the following learning outcomes for the participants: 1) to cultivate an authentic leadership style through identifying one's own values and enhanced self-awareness, 2) to demonstrate knowledge and awareness of leadership around diverse identities, cultures, and society, and 3) to develop a sense of belonging within the University of Kentucky community.

Based on successful assessment results and the continued interest of past participants, the 2015 EMPOWER retreat will continue to be modeled after the 2014 retreat. We are currently in the planning process for this year's retreat, and this will be discussed more in the Recommendations section.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

For both years, assessment methods included a pre-test prior to the retreat, a post-test at the conclusion of the retreat, and a post-post-test about a month after the retreat at the first monthly leadership session. Quantitative questions were scaled on a 4-point Likert scale with 1 indicating respondents strongly disagreed and 4 indicating they strongly agreed with the statement presented. Responses shown are the calculated means of each question, for each assessment. A short review of the results from each year is discussed in this section.

Assessment results of the fall 2013 retreat showed students thoroughly enjoyed the overall experience the retreat gave them, not just a particular session or topic. Students indicated that major benefits to attending the retreat included learning about oneself and making new friends. Students' main takeaways included learning their strengths according to StrengthsQuest™ and how to use them, embracing their identity, especially their identity as a woman, and how to respect others' ideas and viewpoints. The results of the pre- and post-tests also showed that students really enjoyed the retreat, but had expected more leadership skill-building and development. To accommodate this expectation that had not been met, we implemented monthly sessions that each featured a different chapter of *The Gifts of Imperfection* and respective skill-building activities. Assessment data for the 2013 retreat will not be further showcased or analyzed in this proposal, and the rest of this section will focus on the 2014 retreat as its curriculum and learning outcomes will be used to move the program forward.

By participating in the EMPOWER retreat in 2014, participants gained knowledge of oneself and how to be authentic, an understanding of identities and privilege, and met other women who were like-minded and made them feel more a part of the UK community. Based on the increase in mean ratings from pre- to post-test items, such as "my presence is valued at UK," "I consider myself a strong leader at UK," "I understand how my woman identity impacts my leadership," and "I understand how my privileged identities impact my leadership," all three learning outcomes were met by the participants (see Table 1). The almost perfect (4.0) means of the two questions asked on the post-test regarding values and leading authentically also indicate the learning outcomes were met (see Table 2). Throughout the qualitative items, participants consistently iterated that major takeaways were the relationships built with the women they met and the sense of community EMPOWER gave them. Through the ranking of their favorite sessions, participants indicated that they enjoyed personal discovery and individual empowerment, which included a values clarification activity, creation of their own 'life story map,' and the high ropes course challenge. The post-post-test revealed that participants walked away with a sense of who they are and how to lead authentically, as well as an increased confidence in their leadership abilities. This also aligns with the learning outcomes of the retreat, indicating that the overall goals of student learning from the retreat were met.

Table 1: Means of questions asked across all assessments

Question	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test**	**Post Post-Test**
I have a firm understanding of the purpose of EMPOWER: Women's Leadership Retreat.	3.1	4.0	4.0
I believe this retreat will benefit me as a student leader at UK.	3.85	3.95	3.86
I feel there is space for me within the UK community.	3.45	3.8	3.86

I believe attending this retreat will expose me to new ideas/ways of thinking.	3.89	3.95	3.86
I believe as a result of attending this retreat, I can make a positive impact on the UK community.	3.6	3.8	4.0
In comparison to my peers, I consider myself a strong leader at UK.	2.65	3.4	3.14
I feel my presence is valued at UK.	2.85	3.6	3.57
I understand how my identity as a woman impacts my leadership	2.95	3.8	3.86
I can describe how my privileged identities impact my abilities as a leader.	2.5	3.9	3.71

Table 2: Means of questions asked on post-test

Question	**Mean**
If asked, I could easily describe the values that are most important to me.	3.8
After identifying my top values, I feel that I can lead more authentically.	3.95
I can describe the importance of feedback in enhancing self-awareness.	3.85
I feel more confident in my abilities to give and receive feedback that will enhance self-awareness.	3.75
I would recommend True North to a fellow leader.	3.6
The time I spent in my small group was valuable.	3.95
The high ropes course enhanced my retreat experience.	3.8
As a result of this retreat, I want to get more involved with the Leadership Exchange.	3.65
As a result of this retreat, I want to get more involved with the VIP Center.	3.35
Overall, I would strongly encourage other UK students to get involved with this retreat.	4.0
Overall, I believe attending this retreat was an excellent use of my limited time.	3.95
Overall, believe this retreat was excellent!	4.0

Reflections of the Practitioner

The results from both retreats show that the main takeaways from the participants are learning more about themselves, learning more about their identity as a woman, connecting with other like-minded women, and an overall increased sense of confidence and empowerment. For this reason we have kept the learning outcomes from the 2014 retreat regarding self-awareness, identity, and sense of belonging at UK for future retreats. The program's consistency in allowing students to discover more about themselves and explore their identities is what makes it so successful.

There are several aspects of the retreat that have been executed excellently. Our promotional materials (flyers, posters, buttons) are modern, fun, and attractive to college women, and partner nicely with our marketing methods on social media, and the atmosphere we create at our informational session during welcome week. We create an environment at the retreat where the

women embrace themselves and their vulnerability quickly and are surprised by how confident and empowered they feel after attending the retreat. This is due to the example the staff and SFs set of vulnerability, light-heartedness, and passion for women's leadership. We are able to be selective in choosing our Student Facilitators because many participants remain engaged and are excited to serve next year's participants.

The assessment results also provide information on areas of improvement that we have decided to focus on for the 2015 retreat and for the program's future. These areas include refining the role of the SF, re-vamping the monthly meetings to increase attendance, and creating an EMPOWER alumni program for those who have participated in the past. All of these aspects will be discussed in detail in the next section.

Recommendations

Now that EMPOWER is in its third year, we have solidified our learning outcomes and feel confident making decisions based on what has worked well and what has not. Much of the retreat will look the same, however, we do plan to make minor immediate changes including refining the SF role, and re-vamping the monthly meetings following the retreat.

The SF role at last year's retreat had two main functions: creating and facilitating a breakout session and leading a small group. However, we have decided to omit the breakout session element from the retreat, due to scheduling conflicts and lackluster assessment results. With this change, the SF role changes slightly at the retreat to solely being a small group leader. To increase participation at monthly meetings, and allow for stronger relationship building throughout the year, we have decided to add a structured mentoring program following the retreat between the SFs and their respective small groups.

The monthly meetings, while beneficial for the students that do attend, are currently not mandatory for participants or SFs and are lacking in attendance. While our percentage of participants that attended the monthly meetings increased from 2013 to 2014, we still plan to focus on that aspect of the program this year. Due to an increasing interest in EMPOWER by staff throughout UK's Division of Student Affairs, staff currently not affiliated with EMPOWER will be invited to facilitate the post-retreat monthly sessions rather than have each session led by staff members currently involved in EMPOWER. We hope this change, in addition to the structured mentor role of the SFs, will increase post-retreat monthly session attendance.

One last recommendation and a new aspect of the program we have not begun to implement is to create an EMPOWER alumni program. We have discussed several times what this could potentially look like and we usually brainstorm more questions than answers. This is certainly an area for greater discussion in the coming year and future implementation once we determine the best direction.

Ultimately, the program has been very successful, and it has been exciting to see the program evolve from an idea to a reality that has continued to grow and improve, As a result, we are now focusing on the sustainability of the program. I hope this session at the ALE Conference would not only serve the attendees by providing space to discuss women's leadership education and

programming, but that it would also allow for me to learn from the audience and take feedback and ideas back to campus to continue improving the EMPOWER program.

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TED Talks and Leadership: "Ideas Worth Sharing"

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Abstract

This presentation shares six TED Talks that connect with the leadership literature and topics commonly taught. They stimulate critical thinking about leadership topics and keep the class interesting. Both TED Talk devotees and those unfamiliar with TED will find this session valuable.

Introduction

As a leadership educator, I have three primary objectives: teach leadership content well (theories, concepts, practices), challenge my students in their critical thinking, and keep it interesting. At this point in my career, I have found that the latter two objectives can be more difficult than the content piece.

While I do not remember how I discovered TED Talks, I began watching them a couple of years ago for my own personal development. TED Talks are short videos of experts talking about a variety of topics. I enjoy learning about new things and have found these videos to be stimulating, enlightening, and engaging. (They are also a good way to pass the time while on the elliptical machine.)

"TED is a nonprofit devoted to spreading ideas, usually in the form of short, powerful talks. TED began in 1984 as a conference where Technology, Entertainment and Design converged, and today covers almost all topics — from science to business to global issues — in more than 100 languages. In the fall of 2012, TED Talks celebrated its one billionth video view. As TED Talks continue to be watched around the world, with an average of 17 new page views a second. TEDx's science guidelines clearly state that science and health information shared from the stage must be supported by peer-reviewed research" (TED, n.d.)

While I have used video in the classroom (mostly YouTube) for years, I decided to replace many of my YouTube videos with TED Talks. I have found that while YouTube is a rich source of information to explain and enhance leadership concepts, TED Talks offer something more. The reason for this is because I have found many TED Talks offer much of the latest research that is counterintuitive to what we "know" or has speakers who are offering a paradigm shift in the various ways we understand the world. For these reasons, TED Talks would better meet my objective (challenge) to stimulate critical thinking about leadership topics and keep it interesting.

The learner objectives for this presentation include that participants will: 1) understand the mission and history of TED Talks; 2) acquire classroom TED Talk ideas with an explanation of how they enhance the corresponding leadership topic; and 3) explore the relevance of my student comments and personal reflections on how using TED Talks. Participants will also have an

opportunity to share any TED Talks they like to use and their experiences with using this medium in the classroom.

Review of Related Scholarship

Using video in various formats, including YouTube, allows us to illustrate a concept or principle while making class content more relatable to students. Berk (2009) cites more than a dozen studies that support using video or film to support student learning. By the same token, multimedia allows leadership educators to teach leadership theory in new and inventive ways that captures students' attention, provides a catalyst for thoughtful discussion (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackerman, 2003), and generates dialogue to drive home difficult or complex points (Williams, 2006).

I currently use six TED Talks corresponding with the following leadership topics: leadership skills, path-goal theory, followership, servant leadership, authentic leadership, and the psychodynamic approach to leadership. I use Peter Northouse's (2013) text *Leadership Theories and Practices* as my primary reading and source for course structure.

Stress management is a necessary skill for effective leadership. According to the a report by the Center for Creative Leadership, "80% percent of leaders report that work is a primary source of stress in their lives and that having a leadership role increases the level of stress" (Campbell, Baltes, Martin, & Meddings, 2007, p. 3). While not addressed in the Northouse text, I highlight this skill because students often talk about their levels of stress, inquire about how to manage their stress, and want to know more about what the best practices for stress management as a necessary skill in effective leadership.

The next lesson features path-goal theory. "Path-goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals" (Northouse, 2013, p 137). For this reason, I highlight motivation in this TED Talk.

While the Northouse text does not cover followership, [Author, 2013] makes a case why we should teach followership as leadership educators. The term "followers" has been attributed with negative qualities yet followers and the positive and necessary role they play a in organizations is crucial. [Author, 2013] maintains that our students will continue to ascribe many of these characteristics to followers unless we teach them otherwise.

We then move on to servant leadership in our TED Talks. According to Northouse (2013), servant leadership is "the only leadership approach that frames the leadership process around the principle of caring for others" (p. 234). It is not heroic, but rather humble in its approach to leadership. This TED Talk highlights the "everyday" aspect of leadership.

Authentic leadership is one of the newer leadership theories (Northouse, 2013) and stems from the positive psychology movement (Avolio, & Gardner, 2005). It is about authenticity and the genuineness of leaders. This TED Talk focuses on happiness, another offspring of positive psychology.

Finally, the psychodynamic approach stresses the importance of self-awareness (Northouse, 2013). This TED Talk reveals the latest technology that can enhance our level of self-awareness.

Description of the Practice

I teach an upper-division course, Leadership Theories and Practices. While I use Peter Northouse's (2013) *Leadership Theories & Practices* as the course text, the TED Talks discussed as follows can be used in a variety of leadership courses with any readings that cover these topics. In this section, I will include the leadership topic and describe corresponding TED Talk.

Skills Approach: Stress Management

Kelly McGonigal, a Stanford health psychologist, offers a TED Talk, "How to Make Stress Your Friend." She explains that for years she has been teaching people that stress makes you sick. However, research now shows us that it is actually our views on stress that are harmful. If we see stress as negative, it has an adverse affect on our wellbeing. According to McGonigal, "if we change how we think about stress by viewing stress as positive, it can make us healthier. When you change your mind about stress, you can change your body's response to stress" (TED, 2013). McGonigal further explains that we recover more quickly from stress when we seek support. She says "our stress response has a built-in mechanism for stress resilience, and that mechanism is human connection." McGonigal provides a paradigm shift in the way we view stress. She no longer demonizes stress but teaches stress resilience by emphasizing that stress can be a positive in our lives and that having a positive attitude about stress and seeking social support is key (TED, 2013). McGonigal's TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/kelly_mcgonigal_how_to_make_stress_your_friend.

Path-Goal Theory: Motivation

In his TED Talk entitled "The Puzzle of Motivation," Daniel Pink, bestselling author of *Drive*, explains the science of motivation, particularly the dynamics of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. He explains that businesses are primarily built around the assumption that we are primarily motivated by extrinsic motivators. Pink presents the long history of research that shows that extrinsic motivators are not effective which is counterintuitive for many of us because we have worked in systems that operate out of this 20th century notions of motivation. He says that "for 21st century tasks, that mechanistic, reward-and-punishment approach doesn't work, often doesn't work, and often does harm." Pink makes the case that "there is a mismatch between what science knows and what business does" (TED, 2009)

Pink argues for a new approach to motivation – one that emphasizes intrinsic rewards. He claims that "autonomy, mastery, and purpose are the building blocks of a new way of doing things." Pink challenges us to rid ourselves of the 20th century view of motivation because we can change the world by aligning business practices with what science tells us about motivation (TED, 2009). Pink's TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/dan_pink_on_motivation.

Followership: Leadership is Over Glorified

Entrepreneur Derek Sivers offers a humorous view on followership in his short TED Talk "How to Start a Movement." He highlights that leaders should embrace followers as equals, new

followers emulate followers, and that followers make a movement. Most importantly, he emphasizes that leadership is over glorified. Sivers explains that "If you really care about starting a movement, have the courage to follow and show others how to follow." Meanwhile, a dose of whimsy makes this TED Talk fun as a shirtless dancing guy along with his dancing followers cleverly illustrate Sivers' points (TED, 2010a). Sivers' TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/derek_sivers_how_to_start_a_movement.

Servant Leadership: Everyday Leadership

Drew Dudley, former Leadership Development coordinator at the University of Toronto, Scarborough and founder of Nuance Leadership Development Services, shares an "ah ha" leadership moment as a student leader in his TED Talk, "Everyday Leadership." He claims that we have "made leadership into something bigger than us. We have made into something beyond us. We've made it about changing the world." By sharing a heartwarming story as a student leader, Dudley explains that we should begin taking credit for the small things that we do that impact others' lives. He challenges us to think of catalyst moments where we, in seemingly insignificant everyday moments, can be powerful. Dudley also asks us to think of those people in our lives who made a huge impact, although they may not know it (TED, 2010b)

In this TED Talk, we are challenged to redefine leadership. Dudley says that if you change "one person's understanding of what they're capable of, one person's understanding of how much people care about them, one person's understanding of how powerful an agent for change they can be in this world" then you will change the way we understand leadership (TED, 2010b). Dudley's TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/drew_dudley_everyday_leadership.

Authentic Leadership: A Positive Approach

"Shawn Achor is the winner of over a dozen distinguished teaching awards at Harvard University, where he delivered lectures on positive psychology in the most popular class at Harvard." In his TED Talk, "The Happy Secret to Better Work," Achor shares the science of happiness and how it can revolutionize the workplace (TED, 2011b).

Achor explains that our happiness is not about our external circumstances, but about our internal world or how we perceive it. In other words, our reality is shaped by our perceptions. He says "the lens through which your brain views the world that shapes your reality. And if we can change the lens, not only can we change your happiness, we can change every single educational and business outcome at the same time" (TED, 2011b)

Achor argues that if we change the way we perceive happiness and success, then we can change the way we affect reality. Rather than thinking that if we are more successful we will be happier, we should understand that our happiness in the present defines our success because our brains perform better in positive states. Achor closes by sharing strategies to make our brain more positive (TED, 2011b). Achor's TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/shawn_achor_the_happy_secret_to_better_work.

Psychodynamic Approach: Self-awareness

In her TED Talk “Know Thyself, With a Brain Scanner,” Ariel Garten shows how looking at our own brain activity gives new meaning to the ancient dictum "know thyself." She is a psychotherapist, CEO and co-founder of InteraXon, which creates thought controlled computing products and applications, and has also researched at the Krembil Neuroscience Institute studying hippocampal neurogenesis (TED, 2011a).

Today we spend a lot of time thinking about how we can reflect ourselves into the world without enough time spent reflecting about ourselves. Garten shows us a way to humanize technology in our quest for self-awareness. This technology allows us to see our brain waves to know how relaxed or focused we are in a tangible way. She explains how this new technology “opens up vast possibilities for applications that help improve our lives and ourselves. We are trying to create technology that uses the insights to make our work more efficient, our breaks more relaxing and our connections deeper and more fulfilling than ever” (Garten, 2011a)

Garten describes how humanized technology allows us to be “intra-active” and by knowing what is going on inside our brains, we can in turn use this information for increased self-awareness and self-improvement. It can make us more effective in work and play and connect with ourselves in a way that has never been possible until now (TED, 2011a). Garten’s TED Talk can be found at http://www.ted.com/talks/ariel_garten_know_thyself_with_a_brain_scanner.

In summary, I have described six TED talks (outlined in the table below) we can use as leadership educators to provide additional insights into new ways of thinking about various leadership topics. They were selected not only because their content aligns with course topics, but more importantly because they provide new ways to think about the multi-faceted nuances of leadership. Conference participants will benefit from

Table 1.
TED Talks Summary

Leadership Topic	TED Talk Speaker &Title	TED Talk Description
Leadership Skills: Stress Management	Kelly McGonigal “How to Make Stress Your Friend”	Stress can be positive in our lives and having a positive attitude about seeking support is key.
Path-Goal Theory: Motivation	Daniel Pink “The Puzzle of Motivation”	We are challenged to rid ourselves of the 20th century view of motivation because intrinsic motivators are what really work.
Followership: Leadership is Over Glorified	Derek Sivers “How to Start a Movement”	Leaders should embrace followers as equals, new followers emulate followers, and followers make a movement.

Servant Leadership: Everyday Leadership	Drew Dudley "Everyday Leadership"	In seemingly everyday moments, we can be powerful.
Authentic Leadership: A Positive Approach	Shawn Anchor "The Happy Secret to Better Work"	We explore the how the science of happiness and how it can can revolutionize the workplace.
Psychodynamic Approach: Self-awareness	Ariel Garten "Know Thyself, with a Brain Scanner"	We are shown how humanizing technology can revolutionize our quest for self-awareness.

Reflections of the Practitioner

My students report that they thoroughly enjoy the TED Talks as a part of class activities. The talks are informative, interesting, and often humorous. Many times, I have listened to my students talk about the TED Talks as they walk out of class and there have been times that they sit around after class discussing the talk. I have not found this to be the case with YouTube videos. And as good as my evaluations may be, oh, how I wish they would do the same just with my lectures.

As outlined in the previous section, the connections between the leadership topics and the TEDTalks may appear to be fairly obvious as presented. However, this is not always the case with the students. They can get so enthralled with the science, a new way of thinking, or the funny stories that they may "forget" how it relates with the day's leadership topic. Therefore, I have found that I have to be intentional in bringing the TED Talk debriefing back to the theoretical construct. The connection is there so this is not difficult, however my experience has shown me to always anticipate this to happen and be necessary.

I have also found that many students already watch TED Talks – for fun! They find them interesting and a way to learn about new things in a short format that is easy to access. What makes this terrific is that when their classmates learn this, they want to know more. They are invested in the class TED Talks, but then also inquire about what their classmates are viewing, and then become TED Talk viewers on their own.

Recommendations

TED Talks are a media allow leadership educators to teach leadership theory in new and inventive. We can use video as a teaching tool to captures students' attention, provide a catalyst for thoughtful discussion (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackerman, 2003), and generate dialogue to drive home difficult or complex points (Williams, 2006). TED Talks do all of these things and more. In conclusion, I recommend that leadership educators explore how TED Talks can enhance their teaching. While I have presented six talks I hope my session participants will use, there are countless more to explore. And who knows, maybe they will even check out some TED Talks that are not related to leadership.

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Circles of Learning: Applying Socratic Pedagogy to Learn Modern Leadership

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Abstract

Socratic Circles provide a structured discussion based learning strategy based in Socratic pedagogy, beneficial to the development of student leadership skills. The following session will provide descriptions of implementation methods; outcomes related to Seemiller's (2014) Student Leadership Competencies; and practitioner reflections of the use of Socratic Circles in leadership courses.

Introduction

In 2013 Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen proposed the National Leadership Education Agenda providing strategic direction for research in the leadership education field. Priority one of the agenda addresses the teaching, learning, and curriculum development of the field of leadership education. Furthering the research agenda in leadership education, the following proposed teaching practice, Socratic Circles, supports the capacity and competency development process of leadership education learners (Andenoro, et al., 2013). Moving beyond a typical classroom discussion, Socratic Circles turn ownership and discussion over to the students. We offer Socratic Circles as a structured discussion based activity developing students' metacognition and intellectual discourse skills. In this proposal we will discuss the implementation and outcomes of Socratic Circles, providing reflections from execution in the leadership classroom and recommendations for use.

Socratic Circles provide a platform for students to engage in meaningful discussions with peers encouraging the development of leadership competencies in areas of communication, self-awareness, interpersonal interactions, and civic responsibility (Seemiller, 2014). Students are challenged to think more deeply about a topic of discussion through questioning and the sharing of differing perspectives. The purpose of Socratic Circles is not to identify definitive answers to issues in leadership, but discuss topics engaging multiple points of view and experiences. Feedback sessions allow for students to work together identifying strategies to be better participants of discussions. It is the feeling of discomfort that creates an environment supportive for student engagement in discussion and community building with peers.

Literature Review

Learner-Centered Leadership Classrooms

Understanding that leadership and leadership development are defined as a process, leadership educators utilize teaching strategies that are learner-centered to provide active participation and reflection for leadership students. Experiential learning and discussion-based activities provide students a supportive environment to actively engage in leadership and process experiences, developing leadership skills and philosophies. Jenkins and Cutchens (2011) argue experiential learning strategies encourage critical thinking in the classroom, translating to leading critically in

decision-making and action. Guthrie and Bertrand Jones (2012) identify the need for both experiential learning and reflection, illuminating the opportunity leadership educators have in guiding students' meaning making of personal experiences. Many leadership educators use classroom discussion to process experiences in leadership and information regarding topics of leadership.

Jenkins (2013) found the most commonly used teaching method in leadership classrooms was discussion-based pedagogies, with the understanding that leadership is relational and discussions create an environment that, "emphasizes inclusiveness, empowerment, and ethics through a defined process" (p. 55). Cross (2012) described a learning-centered discussion with the following words: high expectations, active engagement, cooperation, interaction, diversity, and responsibility. Educators value the utilization of classroom discussions to challenge students intellectually and promote the development of dialogue skills. While discussion-based activities are beneficial in the leadership classroom, Cross (2012) argues discussions require proper planning and structure on the part of the instructor. Socratic Circles provide leadership educators a structured, discussion-based teaching strategy beneficial to the leadership development of students, including the development of critical thinking and discussion skills needed to lead effectively.

Socratic Pedagogy

Based on the questioning employed by the ancient philosopher, Socratic pedagogy serves as learner-centered instructional strategies valuable to the development of student critical thinking and discussion skills. Gose (2009) identifies five strategies Socrates used in engaging in critical questioning with students: asking probing questions, questioning about relationships among ideas, using devil's advocate and comic relief roles, maintaining group relationships and processes, and identifying roles of discussion participants. The goal of Socratic pedagogy is to develop students' ability to think critically about and question evidence about information through classroom discussion (Gose, 2009; Paul & Elder, 2007; Polite & Adams, 1997; Tredway, 1995). Differing forms of Socratic pedagogy include Socratic questioning, seminars, and circles. Each instructional strategy engages students in higher order questioning; Socratic Circles provide a structured instructional strategy specific to development of questioning and intellectual dialogue skills.

Paul and Elder (2007) discussed the definition and benefits of Socratic questioning, defining Socratic questioning as, "systematic, disciplined, and deep" focusing on the discussion questioning of, "foundational concepts, principles, theories, issues, or problems" (p. 36). The benefits of Socratic questioning are two-fold: challenging students' metacognitive abilities and teaching them a critical questioning skill (Paul & Elder, 2007). Tredway (1995, p. 26) discussed Socratic seminars, arguing the use of Socratic seminars, defined as "structured discourse about ideas and moral dilemmas," contributes toward moral development and free inquiry in education. Compelling questions and cooperative inquiry challenge students to gather and analyze data before constructing ideas (Tredway, 1995). Socratic pedagogy develops students' critical thinking skills, behaviors, and attitudes towards differing opinions.
Socratic pedagogical teaching strategies are utilized in courses in secondary and higher education. Intending to change general psychology students into active learners, Ferguson (1986)

used Socratic dialogue to engage students in questioning readings and information presented in class. Students developed questions in reaction to readings based on personal experiences and discussed in small groups in class (Ferguson, 1986). Polite & Adams (1997) found that Socratic seminars used by middle school teachers, regardless of content area, aided in the cognitive and social functioning abilities of students. Copeland (2005) developed Socratic Circles as a classroom activity structured for intentional questioning as a means of engaging middle and high school English students in critical analysis of required texts. Socratic Circles engaged students in deep public discourse of social justice tenants, challenging students to question information, perspectives, and opinions of authors and classmates (North, 2009). While Socratic pedagogies are designed to enhance critical thinking and questioning, it is important for educators to demonstrate effective questioning strategies and plan for structured learning of the skill (Polite & Adams, 1997; Adams, 1997). Because of the need for planning, we propose the use of Socratic Circles in leadership education as a structured activity for students to engage in critical questioning of leadership topics and development of discourse skills.

Description of Socratic Circles Methods

Socratic Circles are structured for students to engage in both discussion and observation, providing feedback while the instructor facilitates the activity. Two circles are created when using this teaching strategy. The first circle is known as the inner circle, set up to face each other in order to have discussions. The responsibility of the inner circle is to discuss analysis of and questions pertaining to the assigned reading, video, or information source. The outer circle is situated around the outside of the inner circle facing inwards, as well. The responsibility of the outer circle is to observe the behavior and performance of the inner circle's discussion. After 10 minutes of discussion in the inner circle, 10 minutes should be used to provide feedback and evaluation from the outer circle. After completion of the first round of discussion and feedback, the circles will switch. Planning and facilitation skills are crucial for success implementing Socratic Circles as a teaching strategy.

Prior to engagement in the Socratic Circle activity, students read a passage of a text, preparing critical thoughts and questions for discussion. The method of Socratic Circles places students in a participant role and an observer role. While in the participant role students discuss the topic and reading. While in the observer role students evaluate the quality of discussion. These alternating roles encourage diversity of opinions and perspectives through critical thought and questioning of required texts. They also enable a feedback loop on discussion skills and challenge students to be open and aware of the diversity of thought.

Four Steps

Copeland (2005) suggests focusing on four steps for effective implementation of Socratic Circles: text selection, monitoring the inner circle, directing conversations of the outer circle, and the assessment and evaluation of the activity. The selection of text for the Socratic Circle is important for the foundation of in-class discussion. Instructors may choose to have students engage with and analyze a reading, sets of photos, music, movies or videos before participating in Socratic Circles. It is imperative for selection of materials for the discussion to be relevant and meaningful to students and align with the course curriculum. Copeland suggests selecting

materials that provide a, "richness of ideas, presentation of an issue, or examination of values," encouraging, "open and thoughtful conversation" (p. 31).

Once students have prepared with the necessary materials, half will then engage in the inner Socratic Circles discussion of the assigned reading. What truly makes the Socratic Circles teaching method learner-centered is the ability of the instructor to allow students to lead the discussion, to feel more, "ownership, control, and investment," in the conversation and learning process (Copeland, 2005, p. 32). Sitting as a member of the outer circle each round, the role of the instructor during the discussion is to coach students to move beyond simple answers while they engage in conversation. If discussion lags, instructors may use a probing question to re-engage students or redirect students. Instructors may also clarify or repeat student responses. Instructors should be aware of the time limit for the discussion phase of the Socratic Circles. Copeland (2005) suggests keeping initial discussions shorter to develop student time management of discussion and extending the length as experience is gained and richer conversations ensue.

When the inner circle's discussion has concluded, the instructor facilitates the feedback conversation of the outer circle. Students focus on providing positive and constructive criticism. Instructors can guide feedback by providing students with scales to rate performance. To start conversations about feedback, Copeland (2005) suggests having each student provide one initial observation of the discussion, encouraging every student to participate. Once everyone has shared, the instructor should prompt the outer circle to brainstorm possible solutions for improved performance.

In order to effectively develop student discussion and feedback skills, it is imperative for instructors to provide timely assessment and evaluation for individual students and the whole class. Copeland (2005) suggests providing feedback after each inner circle discussion and after the entirety of the activity. Using rubrics, written feedback, and scorecards or maps are examples of guided feedback for individual students and the class (Copeland, 2005). Well-intentioned feedback will acknowledge the achievement of students and provide suggestions for mastering proficiency.

Alternatives

This basic structure can be modified in a myriad of ways to adapt to the curriculum and the participants. For example, consider a three-round design with medium class sizes, utilizing three groups, rather than two. When conducted with small classes of fewer than 24 students, the two-rounds design works well with half the class, recommending no more than 12 students, per circle. With medium classes of 25 to 40 students, half the class is still quite large for a group discussion. In these settings consider moving from two rounds of Socratic Circles to three rounds. This still involves an inner circle and an outer circle, but only one third of the students in the inner circle. Students then participate in two rounds in the outer circle, and one round in the inner circle. This design functions largely the same as the two-round design, with students still getting a small-group discussion and listening to other groups' discussions.

For a deeper group discussion, consider having five minutes of paired discussions prior to commencing the Socratic Circles activity. There are at least three benefits to doing this pre-activity discussion. First, it centers student's minds on the topic of the day; they all are thinking on topic before their time begins in the Socratic Circle. Second, this supports students who speak less in group settings, allowing them to share their thoughts in a one-on-one setting first, then after the practice they may feel more ready to share with the group. Third, this enables every student the opportunity to share thoughts on the topic and feel heard. This lessens the frequency that students will bring the group discussion to focus on themselves during the Socratic Circle activity.

Finally, consider a pre-worksheet. Copeland (2005) addresses material selection. But going further, consider adding a worksheet that students prepare for the day of the Socratic Circle. This should include questions that focus students on the key points the instructor wants them to gain from the material. Further, at the worksheet's end, include the prompt "What is one question you have for your classmates?" Students' responses here then become excellent discussion questions during the Socratic Circle. Encourage students to have their worksheet out during the group discussion and refer to their own response to the prompt when the group is ready for a new question. This easy addition can greatly enhance the group conversation by supporting students in being well prepared for the discussion.

Considerations and limitations

Along with the power of Socratic Circles pedagogy to facilitate learning of leadership, a few points of caution are warranted when preparing lesson plans. Commit to using Socratic Circles in at least three lessons during the course. The first time students experience a Socratic Circle activity they frequently push back on the unfamiliar pedagogy. This feedback is common after the first lesson. However, this discomfort is part of the learning experience. Educators should listen to and acknowledge students' concerns, but consider identifying discomfort as a space for learning, highlighting that different lessons resonate with different students throughout the course. After at least three experiences with Socratic Circles students can better assess the value of the pedagogy.

The material chosen for the Socratic Circle discussion topic should be stimulating to students. Particularly in leadership education, theories like servant leadership or topics such as social justice issues are excellent choices. Students thrive in Socratic Circles when there is a lack of agreement on the discussion topic and they are listening to understand others' viewpoints.

Beware of changing classroom dynamics over repeated uses of Socratic Circles. We have used the method in up to five lessons per semester. After two times, we observe that students have addressed many of the constructive criticisms highlighted early on and there is less need to focus on these. Instead the time can be devoted to more in-depth discussions. We also found that around the fifth time the format began to feel overly familiar to students, and so we have settled on four times to be a good fit. Leadership educators would do well to be mindful of what frequency works best for their curriculum and their students.

Outcomes

The learning outcomes of Socratic Circles strongly resonate with Seemiller's (2014) Student Leadership Competencies. Though multiple competencies are addressed using Socratic Circles, we discuss six key competencies toward which Socratic Circles most contribute. The six competencies met by the use of Socratic Circles are verbal communication, advocating point of view, listening, receiving and giving feedback, productive relationships, and inclusion. All are competencies needed for leaders to effectively include others in the process of leadership.

Students learn effective verbal communication strategies allowing them to practice speaking within groups (Seemiller, 2014). Copeland (2005) identifies speaking as an academic skill learned through the engagement in Socratic Circles. Prepared to share thoughts and ideas, students are better able to participate verbally in the inner circle because they have prepared questions and answered prompts given with the assigned text or video. Feedback with brainstormed strategies for improvement from peers allows students to reflect on strategies to better verbally communicate while participating in the inner circle.

Learning to advocate one's point of view is a competency gained from Socratic Circles. Seemiller (2014) identifies advocating point of view as, "Understanding strategies to effectively communicate one's beliefs, opinions, or ideas so that others clearly and fully understand both the meaning and significance" (p. 101). Socratic Circles create an environment for students to share openly their personal opinions and experiences, developing their social skills (Copeland, 2005). The purpose of Socratic Circles is not to identify answers to questions, but to garner a diversity of perspectives, encouraging students to advocate their point of view by sharing with peers.

Socratic Circles encourages the development of the listening competency. Well-developed listening skills allow students to effectively receive a message communicated by a peer verbally (Seemiller, 2014). Listening skills prepare students to engage in discussion, listening attentively and effectively in order to consider peer's thoughts and challenge personal beliefs (Copeland, 2005). Students must engage in active listening when participating in the inner circle so as not to repeat questions and thoughts, keeping the discussion meaningful and rich with ideas.

Socratic Circles are designed for the receiving and giving of feedback from peers. Receiving feedback from peers is important for the development of self and increasing the ability to work with others; giving feedback to peers is important for providing constructive criticism and praise in a respectful manner in order to encourage the development of peer's leadership skills (Seemiller, 2014). Socratic Circles help create an environment for students to receive and give timely feedback in measurement of their ability to engage in and contribute to the discussion. Students work together to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses, brainstorming strategies to improve their discussion skills.

Developing productive relationships is another competency addressed by Socratic Circles. Productive relationships provide students the skills to connect with peers in a meaningful way, contributing to the well-being of all members in the discussion (Seemiller, 20014). Productive relationships are a social skill that enhances team and community building skills suggested by Copeland (2005). Together, students build relationships on respect and affirmation through the sharing, understanding, and listening of each other's thoughts, opinions, and perspectives.

Lastly, Socratic Circles supports the competency of inclusion. Students demonstrating inclusion possess skills to, "…include others in roles, processes, and experiences" (Seemiller, 2014, p. 78). Socratic Circles encourages team and community building through the inclusion of members by creating an environment which values the personal experiences of all students regardless of personal beliefs or demographics (Copeland, 2005). Socratic Circles encourage students to engage in discussion with the purpose of learning from each other by sharing diverse experiences and challenging one another to think deeper about the topic. Students are challenged to encourage peers to share experiences through questioning and the use of identified strategies for greater inclusion given during feedback sessions.

Reflections of Practitioner

First introduced to Socratic Circles by a close friend teaching in middle school five years ago, I was hesitant about whether it was transferable to college students. Since implementing it in my own course, I have used the pedagogy every semester due to the transformative ability it has to empower students. When introducing it to a class for the first time, I emphasize its value to improve skills for team discussions, listening, and social perspective taking. These skills are key leadership outcomes, as described earlier within Seemiller's framework.

At the end of every semester the course evaluations frequently mention Socratic Circles. They are polarizing, with a few students each time commenting on how engaging in Socratic Circles was the least favorite class activity. During finals week I ask students to identify the five lessons they gained the most from of the 35 lessons we have covered together and to describe what they have gained in their reflection. Even more students include Socratic Circles here. The descriptions often start, "At first I didn't like Socratic Circles but…" -- and go on to discuss how the student was positively changed by the experiences provided by the learning strategy. They describe the value they gained from being challenged to act as observer in the outer group, only allowed to listen to the inner group. They see their role as a group member differently, choosing more carefully what would contribute to the group's discussion. But the strongest affirmations come from students who describe learning that their peers valued their own personal opinion.

Further Research

Further research is needed on this relatively new pedagogy. The literature on Socratic Circles is dominated by prescriptive lesson planning but little literature contains empirical evidence to understand the lasting effects as a teaching strategy, which students may most benefit, as well as the instructor-level effects on instructional effectiveness. Next steps for future research should include qualitative investigations of student perceptions through individual interviews. These should be conducted shortly after the Socratic Circle experiences, as well as a month or two later to examine the lasting memories students have of the experiences. After identifying this through individual interviews, the development of a survey instrument would enable more broad study of many students' experiences, including the competencies gained as a participant and observer, and in the process providing and receiving feedback.

Conclusion

Adding to the National Leadership Education Agenda in the area of teaching, learning, and curriculum development (Andernoro, et. al., 2013), Socratic Circles provides a learner-centered teaching strategy for leadership educators to structure in-class discussions. Socratic Circles place students in the center of discussion, allowing students to engage in both the role as participant and observer, and engaging in feedback sessions. Outcomes of Socratic Circles support the Student Leadership Competencies proposed by Seemiller (2014), engaging students in the development of communication, self-awareness, interpersonal interaction, and civic responsibility skills. Though we have experienced push back from students when first implementing Socratic Circles in the classroom, the experience from engaging with the instructional strategy multiple times in a course has demonstrated powerful experiences from students in learning how to be better engaged in discussions, as well as understanding differing points of view and feeling accepted for differing points of view. It is recommended that further research include both qualitative and quantitative methods to better understand the impact and effects Socratic Circles has on the leadership development of students.

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Making Connections: Alumni Leader Qualitative Research Project

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Abstract

In a qualitative interview research project, students are paired with alumni to learn about leadership from a first-hand source. Students are assigned an alumnus/na, develop a research question, and conduct a qualitative interview. Session participants will learn about project successes and areas for growth, as well instructional topics and resources.

Introduction

This project is the result of a Mellon Initiative for research in the liberal arts. One of the major goals of the Mellon Initiative is greater integration of research skills and research opportunities into the Arts and Humanities curriculum for the purpose of better preparing students to engage in scholarly practice. In addition, embedding research experiences into the curriculum affords more students an opportunity to learn through open-ended inquiry and exploration – a learning mode many have argued is the most powerful (Klos, Shanahan, Young, eds., 2011). The research project provides students an "experience of real investigative scholarship […], a sense of authority over a specific topic in the course, practice identifying and pursuing a significant question, experience synthesizing material from a variety of sources, exposure to professional literature in the field, and practice using library resources, research methods, and systems of documentation" (Gottschalk & Hjortshoj, 2004, p. 107). The alumni leader project is designed to build specific research skills students may need in more advanced coursework.

Project student learning outcomes include: 1) Students will be able to write a formal research paper in APA format; 2) Students will be able to apply qualitative interview techniques; and 3) Students will be able to compare/contrast data from the alumni interview with Communication & Effective Leadership course content.

Review of Related Scholarship

Student persistence and retention to graduation remains a priority for all institutions of higher education. With this in mind, the alumni leader qualitative research project enables mentoring relationships between undergraduate students and alumni, ultimately leading to a relationship with utility, and earned positive emotions connected to the institution. Bean (2005) suggested that research and practice related to student persistence should pay attention to emotional factors that influence students' decisions to stay or depart. In other words, positive emotional connections to the institution can help retain students. Positive emotional connections to the institution are formed through the research project due to the increased propensity for networking and mentoring relationships with alumni.

While not all student-alumnus/na research groups lead to long-term connections or mentoring opportunities, many do. In "The Art and Science of Mentorship: Lead by Teaching," Sanders (2015) describes the mentoring cycle as a three-step, circular approach: identify, engage, and empower. He states: "Mentorship is not just a chance encounter or delivered in a random set of conversations" (Sanders, 2015, p. 32). Mentoring relationships occur within the context of this project due to specialized matching by the instructor to identify shared experiences and goals (in an area of study, projected career path, or personal interests) between alumni and students. The project also fulfills step two of the mentoring cycle, "engage," through extended communication with the alumnus/na leading up to, during, and after the structured qualitative interview. These interactions set the stage for students and alumni to engage in future conversations and interactions.

Developing a positive relationship between the student and the institution increases student loyalty and persistence. Utilizing a student loyalty predicator inventory, Vianden and Barlow (2014) examined students and their relationship with institutions of higher education. The researchers report that the "student-customer" relationship can be managed in productive ways by university constituents. A research project that highlights the institution's full-circle approach to simultaneously engaging students and alumni is one way educators can manage the student-institution relationship and increase student loyalty.

Students learn by doing. The research project engages students with alumni leaders who have experienced conflict, tension, and crisis. Via Kolb & Fry's (1975) experiential learning model, students question: "What? So what? Now what?" When tension exists between what is expected and what occurs, an opportunity for learning is present. This process is often referred to as meaning-making. Through the research project, students are forced to consider the role of a leader through the lens of their assigned alumnus/na and "[think] about what happened, what can be learned from it, and how to go about it next time" (Drechsler & Jones, Jr. 2009, p. 421).

Description of the Practice

The purpose of the project is for students to learn about leadership experiences through the lens of alumni in a formal research project. Course content is enveloped within the project through each groups' research question(s) and the development of relevant and applicable interview questions.

Students are provided an overview of the project at the beginning of the semester through the syllabus and via a project description (Appendix A). Within the first two weeks of class, multiple steps of the research project begin to unfold. Relevant in-class instruction includes: developing a research question, qualitative interviews, and literature reviews (see Project Components & Timeline in Appendix A). Small, low-stakes writing assignments aid students in progressively assembling sections of the research paper throughout the semester. Exemplary examples of previously completed projects are shared with students. Students receive instructor and peer feedback throughout the project, specifically in regards to draft research question(s), peer-editing of draft research papers, and group presentations and feedback sessions prior to the submission of the final paper. The project culminates in an in-class panel experience in which alumni participants share elements of their leadership journey with students.

Please see appendices for the following items:

Appendix A	Research Project Description
Appendix B	Research Project Rubric
Appendix C	Guided Peer Review of Papers

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Through the development of a 7-9 page APA-formatted research paper, students learn the major steps of a research project, the purpose of a qualitative interview, and real-life connections between course content and alumni leader experiences. What emerges at the conclusion of the project is experiential knowledge of the research process and shared leadership lessons that students can apply in their own lives.

In the future, post-project evaluations should be employed to evaluate not only project learning outcomes, but also student-alumni relationships and alumni impact.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Course evaluations indicate the alumni leader qualitative research project is the favored course assignment. In addition, through an in-class review of the project, students readily articulate the added value of alumni networking and mentoring relationships. An unsolicited alumni reaction shared via email also illustrates the meaningful experience from the alumni perspective: “[Betsy] came in today pumped, and I mean PUMPED, about her experience this morning serving on the panel in your leadership class, engaging with the students and you, and talking for an extended time with one young woman after class. As she put it, "I am on such a high!"

Recommendations

The alumni leader qualitative interview project (or any variation thereof) is ideal for educators who desire to introduce or engage undergraduate students in academic research. While research subjects could be members of the local community or campus community, the full circle approach to re-engaging alumni in the classroom provides an opportunity for mentoring relationships and contributes to the institutional goal of fostering institutional loyalty and student persistence.

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Appendix A
Research Project Description: Leader Interview

This research project will allow students to learn about leadership experiences from a first-hand source and acquire and practice qualitative research (interview) skills. In teams of three, students will be assigned a Trinity alumnus/na, develop a relevant research question(s), and conduct a structured qualitative interview (in-person or virtual) with this individual.

Alumni volunteer to participate in this project through the "Alumni in the Classroom" collaboration between Academic Affairs and Alumni Relations. Alumni and students will be matched by the instructor based on students' career interests, as well as intended or declared areas of study (whenever possible). Interview questions may cover organizational culture, leadership communication, leadership style, relationship-building, leadership in crisis, ethical leadership, or other applicable course material.

This research project provides students an "experience of real investigative scholarship […], a sense of authority over a specific topic in the course, practice identifying and pursuing a significant question, experience synthesizing material from a variety of sources, exposure to professional literature in the field, and practice using library resources, research methods, and systems of documentation" (Gottschalk & Hjortshoj, 2004, p. 107).

Project Learning Outcomes:
Students will be able to –

1. Write a formal research paper in APA format
2. Apply qualitative interview techniques

3. Compare/contrast data from the alumni interview with course content

The research paper should include the following sections and follow this format:

1. Title page
    a. Follow APA guidelines
2. Abstract
    a. In one paragraph, provide a succinct overview of the method, results, and discussion
3. Literature review
    a. Utilize at least two supplemental scholarly articles selected by the group, summarize them, and provide a clear connection to your research question (note: this is an amended version of a full literature review)
4. Method
    a. Describe the details of your study (who, what, where, & when of the interview)
5. Results
    a. Describe how you analyzed the data and what you found
6. Discussion
    a. Interpret your findings and respond to your research question; include these elements:
        i. Compare and contrast your data to at least one leadership theory we have discussed in class;
        ii. Respond to the communication implications of leadership that are relevant to your findings;
        iii. Describe the limitations of the study, including qualitative interviews as a research tool
7. Conclusions & future study
    a. Try to answer the question "So what?" and address additional questions that were generated from your study

The APA-formatted research paper should be between 7-9 pages in length. The audience for this paper is alumni and your peers who are not in this class. Assume a position of power to an audience who knows less than you do about the topic. This project will also include a class presentation (10-15 minutes). Local alumni will be invited to come to class for a panel experience to share their insights with students.

Project Components & Timeline

Step	Description	Deadline	Assessment	Completed? (Y/N)
Research paper: format	A librarian will provide APA formatting tips and resources, as well as review how to access scholarly journal articles for the literature review section of the paper.	Occur in class on Jan. 22	Class participation	

Develop a research question	In-class group work in which students examine questions about models/theories, develop draft research questions, and present to the class for feedback	Occur in class on Jan. 29; submit research question via email on Feb. 3	Class participation; research question will receive instructor approval	
Qualitative interviews: context & practice	Class lecture will highlight stages of interview investigation and suggested interview procedure. Groups will develop relevant questions, practice interview techniques, and provide feedback to each other. [See supplemental article: Turner, D.W., III (2010)]	Occur in class on Feb. 10	Class participation	
Writing a research paper	Paper format and sample research papers will be reviewed.	Occur in class on Feb. 10	Class participation	
Research paper: outline	Submit a one-page proposal that represents what you will be writing about in your formal research paper (including the research question(s), possible sources, and other relevant details).	Submit proposal via TLearn on Feb. 17	Instructor feedback	
Research paper: literature review	In class discussion reviewing elements of a literature review. Submit a draft literature review section that summarizes two articles and makes a clear connection to your research question.	Occur in class on Feb. 24; submit draft via TLearn on March 3	Instructor feedback	
Research paper: methods section	Submit a draft methods section in which the “who, what, where, & when” of the qualitative interview is stated.	Submit draft via TLearn on March 19	Instructor feedback	
Research paper: draft feedback	Prior to class, students will be assigned two papers to evaluate using a rubric. In class, groups of 3 will provide verbal feedback on draft papers. Project groups should take this feedback into consideration	Submit via Google folder on March 30; peer feedback provided in	Class participation; peer feedback	

	when making revisions and preparing for the presentation.	class on April 2		
Presentation	As a group, present 10-15 minute overview of the formal research paper and receive feedback from peers via a formal rubric and group/member observation form (this provides yet another chance to revise prior to submitting a final paper). Presentation should include PPT, Prezi, or other multi-media form. All members should play a role.	Occur in class on April 9 and 14	Class participation; peer and instructor feedback; presentation grade	
Final paper	Final paper 6-9 pages in length following requirements for written work as specified in course syllabus.	Submit via TLearn on April 21	Instructor feedback; final project grade	

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Appendix B
Research Project Rubric

Alumni Leader Interview Research Project Rubric (25%)

AREAS	CRITERIA	MAX POINTS	ACTUAL POINTS	NOTES
Leader interview research project (paper &	Rough draft • Did the student/group submit a rough draft, provide feedback via feedback form, and participate in the peer feedback session?	3		

presentation)	Final draft of research paper
	• Lit Review:
	  ○ Two relevant supplemental resources (scholarly articles) that connect to the research question(s)
	• Discussion:
	  ○ Compare & contrast interview data with at least one theory
	  ○ Communication implications of leadership in relation to interview data & findings
	  ○ Identify study limitations
	• Methods:
	  ○ Who, what, where, when of qualitative interview
	• Results
	  ○ What did you find?
	• Conclusion
	  ○ "So what?" and additional questions
		16
		*(The analysis and synthesis demonstrate mastery of the subject, interacting fairly with alternative or opposing points of view. Inferences, insights, and conclusions drawn from the data are valid and logical, being fully supported with strong evidence.)**		

	Paper Organization & Grammar • Is the paper free from grammatical errors? Does it flow in an organized fashion? Does it follow APA format? • Yes or No: Does the paper meet the page requirement?	1		
	Presentation • Was the group prepared to share information about the research project with class? • Did the group make clear connections between interview data and course material? • Did the group thoroughly respond to questions from peers?	5	Instructor: Peers: Total:	
	Research project checklist • Yes or No: Did the student submit all draft sections of the research project per stated deadlines?			

TOTAL		25		

*Adapted from William Carey International University (research paper grading rubric).

Appendix C
Guided Peer Review of Papers

A Guided Peer Review of Papers (HCOM:3364)
The purpose of peer revision is to strengthen your writing. This guided form will (hopefully) eliminate emotion (the fear of getting your feelings hurt and being judged) and risk of failure (the fear that you did something wrong as a writer) from the revision process. Instead, you can expect:

- Identification of material and key project components;
- Comprehension and analysis (not evaluation) by your peers.

Instructions: Respond to the prompts below as directed. When asked to comment on the paper itself, please utilize double-entry revision (feedback such as positive notes and items of interest should appear in the left margin; errors or other comments should appear in the right margin) unless otherwise directed.

Format

1. Does the paper follow the stated format?

Y or N (circle one)

2. In what ways could the author improve the paper's format? Respond below.

Thesis

1. What do you think is the thesis of the paper? Paraphrase it below.

2. Put stars around the sentence that you believe is the thesis statement in this paper.

3. At what point in the paper did you identify the thesis?

Main Points & Comprehension

1. List below the main points of the paper.

2. In each paragraph of the paper, underline the topic sentence.

3. Highlight, in any color, passages you had to read more than once to understand what the writer was saying.

4. Bracket any sentences that you find particularly strong or effective and discuss why below.

5. Underline the weakest portions of the paper and discuss why below.

Errors

1. Put a checkmark in the margin next to any line that has a spelling, grammar, punctuation, or mechanical error. Let the writer identify and correct the error.

Overall

1. What do you find most compelling about the paper?

2. How is the tone appropriate or inappropriate for the audience?

3. Suggest corrections that would improve any aspect of the author's paper.

____ Strong ____ Average ____ Weak

Did the reviewer respond to all items?
Are the responses reasonable?

Learning from Pigs: Using Orwell's *Animal Farm* to Explore Organizational Theory

Brian Davenport
University of Southern Maine

Abstract

Using classic literature to explore leadership theory and practice is not new. While this is the case, there are still multiple ways to creatively use literature in the classroom. This paper explores one particular opportunity, using Orwell's (1987) *Animal Farm* to gain a deeper understanding of organizational theory and practice.

Introduction

During World War II, Orwell, a strong critic of both Hitler and fascism, occupied himself by writing a book that served to critique neither Hitler or Fascism, but instead took direct aim at Soviet Communism (Hitchens, 2003). The result of this effort was *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987), a fairly short account of an animal takeover of a generic farm in the English countryside. This simple story had difficulty finding a publisher in both England and the United States at the time, but has since gone on to become required reading in schools across both countries (Hitchens, 2003). What is interesting is that the possibilities that this simple story holds is beyond that of a statement on communism or basic literary criticism. Instead, as presented below, this story can be used to expand and enhance the understanding and application of organizational theory and leadership while, at the same time, providing an enjoyable experience for students. In short, *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) has great potential for the leadership educator seeking to provide greater learning opportunities for students.

Review of Related Scholarship

According to Porter (1991), "fictional literature, by definition, involves imaginary characters and events, but it is precisely such imagination that can be a great teacher – if we accept the challenge to learn from it" (p. v). Literature offers a variety of learning opportunities, and these opportunities expand beyond the traditional scope of literary criticism. Part of the reason this is true is that:

> fiction gives an appreciation of issues that span time and settings, lending itself to interpretation at many levels – literal and symbolic. Fiction provides richness in the description of feelings, people and places, and presents issues in an entertaining and memorable way. All of these reasons suggest that the humanities, as exemplified by literature, can play a valuable role in educating people (Puffer, 1991, p. xv).

The breadth and depth of realities presented in literature provide an opportunity for deep learning that might not be accessible in traditional leadership texts. It is with this in mind that leadership educators have begun turning toward literature in an effort to expand and deepen the education of their students.

In an effort to capitalize on the possibilities offered by literature, Badaracco (2006) reflected that "serious fiction gives us a unique, inside view of leadership" (p. 3). Badaracco isn't the only leadership educator to make this connection either, as a variety of leadership scholars have begun to see how literature can be used to explore leadership in greater detail (Clemens & Goodsell, 2006; Hatcher, 2006; March & Weil, 2005; Puffer, 1991). This should come as no surprise either, as much of what is explored in great literature is also necessary for great leadership and vice versa. As March and Weil (2005) explained:

> the fundamental issues of leadership – the complications involved in becoming, being, confronting, and evaluating leaders – are not unique to leadership. They are echoes of critical issues of life more generally. As a result, they are characteristically illuminated more by great literature than by modern essays or research on leadership. (p. 1)

It is with this in mind that leadership educators have begun to use literature to teach leadership, seeking to expand the tools used to explore both leadership and humanity. Literature allows this because, as Badaracco (2006) explained, literature, "can broaden our view of leadership by showing us leaders in a wide range of circumstances" (p. 4). Literature gives the student of leadership access to experiences and situations that she or he might not otherwise be able to experience. What is interesting though, is that using great pieces of literature in this way allows for students to find meaning in the work that may not have been intended by the author. Though, as Weil (2006) noted, "a written piece belongs as much to its readers as to its author, and that meanings readers discover in a text are likely to be at least as interesting as those in the author's mind" (p. xiv). It is with this in mind that the author sought to use a classic piece of literature, Orwell's (1987) *Animal Farm*, to expose students to the chaotic dynamics of organizational change, a purpose not likely intended by Orwell.

Description of the Practice

The Organizational Theory course at the author's institution is designed to give students "a solid overview of organizational theories in leadership" (University of Southern Maine, 2015). To accomplish this task, the department has selected Bolman and Deal's (2013) *Rethinking Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership* as the primary text for all faculty to use. As a result, it is within the context of this text that this practice is undertaken, though it is likely that this practice will work regardless of organizational theory source material selection. Bolman and Deal lay out four frames through which to view organizations. They contend that each frame allows the leader to "decipher the full array of significant clues, capturing a more comprehensive picture of what's going on and what to do" (p. 5) within an organization. The concept is a sound one and provides students with a variety of ways to view and apply organizational theory. However, while the text is rife with practical examples, students, at times, still have difficulty accessing and understanding the material. It was with this in mind that the author turned to *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987).

For this course, *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) is used not as the typical "deadly satire on the illusion of Soviet Communism" (Hitchens, 2003, p. viii). Instead, *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) is presented as a story of an organization going through profound change and reorganization. This actually makes sense when the fact is considered that the story revolves around the animals

revolting and taking control of the farm from their human owners. This is, in essence, a radical shift in leadership of an organization. After the revolution, the farm finds itself under new leadership. The remainder of the story plays out over several farming seasons and provides exceptional examples of organizational change as well as leadership and human resource changes. As a result, students are able to read the story through the lens of organizational change and leadership, gaining a better understanding of the core theories presented in the course.

To facilitate this reading, students are asked to both read the text with the theoretical framework presented in *Reframing Organizations* (Bolman & Deal, 2013) in mind, as well as to write about their observations. In addition to a variety of discussion prompts that happen both online and in class, students are asked to write a final paper where they examine the organization of *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) through three of Bolman and Deal's (2013) frames. Specifically, students are asked:

> In 4-6 pages, use the organization found in the story of Animal Farm to explore three of the four frames . . . Be sure to include a description of the frames, examples from the story, and lessons, both positive and negative, which can be learned from the organization and applied in real life. (Davenport, 2014, p. 4)

What is produced by students demonstrates both the richness of *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) as well as the deeper understanding that it provides. In this short paper, students area able to access a deeper understanding of the organizational theories and apply them in a way that might not otherwise be accessible to them.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

When asked about their experience and thoughts around using *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) to understand organizational theory, students reported both a deeper understanding of the course material as well as greater enjoyment of the course. One student explained that the assignment was a, "great exercise in critical thinking. The written assignment forced me to read the book in a different way than times before. The tie into the class material was helpful in understanding organizational theory" (course evaluation, December, 2014). Another student commented that, "it was a simple story that was entertaining while allowing for learning by making comparisons and analysis using concepts from course material" (course evaluation, December, 2014). Finally, another student explained that "this was a great part of the course as a nice break from the textbook which I also enjoyed. However, it was enjoyable to work through our learning from the text and explore how it worked in *Animal Farm*" (course evaluation, December, 2014). While these comments are not exhaustive by any means, they are illustrative of the interest that students had in the exercise. Most students felt that not only was the exercise enjoyable, but that examining *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) as an organization undergoing change allowed for both a greater appreciation of the story itself as well as a deeper understanding of the course material.

Beyond the course applications of *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) it is also interesting to note the joy students found in either rereading this story or in being exposed to it for the first time. As one student explained, "at my age you would have thought I had read *Animal Farm* by now. I'm really enjoying the book very much" (discussion board, January, 2015). A second student

explained, "I also have enjoyed reading this book. I will admit when I went to the book store and they handed it to me my first reaction was "another book." It's not just another book, it's a great story" (discussion board, January, 2015). Finally, another student reflected on how reading *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) through the organizational theory lens has allowed for new appreciation of the book. He explained "it has been almost twenty years since I read this book the first time. And now reading it with the influence from this course, it feels as if I am reading a new book" (discussion board, January, 2015). If, as Puffer (1991) suggested, "the humanities . . . play a valuable role in educating people" (p. xv) then just the added appreciation and exposure to *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) can have a positive impact on students.

Reflections of the Practitioner

To some extent, the author was surprised at how well this exercise worked to get students to think about organizational theory and context in new a deeper ways. The depth of thought that student applied to the exercise was both enlightening and encouraging. While the author was aware of the scholarship around the use of literature in leadership education, he had not ever attempted to put this into practice. As a result of the success of this exercise the author has endeavored to add additional literature components to courses. Currently the author has expanded the use of literature in the Organizational Theory course to also include a selection from *The Adventure of Tom Sawyer* (Twain, 1998) to explore issues of power and influence.

However, even though the exercise worked well and has led to greater inclusion of literature in the course, the author believes that he could expand on the exercise to further tap the potential it holds. As it currently stands, *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) is used primarily for the mid-term paper. While there are a few discussion around the text, these are not as deep or expansive as they could be. In reflecting on the exercise, it is clear that the use of *Animal Farm* to explore organizational theory has greater potential and promise than is currently being utilized. The author believes that the current use is a great success, but also that even more could be harnessed from the use of this text to explore organizational theory.

Recommendations

As Fraiberg (2010) explained, "the characters, contexts, and challenges introduced in literary texts afford a significant opportunity for business people to examine leadership issues in a way that management textbooks just do not offer" (p. 98). The same could be said for what literature does for students. By using literature to explore leadership and organizational theory, a deeper and wider understanding of the theories and their applications is presented to students. While this particular practice focuses on the use of *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) to better understand organizational theory, specifically the theory as presented by Bolman and Deal (2013), there is ample room for greater use of both the story and the context. *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) contains a variety of scenarios that could be used to further explore organizational theory beyond the scope of Bolman and Deal (2013). It also has the potential to shed light on other aspects of leadership theory. Additionally, while the focus here is on *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987), the author hopes that the idea of using literature in general to explore leadership theories is evidenced and that there is greater excitement for seeking ways to continue implementing this practice in leadership courses. There is nothing to say that the possibilities are limited to

traditional classics either. It is possible to consider using everything from science fiction to popular literature as an avenue for continued teaching and exploration of leadership theory and practice. After conducting this exercise, it is the authors belief the general practice of using literature to explore leadership is fruitful and that using *Animal Farm* (Orwell, 1987) in particular is a valuable exercise.

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POSTERS

A Leadership Legacy (L2) Framework

Kerry K. Fierke
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Abstract

A leadership legacy (L2) is the imprint and significance of our talents and passions that exist long after we ourselves are gone. Leaving an L2 does not have a time limit, nor is it intended to be an end of life reflection. Rather, having a distinct legacy early in our lives can help us determine the proper pathways to take on a daily, weekly, and annual tasks with mindfulness. The L2 framework consists of six aspects: vision, foundation, intentional focus, meaningful relationships, resiliency and sustainability. This mixed-methods approach conducted through in-depth interviews of health care participants from eight countries explores the stories of successful individuals who have created an L2. The researcher will share further data results from the interviews as well as an in-depth explanation of the L2 framework.

West Virginia University Community Leadership Academy: A Look at Program Impacts and Lessons Learned

Kelly Nix
West Virginia University

2015 will mark the fourth year for the annual statewide Community Leadership Academy (CLA) led by WVU Extension Service Community Resources and Economic Development, in partnership with the W.Va. Community Development Hub, West Virginia Association of Counties and WV County Commissioner's Association.

The CLA helps emerging and established leaders identify and build on their community's assets to take advantage of development issues in West Virginia and surrounding regions. The CLA provides local government officials and community development leaders with a solid foundation in public organizational and financial management. Topics emphasized enhancing personal leadership skills and providing an understanding of current, complex issues affecting communities.

The objectives of the academy include:

1. Community Economic Strategy: Adopt strategies for successful community economic development.
2. Collaboration: Learn how local government and community leaders break new ground through collaboration.
3. Local Government: Learn new strategies in Emergency Management, Funding and Community Relations.
4. Leadership: Understand new leadership skills for successful planning, implementation and performance.

Immediate outcomes of the academy include gained new partnership and an increase in sponsorships and participation (60 participants in 2012 to 170 in 2014). A study was conducted to determine the impacts from the CLA. Results of these findings and lessons learned will be presented during this presentation.

Ethics and Leadership Training for School Boards

Gia Tatone & Stuart Allen
Robert Morris University

Introduction

A lack of training in ethical leadership was noted within a local state school board. The aim of the poster is to present a research based ethical leadership training program for newly elected school board members. This design is based upon ethics and leadership education literature, as well as adult and experiential learning principles.

Background and Literature

A need for ethical leadership training was identified at a local state school board where members face significant governance and ethical leadership responsibilities. This poster presents a research based training program focused on ethical leadership for newly elected school board directors that can be implemented in governance school training and leadership conferences. The poster's outcomes are learning objectives, an appropriate teaching and learning program, and a summary of experienced board members' insights on needed training content.

In order to have a seat on the Board of Education, a person must be 18 years of age, a citizen of the state, a resident of the district, and a registered voter. Once in their position, Board Directors are expected to model ethical and responsible leadership and governance as representatives of the community. Areas of governance include policy, budget and finance, school law, personnel issues, child welfare, and curricula, in addition to hiring and evaluating the Superintendent. To help understand these roles, once elected, new board members can attend governance training. While this training is comprehensive regarding those issues, it lacks a concentrated focus on leadership and ethics (J. McNally, Director of Education and Training. Pennsylvania School Boards Association, personal communication, February 23, 2015). Johnson and Johnson (2013) note that researchers give much attention to ethics in leadership, but do little to conduct undertakings for learning. This poster presents a training program design that can be implemented in governance school training and conferences to address this missing element.

While School Boards are nonpartisan, many times contentious and controversial issues are debated. At times these leaders can fall into political traps. Members can begin to argue for or against issues as a result of their loyalty to their party, rather than service to the people they were elected to serve. Argyris (2010) refers to this behavior as being "counterproductive to [a person's] own stated interests and intentions" (p. 59). Both leadership and ethical training can enhance team productivity, develop a cooperative structure, and provide assurance that all members can work together more effectively (Johnson & Johnson, 2013). Additionally, boards who understand how to demonstrate ethical behavior and who also have systems developed to guide their understanding demonstrate more ability to control their conduct (Feuerstein, 2009).

Ethical failures have been prominent in the news in recent years (Thornton, 2009). Thornton (2009) notes that effective ethics training programs are usually company specific. A customized

program designed for a specific context allows examples and activities that are relevant to the environment where leaders will work. Experiential learning results from actions of an individual's own experience and is then adjusted by the individual for greater effectiveness (Johnson & Johnson, 2013). Simulations, case studies (Thornton, 2009), group discussions (Weber, 2007), and other relevant training activities allow ethics training participants the opportunity to experience the challenges first hand. Adult learning principles reinforce the need for immediate application of learning and relevance of learning materials and content (Holton, Knowles, & Swanson, 2011). Thornton (2009) states, "The general wisdom is that leadership ethics should be an integrated part of every training program that leaders participate in. That integration demonstrates that ethical behavior is not optional, but is an ongoing part of the required leadership role" (p. 59). For this reason, ethical training and leadership training are well placed together when developing leaders. Fraedrich, Cherry, King, and Chiquan (2005) found a positive impact of ethics training on ethical reasoning suggesting that training can be an effective intervention. Sekerka (2009) provides various suggestions for improving ethics training, including sourcing specific examples of problems from the organizational members.

Description of Program, Research, and Methodology

This poster (including literature review, learning objectives, program design) is based upon a review of the literature on effective ethics and leadership training, adult learning and experiential learning principles, and personal communications with school board members from several districts. This is a new program that is yet to be implemented, but the results of the literature review and discussions with experienced board members will be presented.

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Leadership Development Schema Model for Student Organizations

Calvin Haney
American University

Introduction

The quality of student club leadership delivery for student club leaders will be assessed against the following three competencies:

***Clarity of Effort (Why)* -** The ability to establish a clear mission, vision, and set of goals for your desired outcome

***Recruit, Motivate, & Retain (Who)* –** The ability to generate a community of individuals that share your goal. Invite their collaboration and inspiration

***Control the cycle of Commitment (How)* –** The ability to clearly define and defend the involvement of your leadership team to the mission through commitment
The mental models associated with the three learning competencies are designed to assist student leaders in the formation of project management teams that are designed around Wong's 3 key elements for successful teams: Content, Process, and Behavior.

Content is the purpose goals and plans of an intact team, **Process** is the shared techniques and procedures for effective team interactions, and **Behavior** is identified as the communication strategies, coordination structures, and approaches to collaboration that group use to influence and motivate a desired change.

Student club leaders must find and recruit potential volunteers, motivate and retain free and civic participation, and facilitate organizational structures to foster the development of relationships amongst team members. Student club leaders must secure the commitments of members for accountability to tasks and programming efforts. Student club leaders must engage in strategic planning that allows for sustainable club traditions and experiences.

I seek to generate feedback and discussion about the leadership develop schema I have organized. My poster is designed to present the schema model and the related research to illicit feedback and discussion about the application of this model to student organization leader development.

Background

The student organization leadership community I serve is comprised of students, activists, and social communities that create activity and programming that speaks to their unique needs, interests, and social commitments. Student run organizations are akin to social movements and civic organizations. Student-run clubs are often formed in response to a students need for community, connection, or outreach towards an identity or issue of personal concern. Social movements are born out of the passion and necessity for change. The opportunity for the

student-run club and the social movement to effectively change or create the desired campus community requires the development of leaders that can recruit, motivate, and organize volunteers & supporters towards predetermined goals and objectives.
The success or failure of a given programming initiative or club effort is dependent on the ability of a student leader to quickly and effectively create inclusive team-based environments that allow for shared buy-in and critical collaboration in decentralized structures. The often dynamic, participatory, decentralized volunteer based, loose organizational structures of individuals organized for a social movement, or the student-run club requires leadership that can mobilize individuals toward action "on-the-run".

Given the complex nature of discussions about leadership, it is essential to create a set of agreed upon mental model framework about our beliefs about how leaders for civic and collaborative organizations should function. Because of the ubiquitous nature of the study of leadership and team development institutions and student alike find it difficult to identify and articulate the shared outcomes, sources of action, context, and conditions under which leadership is formed and developed.

Given the broad spectrum of objectives, goals, and values that over 144 recognized student organizations represent, it is essential to structure a set of leadership competencies built from the needs and expectations of creating student leaders who have the ability to:

-Build and sustain team relationships
-Ground team motivation and accomplishments in shared goals and objectives
-Develop strategies to increase membership & programming viability.
-Create volunteer involvement rooted in accountable, motivated and effective action

Research Questions

What are three primary transferrable skills for student leadership of small team?
Do team building interventions increase student leadership capability?
Will team building interventions improve affective group outcomes?

Program Description

Provide a leadership development training curricula that allows students experience and understand the concept of leadership through creation and implementation of programming initiatives in small teams.
The leadership development program designed will provide quality curricula, training, and long-term support for students. This will be achieved by providing training and development that focuses on skill building for small group leadership & teambuilding in areas of: goal setting, leadership empowerment, event planning, and leadership self-assessment.

Critical Learning Outcomes for organizational success beyond college:

Working with others in teams face-to-face and virtually
Managing moods that generate involvement and consistent engagement
Generate and manage trust with others
Critical mobilization of resources towards actionable and quantifiable goals

Create coalitions for collaborative involvement and increased impact.

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Developing the Next Global Women Leaders Introduction

Jera Niewoehner, Caitlin G. Bletscher, Nicole L. P. Stedman
University of Florida

Introduction

The 2009 *Global Gender Gap Report* noted that 80% of the countries covered in the research had decreased gender gaps in educational attainment, economic participation, health outcomes, and political empowerment (Hausmann, Zahidi, Tyson, Hausmann, Schwab & Tyson, 2009). Although the world is still far from gender equity, it has been recognized that women's participation in leadership can positively impact organizations and policy (Hausmann et al. 2009). As leadership opportunities increase for women throughout the world, it is essential to recognize that they are not confined to cultural boundaries. Even within the United States, leaders must be able to navigate different norms related to gender, race, class, nationality, and religion. When working abroad, leaders are also expected to adapt to their environment wherein differences in cultural norms may be even more pronounced. Particularly in the areas of social and organizational change, a foundation of intercultural communication skills and leadership capacity are essential for cultivating trust with individuals different from oneself. Undergraduate leadership and intercultural communication courses offer opportunities for female students to explore the theory and practice of these fields; however, a mentoring group can offer a more intimate setting to provide opportunities for critical depth of thought and self reflection to further their development. By providing a structured mentoring setting, female undergraduates will achieve the following objectives: (1) develop intercultural communication competency (2) understand situational leadership and how to identify and develop various leadership styles (3) develop authentic leadership capacity (4) identify characteristics of servant leadership in a global context (5) understand and implement strategies for addressing leadership for social change and (6) explore gender stereotypes. The overarching goal is to guide students in becoming global leaders by addressing aspects of intercultural communication and leadership.

Background

Although cross-cultural interactions are not new events, globalization necessitates leaders that have global perspectives and intercultural competence (Irving, 2010). Global leadership has been defined as "being capable of operating effectively in a global environment while being respectful of cultural diversity" (Harris, Moran, & Moran, 2004, p.25). The theory of global leadership has also been related more to the interaction of people and ideas among cultures instead of solely an extension of domestic leadership (Adler, 1997). When exploring leadership within the context of social change, a deep understanding of the self as well as what constitutes differences in worldviews and values of others is essential for accomplishing intended outcomes. Story (2011) argues that in order for individuals to grow into a global leader they must develop a global mindset, a self authored identity, and a cultural adaptation worldview.

The discourse on global leadership illustrates the intersection of intercultural sensitivity, self-awareness, and leadership capacity of which women may have an advantage. Klenke (2012) asserts that women bring to leadership different points of view, values, and experiences, which

diversifies the way in which they approach the tasks and responsibilities of leadership. Although studies on gender and leadership may not be generalizable to all situations, findings have indicated that women adopt democratic, participative leadership and transformational leadership styles and were more effective in roles that required considerable interpersonal ability (Northouse, 2013; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Tsegay, 2013). In order to cultivate the next generation of women leaders, leadership educators must provide opportunities to nurture both the development of the aforementioned traits as well as other dimensions of global leadership. Providing a support system through mentorship can assist young women in navigating gendered social norms while developing their own style of leadership that can bridge cultural differences.

Description of Program

Two PhD students in the field of Leadership Development at a large land grant university developed the mentoring program after female students from a college-wide oral communications course taught by the PhD students displayed interest in learning more about leadership, and intercultural communication. The program is structured so that students meet with mentors once a week for an hour to discuss intercultural communication, leadership theory, global social change, and gender stereotypes as well as participate in related activities and discussion. Each session begins with a global current event that is analyzed through the lens of culture and leadership. As the sessions continue, theories related to the program are used as the focus for the global events in order to provide contextual evidence of how theory relates to practice.

Specific activities that connect to the mentoring group objectives are also facilitated in order for students to explore leadership and intercultural communication through the experiential learning cycle. The following are activities aligned with the program objectives: (1) *intercultural communication*: identify the cultural components of oneself; learn the cycle of socialization; explore stereotypes, prejudice, and ethnocentrism and how they present barriers to intercultural communication (2) *situational leadership*: explore different types of leadership through case studies and personal examples; complete leadership style assessment and reflection (3) *authentic leadership*: facilitate personal values sort; develop personal vision statement; analyze a case study(4) *servant leadership in a global context*: broken squares activity; discuss elements of servant leadership; analyze a case study (5) *leadership for global and social change*: examine social change model; analyze a case study; identify social change issue related to student's field of study (6) *gender stereotypes*: explore sources of gender stereotypes; examine personal experiences of stereotyping; define how aspects of stereotypes impact leadership.

Current Results

The authors are currently in the process of gathering preliminary results. A mixed methods study will be conducted to determine the impact of intercultural sensitivity and authentic leadership capacity among participants in the Global Women Leaders Mentoring Program. In order to determine the impact of intercultural sensitivity among participants, researchers will use grounded theory, Developmental Model for Intercultural Sensitivity (Bennett, 1986), to thematically code participant's pre- and post- reflections of the course. In order to determine the

impact of authentic leadership capacity among participants, researchers will conduct a pre-/post-test of the Authentic Leadership Self- Assessment Questionnaire (ALSQ) (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), which measures your authentic leadership by assessing four components of the process: self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing, and relational transparency. Researchers will also conduct semi-structured focus group, upon the completion of the program. Focus group responses will also provide triangulation to the results of the intercultural competency reflection responses and ALSQ assessment. The semi-structured focus group will last 30-45 minutes, using a set of pre-determined questions. Follow-up questions will be administered if necessary for clarity and validity.

Conclusions/Recommendations

This first iteration of the program will serve as a pilot study; therefore students were solely recruited from the oral communications course. In the future, female students can be more broadly recruited and potentially serve as a tenet of the undergraduate leadership minor. The mentoring model does present time constraints; therefore, the curriculum could be broadened and deepened in order to form a Global Women Leaders course as part of a leadership series.

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Outcomes of a Service Learning Project for Students Enrolled in an Undergraduate Personal Leadership Course

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Introduction

According to Jacoby, service-learning "is a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities for reflection designed to promote student learning and development" (1996). There is extensive evidence of the benefits of service-learning and its impact on students (Celio, C. I., Durlak, J., & Dymnicki, A, 2011; Jones & Abes, 2004; Wilson, 2011; Simons & Clearly, 2006). Examples of outcomes of service-learning include: significant impacts on students' self-concept and political engagement (Morgan & Streb, 2001), impacts on academic learning and students' future career development (Simons & Clearly, 2006), the expression of empathy as an understanding of others (Wilson, 2011), greater self-reported gains of critical thinking and college GPAs (Jones & Abes, 2004), and changes in attitudes toward civic engagement and those being served (Celio et al., 2011). According to Dugan (2006), an increase in the "quality and quantity of service learning programs grounded in critical reflection" can significantly contribute to the development of socially responsible leadership in college students (p. 341).

This research fits priority one of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA): Teaching, Learning, and Curriculum Development (Andenoro et al., 2013). Specifically, this research examines the component of the NLERA on exploring the capacity and competency development process for the leadership education learner. As leadership educators design experiences for students to help them understand leadership and develop as a leader, it is important to ascertain the leadership learner's perspective on what they gained as a result of the experience.

Background

The social change model (HERI, 1996) was designed for college students and aligns with current leadership paradigms. The fundamental principles of the social change model are social responsibility and change for the common good. The model articulates the development of eight core values purposed to enhance students' level of self-awareness and ability to work in partnership with others. These values are distinguished by levels of function. The values of consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment function at the individual level. The values of common purpose, collaboration, and controversy with civility function at the group level, with the value of citizenship functioning at the societal level. The interface of these values and levels is what contributes to social change. This study assessed the individual component of the social change model, specifically students' perceptions of the outcomes from their service learning experience. Students enrolled in the leadership course received instruction on an overview of service learning, participated in a service learning experience involving at least six hours of service, and had opportunities to reflect on the experience throughout the semester. Students were split into teams for the course and each team provided service for the same organization

though not all team members performed the same service and at the same time as all of the other team members.

Description of Research

Using descriptive, survey research, this study sought to assess the outcomes of a service learning experience in a personal leadership course. The population was students enrolled in a junior and senior level personal leadership course at [university]. A total of 61 students (n = 61) completed the questionnaire. Data was collected through a service learning outcomes questionnaire given after completion of their service learning experience. Service learning outcomes assessed on this questionnaire include the influence of service learning on integration of course topics, general attitudes towards community involvement, influence of service learning on future career plans, and influence of service learning on personal dimensions (including leadership skills). The questionnaire included 26 items for which students were asked to indicate their level of agreement for each item on a scale consisting of: Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neutral (3), Agree (4), or Strongly Agree (5).

Current Results

Of the students who completed the service learning outcomes questionnaire (n = 61), 31 were male and 30 were female. Because this was a personal leadership course, this study examined the personal dimensions outcomes of students after completing a service- learning project. There were a total of 6 statements to assess this area. The statements with most agreement by students were "I can make a difference in the community" (M = 4.28) and "During the experience, I became more comfortable working with people different from myself" (M = 4.07). For the statements with the highest means, at least 88% of students (n = 53) agreed or strongly agreed with these statements. The statements with least agreement were "I developed a good relationship with my service-learning instructor(s) because of the community work" (M = 3.48) and "Service learning made me more aware of some of my own biases and judgments" (M = 3.53). Results from the remaining statements were as follows: "Participating in the community helped me enhance my leadership skills" (M = 3.82) and "The work I performed in the community enhanced my ability to communicate my ideas in a real world context" (M = 3.61). For the statement regarding leadership skills, 77% of students (n = 47) agreed or strongly agreed their leadership skills were enhanced.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The social change model seeks to explain how students develop socially responsible leadership for creating positive change (HERI, 1996). In this study, students indicated some level of agreement ($M > 3.5$) on all statements regarding the personal outcomes of their service learning experience. The service learning experience in a personal leadership course did provide a means for students to create positive change and develop socially responsible leadership. Research should be conducted with larger populations to see if the conclusions are generalizable. Other research should also examine the group level and society level outcomes of the social change model.

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Leadership Practices: Student Experiences of Leadership in Collegiate Organizations and the Impact on Membership
Undergraduate Research

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Abstract

Students are involved in a number of clubs/organizations on campus. With variations in participation levels ranging from full executive board (e-board) to disengaged members, we intend to shed light on potential leadership practices impacting membership satisfaction to surface a sustainable framework that informs education both at the collegial and corporate levels for students and professionals.

Introduction

We conducted our study as a survey of the undergraduate student body at an American university. We leveraged existing and validated scales used in organizational research. When necessary the scales were adapted to fit the needs of the research intent. It is anticipated that the results might tangentially inform leadership education as they relate to member satisfaction within organizational departments and on teams; with the premise that increased satisfaction can maintain membership and minimize turnover. This study represents the first in our research agenda which intends to move outside of our institution to others like it, as well as extend to organizational settings both domestically and internationally to inform leadership education. There is a dearth of research on satisfaction in student organizations and we anticipate that leadership will be a major impact on sustaining membership. These findings could help student clubs run much more efficiently and maintain a healthier organization in the long run through education. These findings may be generalizable to other institutions as well as clubs established within corporate organizations. Thus, a focus on the impact leadership has on membership will inform the development of methodologies aimed at sustaining members.

Background

Studies related to our intent were on the topic of leadership. An interview-based study conducted by Shertzer and Schuh (2004), investigated the views and beliefs of college students on leadership. Generally, students in leadership positions possessed different qualities and received more opportunities than non-position holding students. Furthermore, student leaders regarded leadership as "an individualistic phenomenon pertaining to positions of power and influence, which require possession of particular qualities," while disengaged non-leaders did not show interest in leadership and perceived themselves as lacking in leadership qualities. Yukl (2002) incorporates research and theory on leadership from the second half of the 20th century. With a focus on managerial leadership in large organizations, he provides an in depth analysis of particular aspects of leadership, such as participation, power, influence, change, and teamwork. There seems to be a dearth of research on member satisfaction in collegiate organizations. A Wiiteman (1991) paper finds distinct correlations with membership satisfaction (communication,

leadership, and decision making ability) with types of conflict resolution (solution orientation, control, and non-confrontation). They relied upon self-reporting surveys. Their goal was to determine which methods of motivation and management best facilitated group interactions and satisfaction across the stages of development--orientation, development of conflict, and decision emergence. As hypothesized, they found a positive relationship with membership satisfaction and solution orientation and control, and a negative relationship with membership satisfaction and non-confrontation.

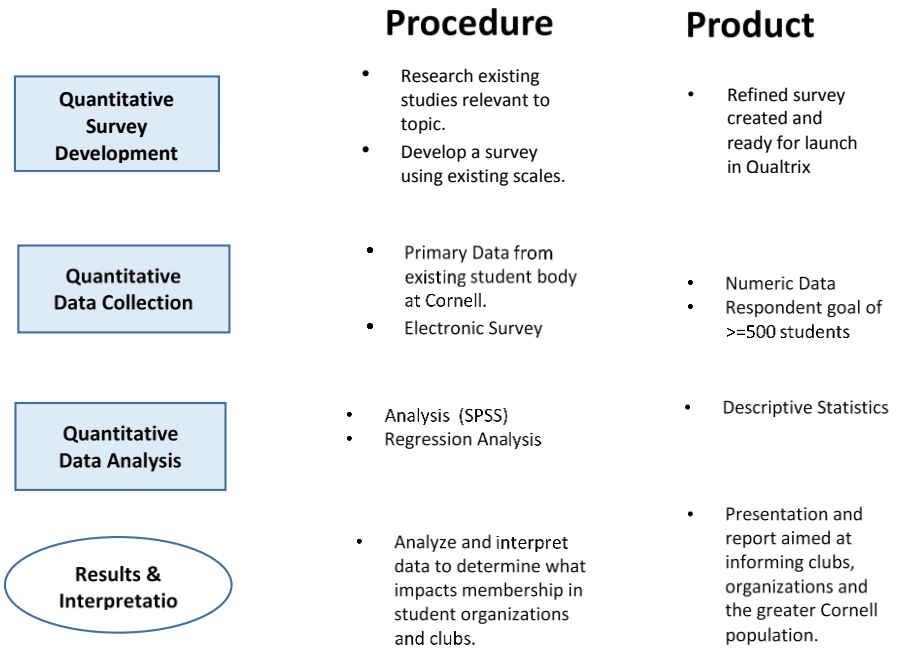
A study published by Pang, et al. (2011) investigated what factors contributed to the satisfaction of business students in Hong Kong doing group work in the classroom. The study found that workload sharing, mutual support, and communication were the determining factors contributing to satisfaction within group settings. While these small groups are not established student organizations, they are still similar as they involve groups of students interacting to achieve a common goal.

Description of Research

We are conducting our study as a survey of the undergraduate student body. Our survey will gauge membership satisfaction in clubs and, we anticipate, reveal whether factors, such as leadership, impact member retention through satisfaction. We leveraged existing and validated scales and when necessary the scales were adapted to meet our research intent. We are collecting data on members of collegial organizations by surveying students across campus. The survey is being administered electronically and is voluntary and anonymous. Our goal is to reach a minimum n=500 respondents. Our methodology is illustrated below.

Leadership Practices: Student Experiences of Leadership in Collegiate Organizations and the Impact on Membership

RQ: Do leadership practices impact membership satisfaction? What factors impact sustained membership?
Sub inquiries: How might this inform leadership education?



Conclusions/Reccomendations

This research is in the data collection phase, but will be completed with conclusions and recommendations at the time of the conference. We suggest that the results may inform leadership education in a unique way. Designing educational frameworks for student organizations and clubs is an effective way to make leadership education omnipresent in a student's life. In the spirit of application and engagement, teaching leaders and members alike in this type of forum could solidify meaning and gain learner commitment. It is hoped that these findings will also inform current leadership education in a manner that allows for new perspective and analogy when delivered.

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Peer Leadership and Service Program: Exploring an Innovative High Impact Practice

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Introduction

The Peer Leadership and Service Program (PLSP) is a peer education program for upper class students designed to promote integrative and lifelong learning and focuses on leadership, service, and engagement. The program is designed for 14 peer leaders who are trained and then serve as an extension of the Leadership and Service Center in the Department of Student Activities. They are afforded the opportunity to help impact and enrich the campus and community through the support and advocacy of programs, services, and resources provided to their peers while at the same time seeking to enhance their own personal knowledge and practice of leadership.

Background

The development and structure of this peer ambassador program is grounded in multiple theories and models. For instance, while at this time there are no specific peer leadership models, the idea of peer education can be traced back to Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), which in short, explains that people learn best from one another. More closely tied to the college environment, Alexander Astin (1993) expressed that "the student's peer group is the single most potent source of influence on growth and development in the undergraduate years" (p. 398). There has been much support for peer leadership programs by researchers and practitioners alike because of the effectiveness of the programs.

"Students are influenced by their peers (Astin 1993) and peer leaders, through their service and connection to a campus program, have the potential to provide positive interactions with students at the institution and contribute to important developmental outcomes…Trained peer leaders are effective because they have the potential to be role models and encourage academic and social responsibility. Peer leadership has grown because it works: research has validated the major benefits provided to the students who received the service, the peer leaders themselves, and the institution as a whole" (Shook & Keup, 2012, p. 14)

Another theory used to ground this program in is Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984). The program was both developed based on giving students an opportunity to transform their experiences into more knowledge and will continue to foster such learning opportunities throughout the program. Finally, the Social Change Model of leadership development (HERI, 1997) was used as a guiding framework for the development of the program and will be used throughout the program as well as a framework for training.

Description of Program

Participants in this program invest a significant amount of time and effort through participating in a variety of experiences. For instance, general functions and tasks associated with participation in this program include:

- The facilitation of workshops and team builders requested by students, faculty, and staff

- Conducting weekly office hours during which time they complete projects and tasks associated with the functions of the peer team and those needed by the Leadership and Service Center
- Coordinating, planning, and implementing programs to educate and advocate for service and social issues awareness (i.e. service forum)
- Conducting consultations with students who contact the Leadership and Service Center seeking to be connected with leadership and/or service opportunities on campus and in the community
- Supporting and marketing of programs associated with the Leadership and Service Center
- Engaging with community agencies through site visits to conduct needs assessments

Retreats - There is an initial orientation retreat following selection in April. There is also a spring and fall retreat to conduct training and plan and prepare for the respective semesters.

Executive Board Meetings – The executive board meets weekly to stay up-to- date on incoming requests, maintain and evaluate progress on program planning and the overall operations of the team.

Weekly Team Meetings – The entire team meets weekly for two hours to engage in on-going training and development and to conduct the everyday business of the team (i.e. area updates, communicating new requests for workshops, etc.)
The peer leaders collaborate with their fellow team members to develop and implement programs. They engage in consultation with their peers to connect them to leadership and service opportunities. In addition, they facilitate workshops and team building activities for student organizations and programs as they are requested. All of these are surrounding topics associated with leadership, service, social issues awareness and the importance of actively engaging in the campus and community. Finally, these experiences take place throughout the duration of their yearlong experience. These experience coupled with training, feedback, and evaluation by staff and their fellow peers help to create and facilitate an environment of growth, learning, and development for the students in this program.

As a result of participating in the program, it is our hope that:

- Identify, analyze, and implement theories and models associated with leadership and service
- Regularly employ critical thinking and reflection to develop the value of increased consciousness of self which impacts personal and social responsibility
- Recognize and critically analyze social issues impacting the community
- Develop and utilize effective communication and facilitation skills
- Recognize and navigate differences and utilize information gained to make sensitive and appropriate decisions
- Develop and implement effective workshops, presentations, and programs to serve the campus community
- Engage in practices associated with lifelong learning and integrate learning within and beyond the classroom

Current Results and Conclusions

This program is in its first full year of operation. Both formal and informal evaluations and assessments are utilized. Leadership moments are conducted during general meetings. The peer teams' leadership development plans will be reviewed and analyzed at the end of the program to identify both individual and team learning and growth and an instrument will be developed and administered to assess the learning and program outcomes. We hope to have results of our evaluations and assessments at the end of the semester.

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The impact of high school leadership experience and its relationship to collegiate involvement

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Introduction

Local governments and community organizations are faced with the challenges of changing demographics and the changing nature of the problems they are being asked to address (Astin & Astin, 2000). "Thus, it will be critical for leadership scholars and educators to create research lines that will address the development of these communities, the cultures within them, and ultimately their sustainability and resiliency during adversity-filled times" (p. 22, Anderano, et al., 2013). High schools have had a history of providing leadership programming (Morgan, Fuhrman, King, Flanders, & Rudd, 2013).

Conceptual Framework

The college leadership development model (Foreman and Retallick, 2012) provided the conceptual framework for this study. The model illustrates the influence pre-collegiate and collegiate characteristics and experiences have on the impact of leadership development outcomes. The pre-collegiate experiences and collegiate sections of this model were the focus of this study.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore college students' high school participation and those experiences impact on collegiate leadership experiences. Three objectives guided the study: 1) Describe high school student involvement; 2) Describe college-level student involvement; 3) Determine the relationship between high school and college involvement.

Traditional-age undergraduate college students in the [Ag College at a Midwestern State University] were surveyed (*N*=4375), using a web-based questionnaire, consisting of researcher-designed questions. Students were asked to indicate high school and collegiate clubs and organizations in which they participated, the number of years in which a student had participated (i.e., 1 = 1 year, 2 = 2 years, 3 = 3 years, 4 = 4+ years), as well as their highest level of involvement (i.e., 1 = member, 2 = committee or project chair, 3 = officer, 4 = president, and 5 = state or national leadership). A panel of professionals was consulted to establish validity. Dillman's (2004) five-step data collection approach was used, resulting in 1055 useable responses (24%).

Descriptive statistics were used to describe high school and college involvement. To determine the relationship, an involvement index was calculated by adding the years of involvement and highest level of involvement together for both high school and college involvement. High school involvement index was categorized into four levels and used as the independent variable for

ANOVA to examine the relationship between the degree of involvement in high school and the degree of involvement in college.

Results/Findings

Of respondents who completed the survey, 397 (37.6%) of them were males and 658 (62.4%) were females. Eight-hundred and fifty-two (80.8%) entered the university direct from high school and 203 (19.2%) entered as transfer students. More freshmen completed the survey (352 students, 33.4%) than did sophomores (255 students, 24.2%), juniors (212 students, 20.1%), or seniors (236 students, 22.4%).

Students in the college were involved in a variety of pre-collegiate extra-curricular activities. In fact, 95% (n = 1006) of them reported being involved in some kind of extra-curricular activity, with athletics being the most common (n = 821, 77%). Fifty-three percent (n = 564) of students reported being involved in National Honor Society, 49% (n = 520) were in music, 45% (n = 480) were in FFA, and 41% (n = 439) were in 4-H.

Students maintained a high involvement level in college. Over 90% (n = 950) of respondents indicated they were involved in extra-curricular activities while in college. Students were most likely to be involved in curricular organizations (68.2%), followed by social/recreational (38.5%), and university-level organizations (21.2%). ANOVA results showed that students with the highest level of activity in high school were more likely to be the most involved in college ($F(3,1051) = 51.15$, $p = .000$).

Conclusions/Implications/Recommendations/Impact on profession

Students in [Ag College at a Midwestern State University] are highly involved in both pre-collegiate and collegiate leadership experiences. At the high school level, students are highly involved in athletic, academic (e.g., NHS) and fine art activities (e.g., music) and, when they enter college, their focus shifts to curricular organizations and activities. Such a shift seems logical as students shift from a broad, general education in high school to a slightly more focused collegiate education that is driven by the requirements of their major and, in general, career aspirations.

Research would indicate and most college faculty and staff stress the value of college involvement beyond just attending class because of its impact on retention (Jenson, 2011; Tinto, 1987 & 1993), persistence (Bean, 2005), and personal skill development (Astin & Astin, 2000; Kuh, 1995). Furthermore, there is agreement that students come to college with a set of existing experiences, attitudes and behaviors (Bean & Eaton, 2000; Foreman & Retallick, 2012). This study provides empirical evidence that students who are involved in high school activities continue to be just as involved in college. The findings also suggest that, while college involvement is what is important and valued for many reasons, what students do before entering college may have a significant impact on their collegiate involvement.

These findings have implications for high schools and colleges. Both high school and college officials as well as parents should encourage and reward students who become actively involved

in high school because those behaviors will continue into their college experience. The leadership involvement habits and behaviors of students in high school seem to transfer to college. Most importantly, these results suggest that, if we want local leadership to build vibrant, resilient communities as espoused on the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Adenaro, et al., 2013), it starts locally with the investment in and involvement of students in high school activities.

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The Men Project

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Abstract

In response to the question "Is there room for growth in healthy conversations between male college students?", this innovative practice serves as both academic research for students serving in peer educator roles and an opportunity for male students to discuss their college experiences with one another.

Introduction

Male students at a private, four-year, liberal arts institution in the Southwest articulate that it would be helpful to more fully explore topics of sex, romantic relationships, binge drinking, sleep, hours spent studying/academic performance, and drug usage. Within a social norming framework using aggregated intuitional data, male students will discuss their perceived and real experiences with these topics. Both the comparison of actual survey data to participants' predictions of survey response data and the facilitated conversation with a junior or senior-level peer educator will serve as interventions. We hypothesize that post-assessment data will yield a change in perceptions about the "typical" behaviors of male students and that peer educators may discover characteristics of productive conversations among men.

The peer educator role assumes a high level of involvement with the program. For example, this includes running a pilot group prior to the first program cohort, identifying peers to participate in facilitated conversations (the intervention), developing a pre- and post-assessment instrument, developing a script for the facilitated conversation, analyzing data, and more. Peer educators work closely with the principle investigators and have the option to receive credit for participation in an independent research project.

The Men Project has certain features that help distinguish it from traditional educational intervention programs. When asked about whether they thought this type of intervention program would be more useful than existing campus programs such as alcohol.edu or an in-house workshop titled "Optimal Buzz," both of which they had previously experienced, pilot group participants unanimously agreed that this program has the potential to be more successful. Participants described the chance to discuss these issues with peers in an interactive and hands-on way as more effective than sitting passively in a large audience listening to facts and figures. They also articulated that they felt more comfortable discussing these issues with upper-class moderators (peer educators) when compared to a faculty or staff member. Some participants suggested that first-year students will have an affinity to and respect for the "expert" peer educators given they have more first-hand experience with the identified behaviors.

We anticipate the interventions will impact the sample population in the following ways:
Goal 1: Through a peer educator-facilitated conversation, change the perception of the "typical" behaviors of college men and what is "normal."

Goal 2: Inform the work of a new Center for Student Success on campus as it supports male students and/or increase male students' awareness of University support programs.

Review of Related Scholarship

Students learn by doing. The Men Project engages junior and senior students in peer educator roles and first-year students as participants. Via Kolb & Fry's (1975) experiential learning model, students question: "What? So what? Now what?" When tension exists between what is expected and what occurs, an opportunity for learning is present. This process is often referred to as meaning-making. Through The Men Project, both the peer educators and participants are forced to consider the dissonance between their *perceptions* of behaviors of college men and institutional aggregated data about the *real* behaviors of college men; thus, considering "[…] what happened, what can be learned from it, and how to go about it next time" (Drechsler & Jones, Jr. 2009, p. 421).

Peer education programs help meet the social, emotional, and educational needs of students (Catanzarite & Robinson, 2013). Peer education roles, first recorded in residence halls in 1959 (Ganser & Kennedy, 2012), create an environment in which participants look to role models for appropriate behavior (Wawrzynski, LoConte, Straker, 2011). Peer educators are seen as similar to their audiences and therefore make good role models and mentors for other students in The Men Project.

Regarding sexual activity and healthy relationships, current media coverage of campus sexual assault issues is generally perceived as more sympathetic toward female victims than to accused male perpetrators. One attorney observed, "[...] the male is in no better shape, physically, emotionally, or maturity-wise, to make any of these [sexual behavior] decisions than the girl is" (Wilson, 2014). In other words, perhaps female students get more institutional support for their gender-specific needs than men. This project serves to meet the identified needs of male students on campus.

Description of the Practice

<u>Spring 2015 pilot group:</u> Two peer educators recruited a small pilot group (n=11) consisting of junior and senior male students who were willing to discuss issues of sex, romantic relationships, binge drinking, sleep, hours spent studying/academic performance, the nature of leisure-time activities, and drug usage. Over a 60-minute facilitated session, the peer educators tested a scripted introductory statement and practiced cognitive dissonance strategies that addressed gaps between existing data from Institutional Research and participants' personal responses regarding their perception of behaviors of college men.

For example, peer educators might ask the following question: "What percentage of male students do you think said that they did something they regretted because of their drinking?" Participants guess and respond. Following a short discussion about perceptions, peer educators provide the answer: "Just over 34% of Trinity males who responded to a health and wellness survey in fall 2010 indicated they regretted something as a result of their drinking." Peer educators then lead a conversation about the differences between what students believe the

college experience to be versus what the college experience actually is. The conversation might also include the possible consequences of risky behaviors and how students can seek resources or best handle challenges.

In reporting observations and feedback from the pilot group experience to the investigators, one peer educator wrote: "[…] we were very pleasantly surprised by the results. I know there had been some concern over whether we'd be able to get a group of college males to talk about the issues we were interested in, but I'm happy to say that it went even better than we'd hoped."

Therefore, based on the pilot group, the following elements will be refined to enhance the study for fall 2015:

- The script will permit flexibility in the number of topics that can be discussed during an intervention. In groups where discussion is robust, the number of topics may be limited to two or three. In groups where discussion is anemic, the number of topics may cover all six previously identified issues.
- Given a robust conversation with the pilot group, the strategy of comparing real and perceived data must be examined. A variety of methods will be explored as the practice develops: 1) utilize data at the beginning of the intervention to engage participants and encourage active participation; 2) utilize data at the end of the intervention as a conclusion; and/or 3) utilize data in the form of a handout.

Fall 2015 cohort: Both the control group and the intervention participants will be recruited from the male student population in the fall 2015 Introduction to Psychology courses (n~100). All first-year male students in said courses (approximately three sections) will be offered the opportunity to complete a pre-assessment instrument that asks questions related to their perception of the behaviors of college men (specifically related to the topics of sex, romantic relationships, binge drinking, sleep, hours spent studying/academic performance, and drug usage). Students who complete the pre-assessment will be offered extra credit in the Introduction to Psychology course. Intervention participants will be recruited from the pool of students who complete the pre-assessment. The intervention will consist of a 60-minute facilitated discussion with two peer educators. The intervention groups will be several small groups (no more than 10 participants in each group). Intervention participants will also be offered extra credit in the course. Using cognitive dissonance strategies, gaps between participants' perceptions of the behaviors of college men and existing data from Institutional Research will be explored and discussed.

Spring 2016 follow up: In the subsequent spring semester, all students who took the pre-assessment will be asked to complete a post-assessment instrument. This will permit the principle investigators and lead peer educators to examine the relationship between participants who had the intervention and the control group. Investigators hypothesize that the effect of a healthy conversation between college men will positively influence the perception of the "typical" behaviors of college men and what is "normal."

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This innovative practice is currently underway. Current completed steps include: 1) faculty partners and colleagues have reviewed the research design and helped refine the program; 2) peer educators have tested a pilot group and collected feedback; and 3) principle investigators have presented initial ideas at a local conference.

A program timeline follows:

- June: design pre- and post-assessment instrument
- July: complete intervention script; submit grant proposal
- August: complete recruitment strategy

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Personality Profiles of Undergraduate Students in a Leadership Course

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Introduction

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is grounded in Carl Jung's research on psychological types and has been advanced by Myers and Briggs (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009). The MBTI identifies eight different personality preferences, including where energy is derived (extraversion, E and introversion, I), processes of perception (sensing, S and intuition, N), processes of judging (thinking, T and feeling, F), and approaches to the outside world (perceiving, P and judging, J). These four dichotomies form 16 individual types based on the combinations of each letter preference. "Individuals tend to prefer one function of each pair to the other" (Northouse, 2013, p. 331). The MBTI is a self-reported assessment used to determine how frequently an individual chooses to operate with one preference over the opposite pairing preference.

Northouse (2013) states that one underlying and fundamental concept of the psychodynamic approach to understanding leadership is personality. Personality is defined as "a consistent pattern of ways of thinking, feeling, and acting with regard to the environment, including other people" (Northouse, 2013, p. 319). Northouse asserts that although it is important to eventually understand all 16 types (eight dimensions) for the sake of interacting with followers, a leader should first identify and concentrate on understanding his or her type.

The psychodynamic approach indicates that there is leadership potential in all 16 types. The psychodynamic approach merits a strong analysis of the transactional relationship between the leader and follower, who both have personality types that interact to create relational dynamics. This leadership approach also emphasizes the leader's need for self-awareness and tolerance of others personalities and behaviors without using manipulation.

Background

Students have been categorized by type of academic major and their personality preferences (Schaubhut & Thompson, 2011). However, there is not a category for students who are obtaining a leadership degree. This study sought to describe the personality type preferences of students in a leadership course. These students are also all obtaining leadership degrees.

This research fits priority three of the National Leadership Research Agenda: "Psychological development of leaders, followers, and learners" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 13). Specifically this research is an investigation of the development of learner psychological capacity. Examining the personality profiles of students in leadership courses will provide perspective for leadership educators as they design curriculum and experiences to help students understand and develop their leadership abilities.

Description of Research

This study used descriptive, survey research to describe the personality type preferences of undergraduate students in a leadership course. A convenience sample of students at [university] enrolled in a personal leadership course completed the MBTI as part of a class assignment (*n* = 75). This assessment was completed online and results were compiled for each student and classified by each of the four dimensions of their personality type preference.

Current Results

Table 1
Frequencies of each of the eight personality dimensions (*n* = 75)

	Frequency	%		Frequency	%
Energy Dimension			**Judging Dimension**		
Extraversion	49	65.3	Thinking	30	40.0
Introversion	26	34.7	Feeling	45	60.0
Perception Dimension			**Outside World Dimension**		
Intuition	29	38.7	Judging	36	48.0
Sensing	46	61.3	Perceiving	39	52.0

Conclusions/Recommendations

In terms of how students prefer to interact with the world and where they direct their energy, there were almost twice as many students who preferred extraversion (63.5%) as introversion (34.7%). This finding is contradictory to findings of other researchers. Kroeger and Theusen (2002; as cited in Northouse, 2013) who reported that there are about three individuals who prefer extraversion for every one who prefers introversion. Tieger and Barron (2007) noted that research suggests the American population consists of equal numbers of those who prefer extraversion and introversion. In terms of the kind of information students naturally noticed, there were more who preferred sensing (61.3%) than intuition (38.7%). This finding supports other reported findings that approximately 65% of Americans prefer sensing (Tieger & Barron, 2007). In terms of how students make decisions, there were half again as many who preferred feeling (60%) as preferred thinking (40%). Tieger and Barron (2007) noted that the American population is approximately evenly split between those who prefer thinking and feeling. Kroeger and Theusen (2002; as cited in Northouse, 2013) noted the distinction in this personality dimension is a function of gender which was outside the scope of the present study. In terms of whether students prefer to live in a more structured or spontaneous way, there were almost equal numbers of those who preferred perceiving (52%) as judging (48%). This finding is contradictory with statistics shared by Tieger and Barron (2007) who described the American population as consisting of 60% who prefer judging and 40% who prefer perceiving.

Examining students' personality type preferences will provide feedback for leadership educators on ways to motivate students and provide insight as to how students experience and learn about leadership. The sample for this study was limited in that only students in one leadership course

were included. In order to make any generalizations about personality preferences of students who choose to complete a degree in leadership, a larger sample is needed from students at multiple universities and in multiple courses.

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Constructing Collaborative University Leadership: Shifting Implications for Capacity Building/ Leadership Coursework

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Introduction

The intent of this proposal is to provide explanation and depth to the conceptual leadership education model that was constructed by University of Florida focus groups. This learning model exemplifies the current process of leadership education and its possible transferability to other campus programs. A concept map such as this creates a cyclical movement involving constant experiential engagement, integrated collegiality and relevant coursework.

Background

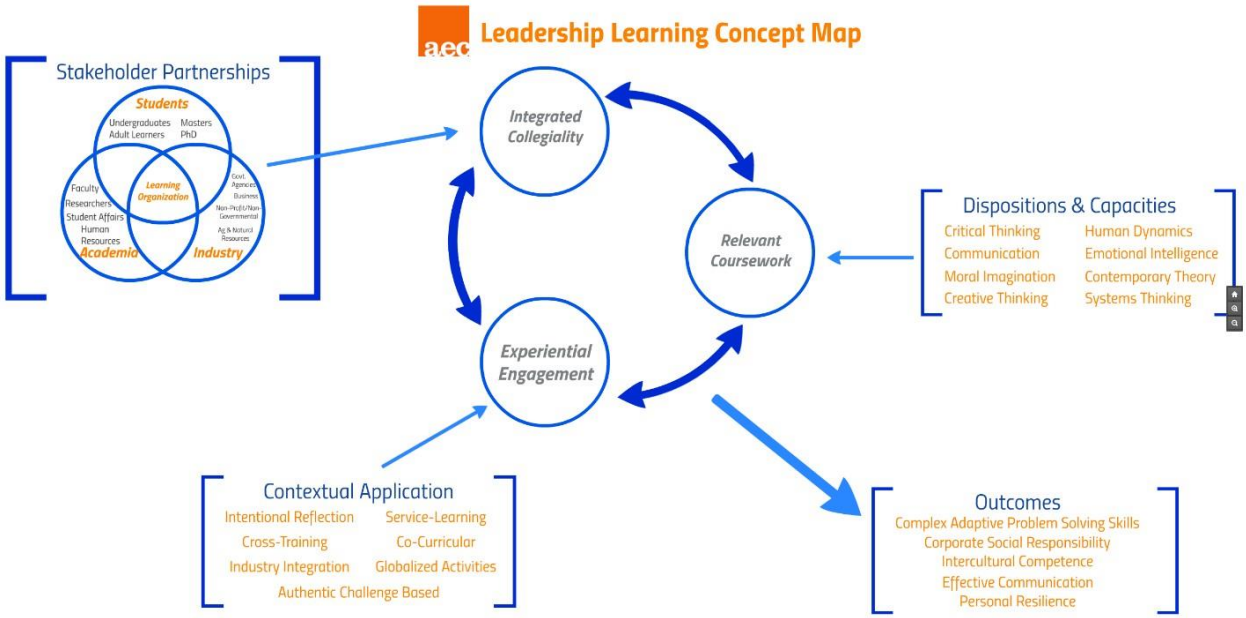
In 2014 different groups on the University of Florida campus came together to conceptualize a forward thinking model for UF that could be applied in different contexts and could have implications for interdisciplinary student populations. The use of informal focus groups were implemented to theorize this model and systems of brainstorming such as backwards design and context analysis were also used in the process. In the process of discovery, four major questions were posed to the focus groups.

1) What type of model for education is being used in the field today? What are the current methods for education in leadership?
2) What are we doing internally at the University of Florida?
3) Where are the gaps between the two of these? What can we be doing differently?
4) How can we use these discoveries to advance leadership education in the field?

Throughout the questioning process the use of backwards design and context analysis were used. Backwards design is a method of education that calls instructors to ask a question to be answered before teaching. This method is also sometimes referred to as “purposeful task analysis” or “planned coaching” (Wiggins, G., McTighe, J., 2001). The method of context analysis was also employed in the focus group setting. Context analysis is a method of analyzing both written and spoken materials (Insch, G., Moore, J., Murphy, L., 1997) It also “seeks to analyze data within a specific context in view of the meanings someone – a group or a culture – attributes to them” (Krippendorff, 1989).

As a Land Grant University, the first questions posed also called for the use of the National Agricultural Education Research Agenda. Priorities 4, 5 and 6, Meaningful, Engaged Learning in All Environments, Effective and Efficient Educational Programs and Vibrant, Resilient Communities, were all considered in the discovery and foundation of current educational practices at the University of Florida (Doerfert, D. L., 2011).

Description of Program/ Current Results



The provided conceptual model identifies the suggested process for leadership learning within the Department of Agricultural Education and Communication and has potential transferability to other learning contexts at the University of Florida and nationwide. This model reflects an integrated composition of ideas stemming from collaborative and constructive workgroup dialogue with respect to current leadership learning and educational literature.

The model provides a three area integrated approach learning to measurable outcomes that align with industry needs. The first area, Integrated Collegiality, is intimately linked to the Venn diagram presented to its left. The diagram demonstrates the intentional stakeholder partnerships that form the foundation for a learning organization. This integrated approach created opportunities for stakeholders, partners, and future graduates to meet the complex adaptive challenges facing our communities and organizations. The second area, Relevant Coursework, implies that coursework must be constantly evaluated and recreated to meet the needs of those that our stakeholders serve. Dispositions and capacities serve as focal points for the developmental coursework. This is critical, as the model is adaptive to the changing dynamics of the systems it impacts. While skills and competencies change, dispositions and capacities maintain universal applicability. The third area, Experiential Application, addresses the profound need to contextualize learning for future leaders. This contextualization makes the application of knowledge authentic and thought provoking. Students find solutions and apply them in real situations predisposing them to using their capacities in professional settings.

Conclusions

The implications for this leadership learning context map include three main results or conclusions. For example, there is a consideration for leadership educators to provide depth and application within their program and to each of their students. This map is also transferable to like contexts including student development and academic leadership programs in institutions of

higher education. Finally, this model provides a conceptual understanding of how to approach leadership learning in interdisciplinary contexts across universities.

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Incorporating Ritual in Leadership Education

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Introduction

Rituals are a part of our lives. They help us make sense of our routines, help us understand the intricacies of human behavior, and ground us in our communities. Creating a safe place where students can learn and thrive is a key role of educators. Leadership educators are perhaps particularly concerned with this because of what we ask students to do and become.

But how do the ideas of ritual and community building intersect? Is there a place for ritual in building this safe space? As leadership educators, we continually strive to find ways of grabbing and engaging our learners in a subject matter that is more abstract than tangible and do so in a way that is safe and honors their individual experiences. Can ritual be the way that we do that?

Background

"Creating classroom communities is a moral task and an academic responsibility" (Breitborde, 1996, p. 367). The work we do in creating these classroom communities gives our students a chance to learn in a space that they feel safe to be who they are, how they are, in "real time". It is a necessity in all classrooms; however, these practitioners posit that the need for community is particularly acute in leadership classrooms where candid discussion, self-reflection and group work are keys facets of the learning process. But how is community created?

Durkheim (1961) described rituals as the ways that we create community identity. Smith and Stewart (2010) describe how rituals serve several purposes: "1) provide meaning, 2) manage anxiety, 3) exemplify and reinforce social order, 4) communicate important values, 5) enhance group solidarity, 6) include and exclude, 7) signal commitment, 8) manage work structure, and 9) prescribe and reinforce significant events" (p.117). These practitioners believe that these nine purposes are embraced by leadership educators as the outcomes we desire for our classroom communities; an environment where values are communicated, diverse opinions are embraced, and meaning is created. Here lies the intersection of these two conceptions; using ritual as the pathway to create vibrant classroom communities. But how do we to do that in a way that honors our subject matter and an increasingly diverse student population?

Description of practice

These practitioners propose the use of classroom rituals in order to set the stage for grabbing and holding our learners and creating a vibrant learning community. The following are examples of classroom rituals for throughout a single class session. Instructors could pick and choose one or more of these examples to fit their own situation.

It is important to note that in rituals where sharing occurs, the instructor of the course should be an active participant in the sharing AND the supporting. By sharing, the instructor sets the tone,

but more importantly demonstrates that being vulnerable is a part of the learning environment and is done so safely. Further, where supporting behaviors are necessary, the instructor should model those supportive behaviors for students.

Beginning of the Session Rituals
:

1. **Opening Ceremony**. Start your class session each time with the same words or actions. Examples of this may include a short meditation, an opening question that all students answer, or a group affirmation. The closer that the mediation/affirmation/question relates to the course content the better. Example: start class with a leadership quote and a moment of reflection.

2. **Student of the Day**. At the start of each class session, invite a different student to rise and share something about themselves. What they share should be something beyond surface information in order to promote deeper understanding of their classmates. Example, invite students to share a time that they were proud and a time they were embarrassed. Then have a second (or more where needed) student respond with an affirmative statement ("I've been there too", "That's happened to me", etc.)

3. **Thorns and Roses** (or similar). Ask all or a portion of students (depending on class size) to share a thorn and roses (something great going on in their lives AND something frustrating or challenging going on in their lives) at the beginning of each class session. Have the rest of the students show support by snapping their fingers.

Mid Session Rituals:

1. **Brain Break**. Can be used as one long break or a series of several short breaks depending on the length of your classroom session. Stop the activity or lecture to allow for a quiet moment of reflection, questions or comments. These need to be stream of consciousness breaks, allowing students to open their brains, relax, and refocus. This practice should be done at the same time in each session so that students come to expect it. Example: allow students to stand up, physically shake out the cobwebs, and then simultaneously, say one word that comes to mind when thinking about what they've learned so far that class session.

2. **Classroom 7th Inning Stretch**. Similar to a brain break, this ritual could be incorporated as one long intermission. You can use a song, quote, or meditation in place of "Take Me Out to the Ballgame". Allow students to help select the Stretch quote in order to help create buy-in. Do this Stretch at the same time each class period so that students know when to expect it. Example: at the same time each class session, all students stand up and recite the John F. Kennedy quote: "Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other".

End of Session Rituals:

1. **Silent Moment.** We embrace the need for reflection in order to solidify future transfer or application of knowledge. At the end of each class session take a moment to lead the class in a short, silent, guided reflection related to course content. Example: after a lecture on situational leadership, lead the group through a silent, guided reflection using an applicable scenario.

2. **I Have an Idea.** Each student or a selected student shares one idea gained throughout the class session that holds meaning for them. Not only do they connect back to course content, but they should also be attaching that idea to their own personal experiences furthering understanding of fellow students as people. Example, student responses should be framed thusly: "this lecture on _____ makes me think of _____ because _____".

Current results

Many leadership educators might already use some of these ideas in their courses. In those cases, it may be necessary for the instructor to explain the intentionality behind the purpose of ritual in building community. Students have met some of these approaches with more favor than others. Reticence to share authentic parts of themselves with strangers is not easy. Becoming reflective is also not easy. However, when confronted with how these practices play into the course, many students are willing to "give it a try".

Recommendations

An essential piece of this practice, and one whose importance cannot be overlooked is setting and maintain ground rules. As with any practice where sharing is required, rules like active listening and participation, not allowing one student's experience to invalidate another, and challenging only ideas and not people are key. Another recommendation is to make all of these ritual practices a challenge by choice. Students should be encouraged to participate, but not forced to do so. As the semester goes along, the sense of community should grow, and the desire of students to participate in these practices grows along with it. Finally, instructors should always be the first to model desired behaviors. Share of yourself. Meditate with the class, and learn how to do so well and with intention. Snap when it's time to do so.

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Investigating Soft Skill Development in an Agricultural Leadership Course

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Introduction

Employers want personnel with high levels of interpersonal skills (Mitchell, Skinner & White, 2010). They also want employees who "communicate effectively, get along well with their coworkers, embrace teamwork, take initiative, have high work ethic, and portray professionalism" (Robles, 2010, 462). Leadership courses are a great way to strengthen and enhance student's soft-skills. Soft-skills include: teamwork, communication, initiative, leadership ability, coaching, personal effectiveness, planning and organizing, and presentation skills (Crosbie, 2006). The purpose of this study was to test the use of an instrument to self-reflect on soft skill development.

Background

Soft skills "are quickly becoming a requirement that drives tangible and measurable increases in personal productivity" (Bancino & Zevalkink, 2007, p. 22). Although it is recognized that these skills are important to employers, many job seekers do not have soft-skills developed to an acceptable level (Robles, 2012). The learning and enhancement of soft skills can be accomplished through purposeful training and practice (Crosbie, 2005). Leadership courses can help with students' soft-skill development (Moore, Odom, & Moore, 2013). Many of the individual skills classified as "soft-skills" are taught explicitly in leadership courses and programs.

Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton and Fielitz (2011) identified seven Soft Skills Clusters each with seven specific items for a total 49 individual soft skills (Table 1).

Table 1

Soft-Skill Clusters and Example of Items (Crawford et al., 2011)

Communication skills:	Listen effectively, Effective oral communications, Effective written communications, Ask good questions, Communicate appropriately and professionally using social media
Decision Making / Problem Solving skills:	Identify and analyze problems, Take effective and appropriate action, Realize the effect of decisions, Engage in life-long learning
Self-management skills:	Efficient and effective work habits, Well-developed ethic, integrity and loyalty, Work well under pressure, Adapt and apply appropriate technology
Teamwork skills:	Productive as a team member, Positive and encouraging attitude, Work with multiple approaches, Aware and sensitive to diversity
Professionalism skills:	Accept and apply critique and direction in the work place, Trustworthy with sensitive information, Understand their role and has realistic career expectations, Maintain appropriate decor and demeanor

Experiences:	Related work or internship experiences, Project management experiences, Community engagement experiences, International experiences
Leadership skills:	See the "big picture" and think strategically, Recognize when to lead and when to follow, Recognize and deal constructively with conflict, Motivate and lead others, Recognize change is needed and lead the change effort

Methodology

Students in the agricultural leadership course "Professional Presentations" were asked to complete a questionnaire to assess their perception of the soft skills developed in the course. The instructor developed the questionnaire and administered it at the end of the Fall 2013 and Spring 2014 semesters. The questionnaire was used as an evaluation tool to investigate the soft skills students identified as learned and those that should be further enhanced. Qualtrics was used to collect student responses (who were given extra credit for completing the instrument). Thirty-five students completed the questionnaire. Students responded to the following question: *"Reflecting on only this course, indicate how well it developed your skill level in each of the following characteristics*."

Results

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the students' responses. On a scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree* students rated all of the seven cluster areas with a mean of 4.06 or higher. The highest rated cluster was Teamwork Skills (*M*= 4.29). The reliability coefficient of the instrument is .98.

Table 2
Student Perception of Soft Skills Taught an Agricultural Leadership Course (*n* = 35)

	Mean	SD
Communication Skills	4.24	.46
Decision Making Skills	4.06	.55
Self-Management Skills	4.21	.61
Teamwork	4.29	.47
Professionalism	4.24	.53
Experiences	4.15	.44
Leadership Skills	4.20	.68

Note: 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*

Conclusions

Students reported development in all the cluster areas in relation to this specific course. The area with the highest reported mean was *Teamwork* followed by *Professionalism* and *Communication*

Skills. All the areas were very high and may not truly reflect the actual skills gained in the course, but it is place to start future conversations.

Recommendations

The survey should continue to be administered and used as an evaluation tool for the soft skill development in this and other leadership courses. Students should be made aware the essential soft skills and allowed the opportunity to self-assess how they are developing in those areas. Actual assessment of the level of proficiency of each skill should also be conducted (Moore, Odom, & Moore, 2013). Practitioners and educators need to consider the soft skills when designing new courses or updating existing courses (Robles, 2012). Assignments should be created to purposefully teach these skills and allow for purposeful practice of the skills (Bancino & Zevalkink, 2007).

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Evaluating Leadership Pedagogy in the Experience Economy

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Introduction

Experiential learning is a term many leadership educators are familiar with. Kolb (1984) noted, In the field of higher education, there is a growing group of educators—faculty, administrators, and interested outsiders—who see experiential education as a way to revitalize the university curriculum and to cope with many of the changes facing higher education today. (p. 4)
The question must be asked, however, what constitutes an experience? An experience "is not an amorphous construct; it is as real an offering as any service, good, or commodity" and "occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage, and goods as props, to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event" (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, p. 98).

Pine and Gilmore (1998) noted that economic offerings such as commodities, goods, and services are external to buyers while experiences are internal. "Experiences are inherently personal, existing only in the mind of an individual who has been engaged on an emotional, physical, intellectual, or even spiritual level" (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, p. 99). The argument can be made that students are an educator's customers. It can also be argued that leadership educators strive to engage students (customers) on each of these levels through the various teaching strategies they employ within their programs, classrooms, or other contexts.

Background

Pine and Gilmore (1998) classified experiences based on two dimensions: customer participation (ranging from passive to active) and the connection that unites customers with the event or performance (ranging from absorption to immersion). Categorizing experiences based on these two dimensions yields four broad categories: Entertainment (passive participation; absorption), Educational (active participation; absorption), Escapist (active participation; immersion), and Esthetic (passive participation; immersion). While Pine & Gilmore only identified four categories of experiences, they did note, "generally, we find that the richest experiences – such as going to Disney World or gambling in a Las Vegas casino – encompass aspects of all four realms, forming a 'sweet spot' around the area where the spectra meet" (p. 102). The question we must ask ourselves as leadership educators then becomes, what kinds of "experiences" are we providing our students?

Based on a review of literature, recommendations from a panel of experts, and personal expertise and experience, Jenkins (2012) identified 24 instructional strategies used in leadership education programs. Jenkins (2012) used these 24 instructional strategies to assess the frequency with which they are used by instructors in undergraduate leadership studies courses and to determine if there were identifiable signature pedagogies in the leadership discipline. Findings indicated

that all 24 strategies were used at least Rarely (Less than 10% of class sessions). One strategy (class discussion) was used between Almost Always (66-90% of class sessions) and Always (91-100% of class sessions) and four (interactive lecture & discussion, small group discussion, group projects & presentations, and research project presentations) were used between Frequently (34-65% of class sessions) and Almost Always (66-90% of class sessions).

Jenkins (2012) concluded "the use of instructional strategies in collegiate leadership education are underdeveloped in the literature" (p. 19) and recommended further research related to the use of instructional strategies and their impact on learning. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the 24 instructional pedagogies identified and described by Jenkins (2012) in terms of the type of experience each strategy can provide students.

Description of Methodology

This study employed deductive analysis using an existing framework (Patton, 2002). Using the Four Realms of Experience Model (Pine & Gilmore, 1998), each of the 24 instructional strategies identified and described by Jenkins (2012) was categorized by the researchers into one of the four categories of experiences: Entertainment, Educational, Escapist, or Esthetic. The researchers removed their notions about how they would employ each instructional strategy in their classroom and relied solely the description provided by Jenkins (2012) when categorizing each instructional strategy. To ensure consistency of the categorization, researchers categorized the instructional strategies collectively.

Current Results

The largest number of instructional strategies was categorized into the Escapist category, followed by the Entertainment category, the Esthetic category, and the Educational category (see Table 1).

Table 1
Categorization of Instructional Strategies by Experience Type

Experience Economy Category	Number of Instructional Strategies	Instructional Strategies Included
Escapist	8	Games, Icebreakers, Interview of a Leader, Role Play Activities, Service Learning, Simulation, Student Peer Teaching, Teambuilding
Entertainment	7	Case Studies, Guest Speakers, In-class Short Writing, Interactive Lecture/Discussion, Lecture, Media Clips, Story or Storytelling
Esthetic	5	Exams, Quizzes, Reflective Journals, Research Project/Presentation, Self-Assessments & Instruments
Educational	4	Class Discussion, Group Projects/Presentations, Individual Leadership Development Plans, Small Group Discussions

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based purely on the description of the various instructional strategies, not actual implementation, the majority of the instructional strategies were categorized as Escapist or Entertainment (*n*=15, 62.5%). These categories are opposite each other in The Four Realms of an Experience Model (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Thus, leadership educators are incorporating activities designed to require both active participation and immersion in the content (Escapist experiences) as well as passive engagement and absorption of the content (Entertainment experiences).

Pine and Gilmore (1998) tell us that if consistently engaging experiences are not provided, our consumers will go elsewhere. To recruit and retain the highest quality students, our course offerings should be consistently refreshed, allowing them to be immersed, active participants in their learning. It is encouraging, then, that the Escapist category (active participation; immersion) included the most instructional strategies.

If we embrace the notion that students are in fact consumers of our courses, then we also must embrace that our offerings should be framed in a way that gives our consumers what they want. Pine and Gilmore (1998) describe 5 ways to frame experiences: 1) Theme the experience, 2) Harmonize the experience with positive cues, 3) Eliminate negative cues, 4) Mix in memorabilia, and 5) Engage all five senses. Educators are encouraged to use these in conjunction with what we know about pedagogical design to create innovative experiences. Embracing the design principles provided by Pine and Gilmore (1998), while not a guarantee of success, could be used as a guide in trying to answer the increasing demands of an ever more consumer-oriented student base. As they so eloquently noted, “from now on, leading-edge companies – whether they sell to consumers or businesses – will find that the next competitive battleground lies in staging experiences” (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, pp. 97-98).

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Looking Through the Lens of Leadership: An Innovative Leadership Practice

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Introduction

It is often said "a picture is worth a thousand words." Research linking pictures with memory and emotion has been around for many years. In a study conducted by Nelson, Reed, and McEvoy in 1977, the researchers stated, "Pictures are easier to remember than words." So what does this mean in context of associating leadership through meaningful photography? "The sensory representation for a simple picture, the code associated with its visual configuration, may provide superior mnemonic as compared to the sensory representation evoked by its label" (Nelson, Reed & McEvoy, 1977, p. 486). In layman's terms, a picture often triggers more emotions and associations than words.

Background

Based on previous leadership literature, there is no clear and distinct definition of leadership (Haber & Komives, 2009; Huber, 2002; Ricketts & Bruce, 2008; Nahavandi, 2006). In fact, Riggo (2013) claims the majority of knowledge about leaders and leadership is wide spread. "There is a generally held belief that knowledge about leadership is 'all over the place'" (Riggo, 2013, p. 10). However, the term leadership is familiar to most and the majority of society can concoct a working definition based on his or her perspective and personal context (Huber, 2002). Therefore, leadership can hold a different meaning for different people.

Description of the Practice

This purpose of this innovative practice poster is to describe the results of a photography assignment in assigned in a personal development leadership course at [State] University. The assignment asked students to portray how they viewed leadership through the use of photography. Each student was asked to capture five quality images that they believed represented leadership. The images could be taken with a multitude of devices: camera phones, iPads, point and shoot cameras, or SLR cameras. However, it was required that the images were clear and of printable quality.

Because leadership is personal and different to everyone, the students did not have to limit their pictures to specific categories. This allowed an opportunity for students to be creative. However, it was emphasized that the photographs should be appropriate content. Furthermore, students were required to select subjects they believed related directly to their personal view of leadership. Along with the pictures submitted, students were required to briefly narrate (2-3 sentences) why they believed the photograph represented leadership. Finally, students were required to take original photos. This helped eliminate the submission of photographs copied from the internet or another source.

Results

A total of 130 pictures (N= 26) were turned in for the Leadership Lens assignment. From the 130 photographs, a total of four major themes emerged including:

- individuals students identify as leaders
- quotes or verses students associated with leadership
- action shots of people doing things reflective of leadership
- stationary objects symbolic of leadership

Students also responded favorable to the assignment. Class discussion pertaining to the assignment was lively and students were informally observed as being more engaged. Additionally, more introverted students had an opportunity to voice their opinions on leadership through the reflection portion (two to three descriptive sentences about each picture) and many times students exceed the three sentence limitation.

Conclusions and Recommendations

An informal evaluation, presented in a Stop, Start, Continue format, revealed students enjoyed the Leadership Lens assignment. Of the 26 students enrolled in the course, 23 students specifically mentioned that the Leadership Lens assignment should continue to be implemented in future personal leadership development courses. Students stated they liked the assignment because it allowed them the opportunity to work alone, to be creative, and to use their mobile devices (camera phones) to complete an assignment. Students also were able to obtain a better grasp of the concept of leadership by making applications from their everyday surroundings.

In the future, instructors should search for additional ways to incorporate popular technology, such as camera phones, into class assignments. Additionally, this assignment could be enhanced by hosting a Leadership Lens Exhibit where students have the opportunity to display their leadership photographs and explain their thoughts and views on leadership. Furthermore, this event could provide the opportunity for interdisciplinary collaboration if leadership faculty partnered with faculty in communications, visual arts, and journalism.

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Leader Development of Early Career Alumni of Leadership Minor Programs

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Introduction

Little is known about how leadership minor graduates integrate and apply the curricular leadership learning and experience into the practice of leadership in the workplace and/or community contexts. The purpose of this exploratory study is to describe the early career experiences of students graduating with leadership studies minors from two land grant universities. "Early career" is defined as approximately five years from graduation. Our inquiry will serve the purpose of exploring leadership development beyond the higher education experience. We believe that analyzing experiences of leadership minor alumnus will help us to understand how leadership studies curriculum is related to knowledge and skills required for workplace and community engagement success. Specifically, this study explores the following research questions: (1) How do early career alumni describe their leadership experiences beyond college? (2) What are significant influences on early career alumni's leader identity formation and leader development? And (3) How do early career alumni beliefs and practices represent or reflect curricular and developmental goals of leadership minor programs?

Background

Many contemporary leadership development programs, and specifically leadership studies minors, are built around the assumption that our world needs leaders, and leadership is available to all (e.g., social change model, HERI, 1996). Given the complexity of today's world and challenges facing organizations and societies, conventional, leader-centric views of leadership are often contested; with a growing emphasis on relational perspectives that emphasize the process of leaders and followers working together to create positive change (e.g., Komives & Wagner, 2009). How well do these minor programs accelerate students' readiness for leader development, expand their conceptions of what leadership is and is for, and increase their capacity to exercise leadership?

The development of a leader identity is one of the most important predictors of effective leadership and career development (Day & Harrison, 2007; Hall, 2004). Identity is an important grounding force for leaders, helping them to understand "who they are, what are their major goals and aspirations, and what are their personal strengths and challenges" (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009, p. 57), and providing a "reliable set of priorities, values, and preferences, which can aid in decision making" (p. 64). Hall (2004) suggested that leader identity development is facilitated by key experiences in a person's career, including critical events and role transitions that trigger personal exploration leading to change in self-awareness. Research on student leadership identity development suggests that students move from personal, to relational, to more collective leadership beliefs and practices over time through experience and contextual

influences like adult mentors, peer influences, reflective learning and meaningful involvements (Komives,Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen, 2005; Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen and Owen, 2009). Assuming leader identity is not static, but relational, contextual and dynamic over time (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), and formed through developmental "spirals" - as individuals engage in changing contexts of learning and development through leadership experience, they gain competence and a changing sense of self (Day et al., 2009) - then it seems important to consider how one's experiences post-college will continue to impact their leader identity and development.

Komives et al. (2009) points to the lack of research on leadership life span development or on long term processes of leadership identity and capacity formation. In their development of a grounded theory of leadership development (LID), the authors utilized in-deep interviews for better gaining insight into people's experiences and interpretations of their own leadership development (Komives et al., 2009). Additionally, the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) suggests that intentional programmatic assessment and evaluation is a priority; including not only understanding how our programs impact learners, but also how we can develop new practices and resources for assessing that learning (Andenero et al., 2013). A life-narrative approach may be such a practice.

Methodology

The population of this qualitative inquiry are early career alumni of two land-grant universities who have completed a leadership studies minor. Using purposeful sampling and the maximum variation approach (Seidman 2006), we will select 10 leadership alumni five years from graduation (5 alumni from each university). Consent will be obtained for a series of two in-depth, semi-structured, face-to-face or telephone interviews - each lasting approximately 60 minutes. According to Seidman (2006) "in-depth, phenomenological interviewing applied to a sample of participants who all experience similar structural and social conditions gives enormous power to the stories of a relatively few participants" (p. 55). The first interviews will ask participants to create a fuller context on how they identified and engaged in leader development or behaviors before, during, and after their experience in a collegiate leadership studies minor. The second interview will expand on the topics identified by the first interviews, as well as allow for additional reflection on how the minor prepared them for their post-college leadership experiences and continued development. Analysis includes the use of member-checking, coding, and inter-coder reliability checking by the team of researchers. The creation and use of a common codebook will provide us "an analytic opportunity to organize and reorganize the codes into major categories and subcategories" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 21).

Discussion

We began this inquiry in October 2014 and are currently in the data collection process. We believe this exploratory study has the potential to extend our understanding of students' leadership identity development beyond the higher education experience, although judging the efficacy of the leadership studies minor on alumnus leadership development is a task that goes beyond the present study. Our study will help bring to light leader develop narratives post

college, and lay the foundation for future research to inform the development of programs, curriculum and practice within leadership studies programs.

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Using the Process of Innovation to Develop Complex Adaptive Leadership in Interdisciplinary Undergraduate Students

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Introduction

Leadership education is moving towards foci of building human capacity, informed by leadership theory and research (Andenoro, Allen, Haber--Curran, Jenkins, Sowick, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013).
Ability to build human capacity is linked to integration of innovation to inspire change (Pink, 2006) and to strategically soar in a career amidst a growing, globalized economy (Dyer, Gregersen, & Christensen, 2011). In our current society, leaders need to effectively identify and tackle the uncertainty associated developing solutions to global challenges using a systems thinking approach. Merging development of adaptive leadership (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002) and complex systems leadership (Lichtenstein, Uhl--Bien, Marion, Seers, Orton, & Schreiber, 2006) provide an opportunity to enhance global leadership education through integration of innovation.

McKinsey Quarterly completed a survey of almost 1500 business executives and suggested innovation is one of the top three drivers of growth to accelerate companies' worldwide (Capozzi, 2010). Although businesses are integrating innovation into strategic agendas and seeking new employees with strong innovative skills, academia is slow to matriculate innovation into curriculum to prepare effective, future leaders. The Challenge 2050 Project, is a unique, interdisciplinary program at the University of Florida, focused on undergraduate student development grounded in adaptive problem solving capacity and complexity leadership. One of the major objectives of the program is to prepare effective, future leaders who use innovation expression as a means to develop adaptive solutions to complex, global challenges. Here, we explore student's perspectives of how the creative process links to growth in development of solution--based leadership learning.

Background

Leaders develop competencies over time, which translate to enhanced knowledge and skills with increased career experience. There is a challenge in higher education, however, to build student capacity to effectively lead through curriculum opposed to career experience. Higher levels of conceptual capacity are developed when leaders are confronted and challenged to solve more complex issues over time (Mumford, Zaccario, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). The Challenge Project 2050 curriculum places students in these leadership roles; students are forced to confront and construct solutions to global challenges that do not have a given answer. The Challenge 2050 Project encourages development of adaptive leadership and complex systems leadership that is grounded in the skills model (2000). Students guide their capacity building of individual attributes (e.g., cognitive ability, motivation, and personality) to increase competencies (e.g., problem--solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge) that cultivate leadership outcomes (i.e., ability address complex, problems).

Innovation drives adaptive and complex systems leadership learning in undergraduate students. Innovation is interpreted as the development and application of better solutions, yet also categorized as the discovery of something novel. Students struggle with the concept of innovation, putting too much pressure on themselves to be novel with ideas. However, having students describe their innovative process identified leadership skills and competencies gained from application of innovation to solve problems. These student perspectives highlight how leadership education may advance academic development of the effective, global leaders educators strive to prepare.

Description Program and Research Methods

The Challenge 2050 Project is a dynamic, interdisciplinary program in the Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences at the University of Florida. The Challenge 2050 Project includes academic and programmatic initiatives connecting a diversity of students, faculty, industry leaders, community members, and policy makers to address complex, global challenges through authentic experience.

Through collaboration solutions are developed addressing the question, "how will we sustain a growing human population projected to exceed 9 billion people by the year 2050 and beyond?" Solutions develop to address this question requires connecting systems (e.g., food, economic, environmental, health, and social) to target global challenges like water security, energy use, or poverty development. The academic initiative of the Challenge 2050 Project, the Global Leadership and Change Certificate, includes five courses founded in development of adaptive and complex system leadership capacities. Students are challenged to embrace the uncertainty associated with solving complex, global problems through critical thinking, innovation, and evaluation as individuals and teams. Students are held accountable by having to apply their solutions in authentic (real--life) contexts.

The innovation process was qualified as related to development of leadership capacities from undergraduate students (N=19 students) in the 2015 Challenge 2050: Tools for Changing the World course. Students described their creative process and articulated how they use their process to develop solutions to the Challenge 2050 Project. Data consisted of written and oral dissemination and were analyzed using open coding and axial coding to provide a content analysis (Creswell, 2012). Emerging themes of leadership skills linked to expression of the innovation process were identified and grouped into categories. Data were coded into emergent categories and through constant comparison of categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) so to provide leadership learning perspectives.

Conclusions/ Recommendations

Undergraduate students identified the importance of five, leadership skills from describing their innovative process: 1) holistic thinking, 2) continual evaluation, 3) adaptability, 4) taking risks, and
5) positivity. Students articulated these components of their innovative process as the foundation and tools they use to solve, complex adaptive challenges. Specifically, students suggested holistic thinking (e.g., connecting ideas, including divergent perspectives, and keeping an open

mind about the big picture) created the foundation to make effective decisions. Students recognized continual evaluation as a key component to enhance the innovation process and produce successful outcomes. Adaptability was noted in context of developing comfort with trial--and--error processes and ability to reconstruct ideas to advance forward. Students shared taking risks (e.g., stepping outside comfort zone, embracing curiosity, and letting go of judgment) made them uncomfortable, but recognized the significance of such action to develop solutions with global impact. Students connected positivity with successful innovation and ability to foster inquisitive environments, lead teams, and celebrate accomplishments. Overall, through exploration and application of the innovation process undergraduate students are emerging as leaders with skills necessary to solve complex, challenges.

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Leadership of strategic projects for a sustainable future

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Abstract

This paper describes the development of a postgraduate project leadership course using action research cycles to connect and evolve a range of concepts into an effective blended learning experience that generates high quality learning outcomes for project leaders. The principles of this learning design and approach will be useful for other leadership education programs and also for other professional development topics.

Keywords: Leadership, Projects, Learning strategy, Curriculum, Performance, Reflection.

Introduction

Leadership education is a complex and challenging pursuit for both the learner and the learning facilitator. Outcomes of leadership development in terms of leadership capabilities for project managers can be variable and not aligned to the needs of the learner and the organisations they serve. The importance of both leadership and projects for the future of organizations is highlighted as organizations wrestle with constant change and strategy being implemented though projects under time and resource pressures. The need for leaders to understand projects and for project managers to become leaders has never been greater to ensure sustained performance and reduce failure.

Leadership is an important aspect for professional and personal success. Leaders inspire others to follow them and be part of what they represent and deliver. There are literally millions of books and articles written about leadership because of the very wide interest in being a leader and making a difference. However, whilst there are some people who are natural leaders, many are not. The good news is that whilst not everyone will get to become a global leader of note, we can all improve our leadership capabilities to be better at leading others. As a result a very high proportion of education and training organizations offer some form of leadership education, training or development programs. The quality and impact of these varies enormously depending on the quality of the facilitator, the environment, the participants and interactions that happens as part of the learning. This paper reports on an experimental leadership development program that has evolved over the past four years to what participants describe as rewarding and constructive and which makes a difference for this ability to lead.

This research explores leadership development designed for postgraduate practitioners in the field of project management. One of the common criticisms of project managers is that they are often too focused on tactical aspects of projects and can lack the leadership skills to engage their team members. The result of this is a high percentage of projects fail to deliver the expected outcomes. Given the current contexts of globalization, rapid change resulting in strategy delivered though shorter-term projects (often at the expense of longer- term sustainability), the ability for a project manager to step up and lead is critical to economic performance and social

partnerships. This is increasingly being recognized with many institutions involved in project management, including the professional associations

such as the Project Management Institute now placing more emphasis on soft skills and especially leadership capabilities.

The development of the postgraduate course in project leadership described in this paper, reflects the collaborative efforts of an experienced international project manager engaging with the insights and wisdom of a veteran academic in project management. Together they have combined the theory and practice of project leadership into comprehensive learning experience to build confidence and capability for their learners.

Literature Review

Leadership education has been and exciting and rapidly developing field and there is a vast body of literature on this in a general sense. Education to develop of leaders in specific fields has also progressed in parallel to this, including the development of project leaders. There are nuances associated with different field that benefit from taking and adjusted approach in that specific area. The role of a project leader is to align the priority projects with the desired direction of the organisation and allocate resources to these to be effectively delivered. Poor prioritisation and lack of alignment of key initiatives with business vision and goals is a common issue in many organisations and causes wastage and sub-optimal performance (Englund & Bucero, 2006; Vidal & Marle, 2008). Such disconnections between implementation of initiatives and organizational strategy result from poor leadership communication of purpose and intent (Klakegg, Williams, Walker, Andersen, & Morten, 2010; Nogeste & Walker, 2008). This reinforces the need to extend project education beyond the tactical "Iron Triangle" aspects of time, quality, cost and scope (Caccamese & Bragantini, 2012) to include strategic soft skills to generate more professional project leaders (Wong, 2013).

The Australian Qualifications Framework (Australian Qualifications Framework Council, 2011), and those like it in other countries, is a structure established to ensure appropriate level and quality of education for post-secondary school education. Postgraduate education (AQF levels 7-10) requires higher levels of cognitive development and greater self-directed learning and knowledge contributions. Walker (2008) explored what learning experiences were appropriate to deliver postgraduate project management education to meet doctoral level standards. He reflected on how to engage remote learners, usually working in isolation, in a rich virtual learning experience through a combination of academic practitioner experiences. Bredillet et al (2013) highlighted a number of approaches and techniques to address some of these challenges to create better Project management PhD (AQF level 10) learning experiences. Shelley (2014) developed some innovations for masters level (AQF level 9) innovations in project management and business (MBA) courses. These suggest that a strong blend of academic and practical experiences enhance the quality of learning and the employability for learners and reinforces the long known principle that students benefit from applying what they are learning in practice more than just discussing the relevant theories (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

Effective leaders understand that a constant flow of improvement and change projects are necessary to maintain relevancy and competitive advantage. Projects are the mechanism through which significant change in implemented to innovate for the future (Martinsuo, Hensman, Artto, Kujala, & Jaafari, 2006; Müller & Turner, 2010) and this requires some adaptation of traditional leadership styles. Effective leadership of change requires experience and the ability to apply emergent knowledge in conditions of uncertainty (Snowden & Boone, 2007). So project leaders benefit from being able to adopt or adapt to new complex and emergent situations in order to lead their projects in a dynamic and diverse economy. Sentiments echoed in provocative challenges that project leadership and management theory are limited (Koskela & Howell, 2002) and that new approaches are appropriate. This has been reinforced by project management training at the time being task orientated, including in the PMI PMBOK® (PMI, 2004), the leading industry advocate at the time. The common trend was to treat projects as insular, independent activities remote from "business as usual". However, the world rapidly become more "projectified" (Godenhjelm, Lundin, & Sjöblom, 2015) to force organisational strategy to become implemented through a series of projects, rather than routine processes (Young, Young, Jordan, & O'Connor, 2012). This trend highlighted a real need to develop more leadership around projects and "rethink" how projects are done and their role in how organisations adjust to these changes in how productive work gets done (Müller & Turner, 2010) and from managing tasks in isolation to leading projects that are forming new foundations of change towards constantly changing and complex organisational requirements (Winter, Smith, Cooke-Davies, & Cicmil, 2006). The dialogue needed to change from convergent inward analytical management focus to more divergent leadership envisioning strategy (Bredillet, Yatim, & Ruiz, 2010). Clearly both are required to implement successful projects, but the balance needed to shift towards more open conversations. The challenges for faster delivery is changing the way project success is measured and influencing the behaviour of project leaders (Andersen, 2008; Cervone, 2008).

The last two versions of the PMBOK® shows this shift in perspective with increasing attention to leadership and soft skills (PMI, 2008, 2013). Despite these realisations, the transition from thinking and knowing into doing has been relatively slow. The unfortunate reality for the majority of organizations is that new approaches are relatively slow to be adopted into practice and into the education of project leaders. There remains a significant gap between academics and practitioners, the literature they read and are influenced by. These recommendations were also reinforced in the rethinking project management papers (Andersen, 2008; Maylor, 2006) and in emerging Agile literature (Morris & Ma, 2014).

There is a real opportunity to enhance the leadership education to adjust to the changing needs of leaders generally, and certainly in the area of project leadership. This opportunity can be addressed through design and facilitation of leadership education experiences that are more challenging, complex and applied. This work introduces one approach that has been shown to work and could be widened in scope and application to generate greater benefits and reduce risks and errors.

Methods

A postgraduate (Master of Project Management) course on the topic of Project Leadership was evolved through experimenting with curriculum design and teaching techniques over a period of

four years. The course was adapted to draw upon a wide range of learning theories and adjusted based on feedback at the end of each semester using an action research approach (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010; Herr & Anderson, 2005). Notes from all interactions and from unsolicited email interactions were taken (anonymously and with permission) by the author to complement feedback from official anonymous course experience surveys and discussion with other learning facilitators familiar with the courses. This research reports on the observations taken from the first 3 times each of the two courses have been facilitated. Student numbers varied from 12 for a completely virtual delivery of the course for international students, to 23 in a blended version involving four face to face sessions supplemented with remote interactions and a collaborative wiki.

Course Experience Surveys (CES) were used as one source of data to assess the effectiveness of the course approach and structure. CES are independently conducted by the university as a means of collecting anonymous student feedback on all courses. These include free text comments and quantitative five point scale responses to questions. Results for "Overall Satisfaction Index" (OSI) and "Good Teaching Score" (GTS) are calculated as percent scores based on the proportion of students that "agree or strongly agree" with a series of statements and questions. The arithmetic means of student responses across these criteria are also provided in Table 1 for comparison at course, school, college and university levels.

The course has been developed through iterative cycles using the principles of andragogy (Knowles, 1984; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011) to elicit interactions between the learners, so that they engaged with each other in face-to-face workshops and through shared insights they contributed to a collaborative wiki. Participants were encouraged to participate in a variety of techniques through the semester in a blended teaching environment. These was taken to leverage the experiences of the participants brought out through interactive conversations, role plays and games and then assess these through submitted written work. This approach leverages participants' insights around the content and theories, rather than the traditional approach of just presenting content and engages them to apply it in their own experiences and reflections in assignments.

The course structure was designed to optimise learning cycles within the semester through three cycles of formative assessment with comprehensive feedback. The course covered four key topics influencing the quality of leadership, namely; Success, Strategy, Stakeholders and (Leadership) Styles. Three weeks were invested on each of these topics and an assignment was submitted at the end of each topic. The format of the assignments was different for each stage, becoming more complex and demanding each time. The course was scaffolded to provide feedback from each topic before students were required to submit the next assignment so as to provide insights and create a foundation for the next topic. The first assignment was completed as individuals, but outputs shared in a collaborative wiki, so that all benefited from each other's work. Each student completed reviews of three research articles on the topic of success of relevance to leading projects.

This way, the class as a whole generated a database of seventy-two article reviews. This became a key support resource to guide their subsequent assignments. The second assignment was on the topic of strategy and each student was required to play the role of a journal editor and provide

feedback on a cases study paper from a previous student and had to provide constructive advice on how to improve it (based on recommended readings on the topic. The final two assessments required students to write case studies from their own experiences focusing on the topics of stakeholders and leadership styles reflecting in the impacts theories from the literature had (or did not have) on their own project outcomes. This required the learners to reflect deeply on their own leadership styles and how this impacts how they operate in their own practice.
The approach to learning was highlighted to the students at the commencement of the course. This was a deliberate attempt to stimulate them to engage to optimise their learning outcomes and for them to focus them on the learning capabilities they will gain.

Explanations of how the interactive approach and discursive learning environment were provided to highlight how this style of learning enhances the richness of their experiences, accelerates capability development and provides higher quality learning experiences.

Findings

Accurately measuring the outcomes of education is a challenge, especially when learners pass through the institutions before they get real opportunities to demonstrate their new capabilities in practice. For this reason, it is beneficial to utilise a range of ways to assess the effectiveness of the learning. Each one may have limitations, so a combination approaches can provide richer insights and perhaps more credible assessment overall. The most common traditional approach is to survey the learners using numbered scales and allowing free text comments. Calculations are then made across the criteria to provide an average quantitative score of the teaching practice or the satisfaction levels (despite these being based on subjective perceptions). Despite the limitations inherent in this process to assess the capability developed by the learners, these figures can provide some insights about the learning process itself. This is enhanced by comparison of the measures oat the individual course level to the same measures gained for other courses in the same school, college and University level (refer to Table 1).

Table 1: Assessment of learning quality using student course experience survey measures Good Teaching Scale (GTS) and Overall Satisfaction Index (OSI) at course, school, college and university levels

Measure	Leadership course	All courses in School	All courses in College	All courses in University
OSI "% agree"	**81**	76	76	75
OSI numerical mean (5 max)	**4.2**	3.9	3.9	3.9
GTS "% agree"	**85**	71	74	71
GTS numerical mean (5 max)	**4.3**	3.8	4.0	3.9
Total surveys sent	**34**	4,771	51,249	185,063
Surveys completed %	**47**	22	36	28

The measures listed in Table 1, when assessed with the overall context of this school, college and university, provide insights into the perspectives of the learners and what they thought of the

quality of the learning experience. These all show that the learning experience was considered better than the average experience across each of the other levels. This may also be influenced by other factors such as size of the classes and the level of study engaged (this is a postgraduate course with participants mostly engaged in part- time study and in full-time work). These are important factors when considering this type of learner is becoming more of the norm that traditional full time study, especially at postgraduate levels.

Within the limitations highlighted earlier of such evidence, it is clear that learners enjoyed their participation in the course more than in other courses. Insights on this can be elicited from the specific comments posted in the free text feedback. The applied open collaborative approach and action learning in workshops are considered strong elements of the positive learning experience, as seen from some of the comments in Table 2. This selection of pertinent quotes taken from the independently collected Course Experience Survey, highlights strong themes of the importance of real contexts and the combination of creative design in both the curriculum and the assignment structure. Learners were able to understand more relevance of the theories covered, by the theories and interactive techniques such as collaborative development of ideas, role playing in context and writing case studies from their own experiences.

Table 2: Participant feedback on approaches to Leadership learning experience

"I think more courses should be structured this way. Challenging thoughts and critical thinking with theory is much better than memorizing something without context."
"The benefit gained from collaboration and discussion enabled much deeper understanding that could actually be retained rather than regurgitated and forgotten."
"Promotion of the model in all courses is encouraged. More meaningful learning outcomes are possible with theories delivered in this approach."
"Being asked to give real-life examples based on previous experiences enabled me to not only remember, but also apply theories."
"The real value was the ability to challenge theory and explore the realistic side of theory."
"I like this course for its highly interactive methodology and learning experience… made the course interesting, informative and enjoyable."
"Creative assignment submissions …make the course more interesting to study."
"Richer learning outcomes were delivered rather than theory based, text driven learning. It empowered students, students are more engaged and learning outcomes were of a higher standard."
"I liked the assignment where I was encouraged to think as a journal editor… my next assignment improved a lot… thanks to the comments in prior assignments."

"I was very grateful to receive your constructive and thorough feedback on every assignment. As you can see, I learnt and tried to improve my work from your valuable feedback/comments."

"I enjoyed the way you used simple examples or small games to demonstrate different elements of leadership as well as what we should improve to be better leaders. Group work and discussions were all very informative and knowledge-driven."

"The fact that past themes and content keep re-emerging, showing connectivity is very helpful in terms of looking at things as a whole rather than silos."

"The design of assignments and assessments is interesting."

"Strong outcomes though shared and reflective practice was different and exciting. As real outcomes were shared, experience and reflection was a great learning initiative."

"Provides a lot of information on different aspects of how to improve managing projects" "I really appreciate the detailed and on-time comments on our assignments… I improved myself within (course) *time."*

"Getting a wiki done early was excellent. It forced me to gain a solid understanding very early in the course which as the course goes on was easy to follow."

The assessment structured from simplest to more complex tasks, with rich feedback between them, has clearly been appreciated as noted in both informal and formal feedback from the participants (Refer comments in Table 2). The feedback leveraged through an on- line assessment tool to combine detailed rubrics, "standardized comments" for common flaws, free text on the actual electronic submission and individualized voice summary message). These and the fact that the course involved activities to leverage the basic skills in early assessments and apply them to more sophisticated leadership capabilities required in later assignments. For example, displaying judgement though writing a critical review from a range of perspectives for an article of unknown quality (using the role play of a journal editor providing feedback). This activity requires them to use the higher level skills and capabilities. This experience in turn, makes them more capable to effectively perform the highest level of capabilities in the final case studies. The challenge of reflecting on how their own experiences and the actions of their project team colleagues impacted their projects had on organizational performance provided deeper understanding of the concepts. This was discernible in the differences in quality of the first case study in comparison to the second (final assessment). The author believes this experiencing of such challenges in iterative cycles is more likely to be retained after the course and into the ongoing performance of the individual as a project leader.

Discussion

The proposition being made in this work is that the quality of the learning is enhanced by leveraging concepts from a range of disciplines and overtly linking this to the students own

experiences through facilitated conversations. Highlighting the interdependence of the many complex aspects of leadership and asking learners to reflect on how they can apply these ideas to their own situations to enhance their leadership performance. It seems logical and relevant to leadership development, to design a curriculum that requires reflection from both an academic perspective and with practitioner insights to enhance learning for both relevance and robustness. Interactive action learning activities set within a context of project helped to engage learners more effectively and brings a sense of reality and meaning to the process.

There is little doubt that sophisticated hybrid education processes will greatly assist to develop more adaptable project leaders. Blending academic and practitioner capabilities through experiential courses of this type will provide broader soft and hard skills appropriate to becoming effective and efficient professional leaders in any field. Project leaders who can reflect more deeply on their own experiences will develop themselves to become more able to constructively leverage the collective abilities of their team. As a result, they will more effectively embedding models and theories into their practice, whilst dynamically shifting between managing tasks and leading teams. By contrast, content and rules based teaching is unlikely to develop the soft skills required for successful project leadership as these require experiences and social exchange in a context. They also benefit from real situations in which the learners need to make decisions and exchange perspectives through constructive dialogue. In doing so, they will create more sustainable value and are more likely to accelerate the adoption of change for themselves and for their teams. One of the objectives of the course, to satisfy the need to develop effective projects leaders for an unknown future (Snook, Nohria, & Khurana, 2012), has been fulfilled based on the feedback and insights provided in this research. This also aligns with the concept that value from professional development extends beyond content and towards how we interact with each other (Polanyi & Grene, 1969), as extensively discussed more recently by White (2007).

Structuring this course in the language, context and activities of leadership and projects enhances the learning experience and makes it more interesting for the facilitator. Moving away from teacher and content focused presentations to student centred dialogue about content in the student's own contexts and experiences produces richer learning and higher quality student submissions. The collaborative learning environment enables all students to learn from all other as well as the facilitator. Success of this approach is considered to be associated with the way multiple disciples have been integrated into the approach including; leadership, stakeholder engagement, project management, action learning, reflective practice and sense-making. Reflecting on the impacts of applying soft skills to their own experiences develops insights into leadership capabilities in practice.

Applying the andragogy principles helps build and leverage social capital and generates opportunities for each student to individually interact with the learning facilitator and their peers, through both face-to-face and virtual connections. Deployment of activities such as case studies, games and role plays to explore the best and worst outcomes of complex scenarios, rather than considering 'theoretical textbook' solutions assists with reinforcing the benefits of generating options for future realistic scenarios. Participants reflect on learning outcomes, reinforcing the activity's purpose to optimize. Critical reflection on their peers' perspectives develops each student's capability to challenge concepts and context, and ultimately to become more capable professionals. Students develop confidence to think for themselves about decisions and actions in

their workplaces. This reflection and skills development directly contributes to developing professional capability and personal strengths, aligns with McIntosh's (2010) recommendations for reflective practitioners.

Conclusions

We all know that one don't become a leader by reading and reciting leadership theory. Leadership is about stimulating others to follow you on a journey towards a better future and this requires (amongst other things) credibility, trust, experience and emotional intelligence. Leaders develop their capabilities to envision, strategize and influence by experiencing a range of challenges and learning from them in iterative cycles. This development can be accelerated and enhanced through well structure and assessed learning experiences. This research shows that the quality of the leadership learning experience can be enhanced through combining an andragogy approach with action learning interactions and embedding these into the learners own experiences. Students of leadership engaged in this postgraduate leadership education program, designed to connect across the interdependent aspects in complex situations, have reported this to be a constructive and stimulating learning experience and one they recommend is expanded to other leadership development opportunities.

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An Examination of the Leadership Competencies of Doctoral Students: A Qualitative Analysis

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Abstract:

This qualitative study focused on the leadership competencies of doctoral students. The major goals of the study was 1) to examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of faculty, 2) to examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of graduates, 3) to examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of current doctoral students, and 4) to determine whether differences exist between male and female participants in their identification of leadership competencies of doctoral students. Eight themes emerged from the constant comparison analysis: building relationship, managing time and assignments, flexible, organizational skills, strong work ethics, boldness, confidence, and strong communication skills. The results also show that differences exist among males and females. Female participants focused more on relationship-oriented and men on task-oriented leadership competencies. There are some notable differences between faculty, graduates, and students.

Introduction

Leadership and leadership development continues to be a topic of conversation for many school administrators, graduate school admissions officers, employers, recruiters, and currently, the conversation has migrated to the highest level of educational attainment – the doctoral level. Numerous universities have increased enrollments in doctoral programs with some universities boasting doctoral student programs that approximate 10-15% of their total student population. However, the skills required and traits that should be developed for successful completion of such programs still require more research. Astin and Astin (2000) emphasized that universities are positioned to promote leadership development of students at all levels The task for leadership in managing graduate-level programs has become more daunting than ever with almost sixty percent of Americans having participated or participating in some type of advanced degree program, either full-time or while maintaining full-time employment. Competitive programs and diverse candidate pools make the opportunities for success more challenging, however, the need for a better understanding of leadership within and prior to obtaining a doctoral-level degree becomes more engaging. This study was designed to bridge the research gap by exploring the leadership competencies of doctoral students.

Research Purpose

This instrumental case study focused on the leadership competencies of doctoral students.

The major goals of the study were:

1. To examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of faculty,

2. To examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of graduates,
3. To examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students through the eyes of current doctoral students, and
4. To determine whether differences exist between the participants in terms of roles and gender.

Theoretical Framework

Leadership has been studied by many researchers and scientists (Mozghan, Parivash, Nadergholi, & Jowkar, 2011). Yet, the most amazing and fascinating discovery is that student leadership development has grown toward doctoral students at a very strong, increasing, and alarming rate. Due to the fact that the void in leadership in today's society is so paramount and the goal of today's administrators is to challenge and prepare more and more "true" leaders for work in society, the challenge then becomes in how to assess and prepare those leaders most adequately (Green & McDade, 1991). Interestingly, the leadership assessment mantra is not simply focused on doctoral students, but is also focused on the doctoral leadership (Hyatt & Williams, 2011).

The theoretical lens that guided this research study is grounded in the leadership identity development model developed by Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Olsteen, Owen, & Wagner (2009). In this model, leadership is viewed as a socially constructed process that is based on life experiences. There are six sequential stages through which an individual or in this case, doctoral students develop their leadership identity, awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leadership differentiated, generativity, and integration stages (komives et al., 2009). During the Awareness stage, students should be developing the recognition that leadership exist and some members of their learning environment are leaders. During the exploration/engagement stage, students learn to interact and engage with others in their group. At the leader identified stage, students begin to understand the dynamics of leadership. Students view leadership as a shared group process during the leadership differentiated stage, and contribute to the development of others as well as the their organization during the generativity stage. Finally, during the integration/synthesis stage, students are cognizant about their own leadership development processes. This model is very instrumental to this study since the participants have diverse experiences and came from diverse background.

Methodology

Participants

The participants for the study were purposively selected from a sample of over 120 current doctoral students, graduates, and faculty from one doctoral granting institution located in the southern part of US. The participants comprised of twenty-five students, five doctoral graduates, and five faculty. About seventy (70%) percent of the participants were female and eighty--five (85%) percent were African-American. About eighty (89%) of the student participants were continuing doctoral students while twenty (20%) percent were graduates.

Procedures

The researchers in this study utilized a self-developed Leadership Attitude Survey (LAS) that consisted of demographic data with three open-ended questions that addressed leadership competencies of doctoral students. The instrument was constructed after a thorough review ofliterature on leadership development and student's leadership development. Variables that resulted from the focus group interviews were also included in the instrument. To be eligible to participate in the study, the current students must have completed eighteen doctoral level credit hours. The survey took approximately five minutes to complete. Three focus group interviews were conducted with current students, graduates and faculty and it lasted for an hour and half. After receiving the institutional approval to conduct the study, the participants that agreed to participate in the study were sent the survey and were asked to return the completed survey in an envelope placed in one location to protect their identity. About fifty instruments were sent out and only thirty completed ones were returned resulting in a fifty percent return rate. Five returned surveys were deemed incomplete and were discarded.

Data Analysis

Multiple data were collected from the participants through a variety of sources were analyzed for this study. Data from three focus (faculty, current doctoral students, and doctoral graduates) groups and the responses from the three open-ended questions from the survey instrument were analyzed and coded for themes. The researchers utilized the constant comparison analysis (Glaser, 1965). Inter-coder agreement among the coders as measured by Krippendoof's Alpha, was .85, which according to Altman (1991) represents a strong agreement was utilized.

Results and Conclusions

Although many competency studies have used panels of experts in multi-round formats to assess competencies and abilities for students, faculty, and staff alike, generally using expert panels in geographically-dispersed formats (Linstone & Turoff, 1975; Turoff & Hiltz, 1996; Williams, 2003), which have been found to be much more productive and efficient than other questionnaire methods (Presser & Blair, 1994), this study used a constant comparison analysis to examine the leadership competencies of doctoral students. Eight themes emerged from the constant comparison analysis: building relationship, managing time and assignments, flexible, organizational skills, strong work ethics, strong communication skills, confidence, and boldness. Table 1 is used to highlight the themes with prevalence rate (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). The theme building relationship was the most prevalent theme (45%), followed by managing time and assignment (40%), flexible (38%), organizational skills (34%), strong moral/work ethics (30%), communication skills (22%), confidence (17%) and boldness (10%).

There are some notable differences between faculty, graduates, and students. Faculty members rated building relationship, strong work ethics, and organizational skills as the most important leadership competencies for doctoral students. Graduates rated flexibility, building relationship, and confidence as the most important leadership competencies of doctoral students while the current doctoral students rated organizational skills, confidence, and strong work ethics as the most important leadership competencies of doctoral students.
The results also show notable differences in the participant's responses based on gender.

Females rated building relationship, strong moral and ethical values, and being flexible as the most important leadership competencies of doctoral students while men rated organizational skills, communication skills, and boldness as the most important leadership competencies of doctoral students.

The findings from this study, like other studies, are intended to add to the body of knowledge in the field of post-graduate studies (Hyatt & Williams, 2011). Although there are still issues related to gender equity in higher education (Mansfield, Welton, Lee, & Young, 2010) and a better understanding of competencies related to both doctoral faculty and doctoral-faculty relationships (Hyatt & Williams, 2011; O'Meara, Knudsen, & Jones, 2013).

Discussion, Implications, and Recommendations for Further Studies

Doctoral programs, such as the one designed by many Leadership Studies' departments, including the one for this study prepare students for positions in non-profit organizations, K-20 schools, higher education, and government. Leadership programs, like these, commonly integrate interdisciplinary theories from other fields including education, psychology, philosophy, and organizational studies (Hyatt & Williams, 2011). Rost (1991) suggested that this "allows scholars and practitioners to think radically new thoughts about leadership that are not possible from a unidisciplinary approach. Thus, this research, though with a small sample size demonstrates that there are certain principles and characteristics that define leadership both from a doctoral student perspective and dimension.

True leadership continues to evolve and is dynamic, as has been mentioned by the doctoral students, and the consistent ability to understand these dimensions of leadership will continue to be the process of understanding for faculty, administrators, graduate-school advisory councils, leadership studies and students alike.

As population pools grow, so will the development of research and leadership training and protocol programs that will emphasize the need for structural and operationalized understanding of leadership from a mechanistic and research-based protocol. The findings from this research suggest that male and female populations view leadership in somewhat different views and these predictors can probably be explored further in future research. However, one main aspect of this research remains clear – doctoral students have keen insights into a variety of fields of study, as it relates to leadership, those ideas need to be explored through a triangulated research.

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Table 1: Themes and Frequencies in percentage

Themes	Frequency (%)
Building Relationship	45%
Managing Time/Assignment	40%
Flexible	38%
Organizational Skills	34%
Moral/Work Ethics	30%

Communication Skills	25%
Confidence	17%
Boldness	10%

From Bench to Bedside: A Pilot Study of Leadership Curriculum in Medical School

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Abstract

Changes underway in healthcare reform require physicians of tomorrow to be prepared to face leadership challenges inherent in evidence based, interdisciplinary, complex medical environments. Medicine is becoming more and more protocol driven, from medical school all the way through medical practice - or from "bench to beside" - and involves the coordination of treatments and services across groups, departments, and organizations. Accordingly, this paper presents a pilot leadership curriculum that was recently launched in a U.S. medical school and describes how the general characteristics medical school and situational factors shaped the curriculum content. The curriculum was developed by first conducting individual and focus group interviews with medical students, medical school doctors, teachers, and administrators. Interview data were then used to guide curriculum development and delivery.

Introduction

Physicians of tomorrow must be prepared to face leadership challenges inherent in interdisciplinary medical environments and promote positive changes in healthcare. To underscore this mandate, prominent national medical school accrediting bodies require the inclusion of leadership as a topic in medical school curriculum. In fact, the Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME) includes leadership in its Personnel Policies under the category of Functions and Structure of a Medical School. Specifically, section FA-11 states, "A medical education program must provide opportunities for professional development to each faculty member to enhance his or her skills and leadership abilities in education and research". Leadership development has also emerged as a dominant goal in medical school vision and mission statements. Many of these statements explicitly describe medical school as a place where leaders will become exceptional physicians who then become leaders in promoting changes that advance medicine, health, and wellbeing. The focus on leadership language in medical school accreditation criteria and vision statements of some medical schools implies that the medical school experience will prepare physicians to practice leadership within the practice of medicine. Indeed, medical schools are becoming increasingly aware of the advantages of leadership education as a way to differentiate their graduates from those who may not have had leadership education in their medical training. This differentiation can pay off in the intense competition for choice spots in fellowships and residency programs.

It is a well-known fact that the practice of medicine has changed dramatically over the past several decades. Until the 1970's medial staff and students were required to stand and give up their seat when a doctor entered the room. Over time this tradition was generally abandoned on grounds that it did not promote collaboration or cooperation among staff. It was intimidating,

and elevated doctors to a god-like level where they were not to be challenged or questioned. Doctors have also become more specialized and medical organizations have become more systematized. Medical treatment is priced, evaluated, and reimbursed based on outcomes while doctors are trained to follow evidence-based protocols that will increase the likelihood of positive outcome in treatment (Leonhardt, 2009). Given the emerging industrialized model of medicine, it becomes increasingly difficult to clearly define what leadership really means in the field of medicine. Over 20 years ago Ferrell and Robbins (1993) made the following observation about the trajectory of leadership in physician led contexts, "Trained to be individual experts and independent decision-makers, physicians - whether they are in multidisciplinary hospital teams, a physician-hospital organization, or a medical group practice - now find themselves thrust into group problem solving and collaborative decision-making" (p. 39). However, doctors in the US are still largely trained in competitive medical schools with curriculum that rewards individual performance on "shelf-tests" and other objective measures of medical knowledge. Furthermore, the specialization of medicine has also created disciplinary silos in which doctors learn specific approaches and procedures within the milieu of their specialty, creating barriers to interdisciplinary collaboration.

Study Background

This paper describes a research project conducted in a US medical school to develop a meaningful and relevant leadership curriculum for students at all stages of their medical training. The study began as a conversation between a medical doctor and a professor of leadership about what leadership means in medical contexts. This discussion was informed by guiding principles from the American Medical Association (AMA), which states that Accountable Care Organizations (ACO) should be developed with - among other things - enhanced cooperation and communication, physician leadership, patient engagement, and patient satisfaction surveys to measure patient centeredness (Klein, 2010).

Literature Review

According to Souba (2011), "As central players in the social contract, physicians are granted standing, privilege, and generous remuneration with the understanding that they will adhere to the principles of service and altruism. Sustainable success begins with transforming people first by changing their world views and mental maps, a process that requires leaders to spend much more time leading themselves (p. 1). He went on to eloquently point out that, "As physicians, our most genuine commitments – those that are conveyed by fundamental tenets of medical ethics and professionalism – are often thwarted by our hidden assumptions and ways of doing things get in the way. Since these attachments re both diversions and obstacles we most move them out of the way so we can make room for our stand" (p. 5). Finally, Souba (2010) asserted, "The transformation of health care begins with a shift in our understanding of what it means to be a leader. Functionally, leadership education enhances our workability, performance, and joy in life" (p. 9).

Physicians undergo years of training in order to be able to obtain their medical license and treat patients. They spend the largest proportionate amount of time focusing on their scientific craft during medical school, but their professional attitude is also of importance. In fact, the Carnegie

Report (in Irby, et. al, 2010) found that greater emphasis needs to be given to ethics, teamwork, and leadership. Perhaps to address this concern Campbell, et al. (2007) conducted a survey of physicians with the primary focus of attitudes and behaviors about professionalism. In their study, professionalism was defined in terms of distribution of resources, honesty with patients, increasing scientific knowledge, maintaining appropriate relationships with patients, and the like. Of the 1,662 physicians who responded (58 percent response rate), 90 percent or more agreed with positive statements about fair distribution of finite resources, improving access to quality care, managing conflicts of interest and professional self-regulation. When comparing attitudes to behavior, however, the physicians were inconsistent. This study found that 96 percent of respondents indicated it was important to report incompetent colleagues, but only 55 percent of those who had encountered an incompetent colleague had reported them to authorities. This suggests, perhaps, that physicians understand and agree with positive and productive attitudes and behaviors in their profession, but following through with difficult, conflict-arousing tasks is difficult. This study continued to demonstrate that stated and actual preferences among physicians were not consistent.

One might wonder why physicians have difficulty following through with their optimal attitudes and behaviors. What factors in the healthcare environment create a conflict between how physicians think and what they actually do? Dealing with peers, patients and their families, supervisors and others stakeholders in the medical profession requires strong interpersonal as well as scientific skills. Some have examined personality characteristics in physicians and medical students to better understand factors that contribute to effective functioning in our stressful healthcare environment. Specifically, Austin, Evans, Magnus and O'Hanlon (2007) conducted a student on empathy, emotional intelligence (EI) and performance in medical students. This study utilized a questionnaire assessing EI and empathy throughout the duration of a medical school program. The goal of the study was to determine if EI and empathy changed throughout the pre-clinical and into clinical years of their medical school program and if either empathy or EI impacted student performance over time.

Findings from T-Test and ANOVA analysis indicate that there was a significant gender x cohort effect, with males increasing in empathy between years 1 and 2 while female empathy declined ($t(268) = 3.23$, $p=.01$, $t(263) = 2.43$, $p=.01$ and $t(268) = 3.52$, $p = .001$ and $F(1,259) = 644$, $p = .012$, respectively). Additionally, peer ratings of problem-based learning were positively correlated with EI ($r = .20$, $n = 100$, $p = .05$). Results from this study lead to further questions regarding medical school curriculum and its impact on empathy and EI in both males and females over time. One might ask whether the intent of medical school curriculum is to normalize the level of empathy among both males and females. Additionally, with regard to EI, when working as peers in problem-based learning tasks, those students who displayed higher levels of emotional intelligence were rated more positively.

Chibnall, Blaskiewicz, and Detrick (2009) and Chibnall and Blaskiewicz (2008) followed a similar research vein when they examined personality characteristics (Big 5) and their correlation with the National Board of Medical Examiners subject examination and Objective Structured Clinical Examination conducted by a psychiatrist. Students were also evaluated by attending physicians regarding their level of clinical knowledge and interpersonal behavior. Findings indicated no relationship between the National Board or Objective Structured Clinical

Examination and clinical evaluations of knowledge and skill or interpersonal behavior. But, Big Five personality variables explained a moderate amount of variance in clinical evaluations. Interestingly, knowledge and skill was positively associated with conscientiousness and ($r = .20$, $p < .05$). Interpersonal behavior was closely related to extraversion ($r = .17$, $p = .06$) and significantly related to agreeableness ($r = .31$, $p = .0001$). Thus, these findings suggest that medical students seeking positive evaluations on clinical evaluations attempt to demonstrate positive elements of extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Conversely, those conducting clinical evaluations need to attend to the notion that personality characteristics can impact those evaluations. Likewise, Doherty and Nugent (2011) also examined personality factors and medical training. Through a review of the literature, they found that conscientiousness has been found to be a significant predictor of performance in medical school.

Fully examining the impact of emotional intelligence in medicine, Arora, et al. (2010) conducted a meta-analysis examining the relationship between EI and the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) competencies. Utilizing data from 16 empirical articles, the meta-analysis revealed that in six out of seven studies, women measured higher in EI than men. Additionally, those measuring higher in EI were found to have a more positive relationship with their patients, increased empathy, better teamwork and communication skills, greater organizational commitment and leadership abilities. Medical school competencies include such factors as relationships with patients, teamwork, communication skills, commitment and leadership. And, given these findings, it seems clear that higher levels of emotional intelligence will lead to higher levels of effectiveness and productivity in medical settings. Studies utilized in this meta-analysis employed different measures of EI. And, the question remains whether EI can be developed, or trained, or whether it is truly a personality dimension that one is “born” with. In any case, those instructing medical students would be wise to incorporate learning opportunities that can aid in the development of EI in all work settings.

In their study of collaboration among nurses, physicians, and residents, Garber, Madigan, Click, and Fitzpatrick (2009), noted that physicians were traditionally viewed as leaders of the healthcare team and physicians possess a positive attitude toward the idea of physician authority. However, these researchers also found nurse groups and physicians/resident groups shared positive views of collaborative medicine. “Nurses, physicians, and residents perceive themselves as role models for collaboration; however when asked if the nurses and physicians in the organization were role models for collaboration their perceptions were less positive” (p. 338). However, it seems that whenever leadership is discussed among medical school doctors, it is often operationalized as “business management” or “professionalism” training. Of course business management training focuses on functions such as accounting, finance, and other process driven activities. Professionalism training focuses on how to prepare future doctors for interaction with other professionals in social gatherings. Clearly, neither of these types of training have much to do with leadership education.

As discussed above, there exists a need to bring greater clarity to leadership education in medical school settings. Some recent research has examined factors that contribute to medical student success and failure, and a large portion of this research focused upon personality and dispositional factors of medical school students. Specifically, research concerning emotional intelligence, empathy, Big 5 Personality Factors and their relationship with performance has led

to interesting findings. Additional research examined professional norms, changes in medical students over time, how personality impacts evaluations from instructors, how dispositions impact the working environment, and finally, how medical school curriculum can improve so that optimal working environments are created and maintained.

An Alternative to Trait Research

If not properly framed, the notion of leadership in a medical school context could result in medical leadership being perceived as an alienating social myth through what Gemmill and Oakley (1992) refer to as "intellectual and emotionally deskilling" (p. 121). Intellectual deskilling occurs when followers perceive themselves as being intellectually inferior to those in charge whereas emotional deskilling occurs when there is a need for a leader to emerge or a "magical rescue" to occur to alleviate uncertainty and despair. Clearly, in medical situations where doctors possess special knowledge, training, and expertise to solve medical problems, many patients and staff members perceive the doctor to be the de facto leader in all doctor-patient or doctor-staff interactions. The intellectual and emotional deskilling process can be further exacerbated by poor interpersonal skills and egoistic tendencies of some doctors.

To avoid the potential of leadership becoming an alienating social myth in medical organizations, we considered the DAC as a guiding framework for teaching leadership effectiveness in medical schools. The DAC Model was developed by Drath, et al. (2008) to attenuate deficiencies in current leadership literature. The main premise of the DAC model is made up of three constructs concerning leaders, followers, groups, and organizational outcomes:

1. Direction. A shared understanding of where the collective is headed with respect to its vision, goals, and objective;
2. Alignment. Effective communication, coordination, in collaboration within the collective;
3. Commitment. Individuals pursuing collective goals over and above individual goals;

(Altman, Rego, Harrison, 2010, p. 226).

The DAC Model differs significantly from traditional triad leadership models of "leaders, followers, and common goals" (Drath, 2008, p. 365). This model appealed to us because it provided a alternative to the traditional leader-centric dynamic in medicine where doctors wield great power and influence where doctors tend to be egoistical have a god complex. In Drath's (2008) model the process of creating DAC is the factor that creates leadership effectiveness. The mere act of identifying group outcomes, aligning people around those outcomes, and requiring team members to place their personal needs secondary, creates an opportunity for effective goal attainment without the influence of a central leader figure. The focus of the DAC model is the interest and desired outcomes of the collective.

Drath et. al (2008) make the case that the triad model is no longer effective in many organizational settings because it places emphasis on the leader/follower dyad. The dyad is straightforward on paper, but leading and following in the dyad model is unrealistic in many settings because leaders and followers move among different roles each day. Additionally, the tripod model does not account for leadership across organizational and global boundaries.

Leaders cannot impose the triad on those across boundaries effectively as cultures differ dramatically.

Methodology

As stated earlier, this study was a result of a conversation between a physician and a leadership professor on the topic of leadership in medicine. The next step was to observe clinical rounds to identify key elements of the doctor-med student relationship present in a typical "rounds" environment. As the study progressed and our ideas began to gel we decided to take a qualitative approach to the study how best to create a leadership curriculum for a medical school. Additional permission was granted to begin individual and focus group interviews with medical students from each year of medical school (M1, M2, M3, M4), medical school doctors, and administrators. In qualitative research tradition, we then asked ourselves several grand tour questions, including:

What does it mean to be a leader in healthcare?

How can we encourage future doctors to focus on leadership as part of their medical practice?

How would go about embedding leadership curriculum in medical school curriculum?

To capture the experience of leadership in medical school, an ethnographic approach was used to capture as much of the medical school experience from multiple angles. To this end, one hour focus group sessions with M1, M2, M3, and M4 medical students were conducted by two leadership researchers in the summer of 2013. A typical question asked was "What positive or negative leadership behaviors have you observed amongst physicians during your time in medical school?" Additionally, individual interviews were conducted with residents, program directors, and medical administrators. Participants from this purposeful sample were asked to reflect upon how leadership was, or was not, being currently taught in their medical school. Field notes were examined to capture participants' views and later were hand-coded, revealing several key findings. See Appendix B for the research timetable and data collection methods.

Results: Research Findings

Interviews yielded 13 codes that were developed into three primary themes including Feedback, Vicarious Learning, and Mentoring. Codes that informed the themes included communication, role modeling, patient-focus, respect, professionalism, teams, ethics, adaptability, helpfulness, collaboration, culture, intimidation and confidence. The study also revealed the optimal time to initiate leadership education was during the third year of medical school. Leadership concepts, theories, and frameworks were not being explicitly identified in medical school curriculum, yet a question remained whether leadership was being taught implicitly through though the 'lived experience" of leadership dynamics in academic medicine (Souba, 2011).

Characteristics of Medical School

Some salient characteristics of medical school in general also emerged through conversations and interviews. One dominant characteristic is what we termed a *hyper-task focus environment in the early years of medical school brought on by pressure to perform on exams*. Anecdotes were shared about medical schools where whole chapters were missing from medical reference books, ripped out by the last person to gain advantage over fellow students on standardized "shelf exams" and board exams. Even at less competitive schools, the pressure is on to perform well on medical school exams in order to get the best pick of fellowships, residency programs, etc.

Leader and management are often confused in physician leader training for doctors in charge of departments, clinics, residents, etc. A focus on task and people must be established to create a framework for leadership in medical contexts. The leadership grid could be used as a way to create a mental model or diagnostic tool for effectively dealing with leadership issues.

It was no surprise to find that *medical school culture is very strong, bordering on entrenched*. The long history and traditions in medical schools from the days when everyone had to stand give up their seat when a doctor entered the room to the current view of doctors as elite specialists who represent the smartest and brightest – the elite.

Barriers to interdepartmental collaboration include personal conflict and territorial ownership of existing curriculum, organizational structural barriers, process barriers, and strategic barriers. All of this are found in large scale organization but may be a bit more pronounced in medical organizations.

Results: Medical School Leadership Curriculum Pilot

A pilot curriculum was put in place to deliver weekly one hour leadership class session for 3rd year medical students. The study culminated with a meeting with medical school professors and administrators about next steps in curriculum development and delivery. This section includes an overview of the pilot medical school leadership curriculum we created to meet the needs of one medical school. It begins with curriculum objectives and presents assignment types, topics and some examples of course material. Additionally, Table 1 depicts the curriculum delivery process. We intend to use terminology and models that medical students can relate to and use to quickly recognize and diagnosis leadership situations and take necessary steps to get the most out of others and improve patient outcomes and unit performance.

Curriculum Objectives

1. Develop mental models and schemas to recognize and diagnosis situational factors that affect leadership in medical contexts.

2. Apply leadership principles in medical teams and recognize their effect on patient outcomes.

3. Practice principles of medical leadership for the greater good of society.

Curriculum Topics
The following topics have been integrated into the pilot leadership curriculum:

Reflective Practices
Improve self-awareness through regular reflection and perspective taking. Strategies for making time to reflect on personal strategies to improve performance in difficult or stressful situations.

Implicit Leadership/Leadership Grid
We must expose hidden assumptions and other frames of reference that limit and shape our possibilities for leading effectively (Souba, 2011). Implicit leadership theory helps reveal the basic assumptions about leadership roles in organizations as influenced by organizational culture and social norms (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). The Leadership Grid (aka Managerial Grid) (Blake & Mouton, 1964) provides a nearly perfect model for medical students to use as a diagnostic tool while in the lived experience of leadership. This is particularly useful because it helps even out the focus between task and people, in a traditionally task-focused environment.

Power
"Power reveals the person." This simple, verifiable statement is perhaps the most compelling reason for leaders and organizations to be concerned with leadership development, especially in the area of interpersonal skills. In fact, research on power and leadership revealed the following key findings:
Power increases the correspondence between individual traits and behavior.
Power reveals a person's true nature.
Power makes you more like yourself.
Power makes you more like your culture.
Clearly, these findings further underscore the importance of harnessing power in the service of leadership. In sum, the behaviors of the powerful are more in line with their true selves, trait propensities, and idiosyncratic tendencies. With power the aggressive become more fierce, the generous more magnanimous, and the flirtatious even more amorous (Galinksky, Rus, & Lammers, 2011, p. 29)

Teams
Examination of such team phenomenon as groupthink to avoid faulty decision making in teams. Exploeration and application of frameworks for improved team performance.

Humility
Lack of humility could lead to potentially faulty and unethical decision making. As Johnson (2015) stated, "Humility and reverence both remind leaders that they are not gods. Both emphasize that there is a power greater than the self and they all share a common humanity. Both foster sound decisions because they remind leaders that they have limited knowledge and power. And both encourage respect for followers and the development of healthy relationships" (p. 87).

Visionary Leadership
Discussion of collective vision of followers and strategic listening.

Derailers
Organizational Politics, Compassion Fatigue, Person-Organization Fit.

Sample Assignments

M1 Brief reading list, online discussion questions, observation, case studies, lectures

M2 Brief reading list, reflective journals, observation, online discussion questions, brief interviews with doctor and staff, case studies, lectures

M3 Brief reading list, look-fors, online discussion questions and, case studies, lectures

M4 Brief reading list, look-fors, online discussion questions and, case studies, lectures.

Conclusion

Healthcare is increasingly complex environment and needs strong leaders to manage this complexity through collaborative approaches to decision making and the entire leadership process. Results from this study indicate that leadership is taught in medical school, but it is often not done in an explicit manner. Rather, it is positively or negatively demonstrated through observations, interactions, feedback and vicarious learning experienced by medical students. Purposefully teaching key leadership theory and concepts in the form of 'lived experiences' may help medical school students adopt strong leadership practices that create optimal patient outcomes.

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Appendix A
Interview Protocol

- What positive or negative leadership behaviors have you observed amongst physicians during your time in medical school?

- What is the most dominant communication style of doctors with patients? With peers? With staff?

- What leadership styles and behaviors would be most effective with patients? Peers? Staff?

- What would you like to learn about leadership? Why?

- What does it mean today to "be" a leader who embodies the principles of medical ethics and professionalism? (Souba, 2011)

Appendix B
Research Timeline [Data Collection]

2011-2012
Initial discussion of leadership and academic medicine. [Research Notes/Meeting Notes]

Observation of rounds. [Field notes]

2012-2013
Conceptualize curriculum framework. [Lit Review]

Create interview protocol.

Begin individual and focus group interviews of M1, M2, & M3 students.
[Interview Notes/Field Notes]

Identify themes.

Incorporate themes into model curriculum.

2014
Pilot curriculum launched. [Evaluations, Observations, Field Notes]

Table 1
Curriculum Delivery

	M1 Leadership Module	M2 Leadership Module	M3 Leadership Module
Delivery	Blended	Blended	Blended
Seat Time	4 hours	8 hours	8 hours
Online Modules	4 x 1hrs	4 x 1hrs	4 x 1hrs
Assessment	Introduction	Reinforcement	Mastery
Evaluation	P/NP	P/NP	P/NP

RESEARCH PAPERS

Engineering Leaders: A Meta-Analysis of Leadership Themes in Engineering Literature

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Abstract

A meta-synthesis of existing engineering literature was conducted using a priori leadership themes. The findings indicate the field of engineering consistently utilizes trait concepts and skills-based competencies as primary models. Though relational and contemporary approaches are occasionally mentioned, such concepts are rare.

Introduction

Strategic leadership development is fundamental in superior-performing organizations, particularly those that have mastered the integration and execution of their business and leadership strategies (Dinwoodie, Quinn, & McGuire, 2014). There are many organizations across industries whose ability to perform well has global impact in terms of technology, economics, and social responsibility. Such organizations and industries include, but are not limited to, software companies, financial services, agriculture, telecommunications, as well as, construction and engineering firms. For the purpose of narrowing the focus to examine leadership and leadership development needs, this article will concentrate on the construction and engineering industry. The engineering industry is expected to establish a stronger, more influential leadership presence in society and become highly sought after by top students by 2020 (NAE, 2004). As the engineering industry grows in an ever-diversifying global context, more effective leadership paradigms are warranted. The need for leadership development in engineering is evident in that 90-95% of performance concerns can be attributed to a lack of boundary spanning competencies associated with leadership (Alam, Gale, Brown & Khan, 2010). Hallmarks of effective leadership such as appropriate attributes, behaviors, and/or social negotiations continue to be a challenge the industry and perpetuate gaps between technical and professional skills in engineering with regards to both education and industry (ABET, 2013). It will become necessary for the engineering industry to support boundary spanning leadership development across the workforce as opposed to more traditional management approaches. Therefore, the preparation of future leaders via college courses, leadership development programs, and professional development workshops requires a strategic framework for leveraging the diverse, more holistic concepts of leadership.

Industry Perspectives on Leadership

Conceptually, viewing leadership holistically includes the leader as the person, leadership as behaviors, and the social construction of leaders and leadership (Jepson, 2009; Stentz, Plano Clark, & Matkin, 2012). From a scholarly evolution perspective, leadership research began with a trait and skill approach, progressed to a behavior and style approach, continued with relational approaches, and expanded to include personality, gender, cultural and ethical considerations (Northouse, 2013; Stentz et al., 2012). The trait approach assumes that leaders are born and no amount of training or education can craft a non-leader into a leader. In contrast, the skills

approach suggests that leadership *can* be learned and leaders can be developed over time and per situation. Relational approaches consider the interactions between leaders and followers, as well as, their inherent codependent dynamic (Drath, 2001). Finally, leadership strategies the involve gender and culture require a higher level of social awareness and understanding as to how these factors influence an individual's ability to lead, or willingness to follow. Within these leadership paradigms, one widely cited definition describes leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2013,p. 5). Although Northouse's definition widely acknowledged, its vagueness is a limitation. In other words the definition represents leadership as a process, but does not holistically consider persons, behaviors, or social constructions within the process.

Despite the multitude of definitions of leadership across disciplines, a generally accepted and widely agreed upon definition or theory has yet to be declared (Goethals & Sorenson, 2007). This lack of consensus resonates throughout the construction and engineering industry as well (Ahn, Cox, London, Cekic, & Zhuc, 2014). Nonetheless, as mentioned above, the NAE postulates that this industry will soon be regarded amongst the most influential leaders in society, which necessitates the need for consensus and action. This sentiment is echoed outside the industry considering the vast emphases being places on educational programs in Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM). For instance, the United States Department of Education (n.d) estimates a 62% increase in some Engineering jobs by 2020.

The construction and engineering industry has traditionally focused its concept of leadership on innate traits and learned/developed skills (Ahn et al., 2014; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Turner & Lloyd-Walker, 2008). Viewing leadership through this narrow lens negates other conceptual frameworks within the scholarly study of leadership such as culture, gender, authenticity, team dynamics, shared leadership, and servant leadership to name a few. These frameworks, in part or whole, may offer greater applicability in the development of leaders in construction and engineering. Thus, given the myriad of possible definitions and traditionally viewed attributes of leaders, a tried and true means of defining and developing leaders in the field of construction and engineering has yet to be substantiated in practice and assessment.

More conventionally viewed attributes of leaders include the trait and skill approaches that are leader-centered and revolve around who the leader is and their inherent leadership abilities. The "Great Man" theory of the 19th century perpetuates this traditional view in society by presenting models of powerful historical figures like Martin Luther King Jr., Abraham Lincoln, Julius Caesar, and Mahatma Gandhi" (McCauley-Bush, 2013, p. 95). However, the study of leadership has evolved from focusing solely on who the leader is, to also encompassing what the leader does, and more notably, how the leader relates to followers and within their environment. That being said, the need for formalized leadership development within the construction and engineering field has been widely acknowledged at both the collegiate and professional level (Engineer of 2020, 2004; Froyd & Borrego, 2014; Mohan, Merle, Jackson, Lannin & Nair, 2010). In seeking to improve undergraduate STEM education the argument has been made for a stronger focus on leadership characteristics (Froyd & Borrego, 2014). Additionally, professional engineers have been reported to spend more than half of their time engaged in leadership roles. The demand for such leadership contribution requires engineers to develop boundary spanning competency on-the-job which can take time away from other responsibilities (Mohan, Merle,

Jackson, Lannin & Nair, 2010). Accordingly, the Engineer of 2020 (2004) seeks to educate engineers and leaders and prepare engineering graduates to be holistically educated citizens who can engage the global community ethically. Adhering to the Engineer of 2020 visions requires reaching beyond traditional perspectives on leadership and adapting a more holistic definition of leadership and approach to developing leaders.

Nonetheless, several attempts to define leadership in engineering have been attempted. Current foci include leadership as a process, the path-goal theory, and transformational elements of leadership. In accordance with the school of thought that views leadership as a process, it is an observable phenomenon apparent in the interactions between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2013). Thus, the following definition views leadership in engineering as a process.

> "Engineering Leadership is the ability to lead a group of engineers and technical personnel responsible for creating, designing, developing, implementing, and evaluating products, systems, or services" (Crumpton-Young et al., 2010, p. 10).

Moving from viewing leadership in engineering as a process, other definitions such as the one below focus on the leader setting the goal and subsequently providing coaching and guidance to followers towards accomplishment of the goal. Within the leadership literature, this approach represents the Path-Goal Theory (House & Mitchell, 1974).

> "In *Successful Professional Reviews for Civil Engineers* (Steels 2006), the Institute of Civil Engineers (ICE) defined leadership as being capable of "setting the direction of a project or activity and encouraging and guiding people towards that direction" (as cited in Ellis & Petersen, 2011, p. 91).

Aside from the process perspective and path-goal theory, leadership in engineering has also been defined as transformational. Although some leadership scholars may regard the transformational approach as a process, it lends itself well to change management as described below because it relies of the leaders ability to connect and inspire.

> "However, it can be stated that the literature generally defines "leaders" as persons who recognize the need for and implement change, establish direction, align people, motivate and inspire, give away as opposed to hoard power, communicate a vision of where the organization is headed, build teams and share decision making, mentor and coach subordinates, and demonstrate a high degree of integrity in their professional interactions (Zenger and Folkman 2002; Bass 1990; Tichy and Devanna 1990; Kouzes and Posner 2002)" (as cited in Skipper & Bell, 2006, p. 68).

The last definition presented reflects a medley of transformational leadership elements, but does not incorporate trait and skill or path-goal. Collectively, the three above-mentioned definitions vary in depth and breadth, which is representative of the disparities in leadership definitions overall.

Postsecondary Perspectives on Leadership

There are a number of industry leaders and postsecondary institutions throughout the United States that focus on educating engineers to be leaders via engineering leadership development programs (examples include engineering programs at Arizona State University, Louisiana Tech University, Oregon State University, Purdue University, Texas A&M University, University of Florida, University of Washington and Virginia Tech) . Depending on the career timing of the intervention, the programs are offered as workshops, seminars, minors, or via a curricular interdisciplinary approach (Crumpton-Young et al., 2010). These programs push the boundaries of what encompass the span of what leadership was initially thought to be in engineering by including business and cultural components, as well as, aspiring to develop engineers with the aforementioned dispositions. Boundary spanning leadership development aims to broaden the technically focused mindset of engineers, allowing them to contribute their problem-solving and critical-thinking skills more expansively as leaders in school, work, and across the greater societal landscape (Bonasso, 2001; Chan, 2008; Tuuli, Rowlinson, Fellows, & Liu, 2012). Discourse of leadership in engineering posits it as socially constructed (Kratz, Leenders & Van Engelen, 2008) and relative, thus focusing not only on the leader, but also the followers, the context, and the development of 21st century skills (Kumar & Hsiao, 2007); Toor & Ofori, 2008;) This holistic approach serves to promote the parallel development of leadership and technical skills in construction and engineering students, which will in turn make the transition into the workplace more seamless.

Students' seamless transition from college to career with adequate technical and leadership skills represents a gap in in the field of construction and engineering, that continues throughout their careers in the absence of appropriate interventions. It is the lack of consensus on a definition for leadership, and more specifically engineering leadership that presents a challenge in the identification of gaps in leadership capacity *[know-how]* and efficacy *[ability to lead]*(Dugan et al., 2013). Similarly, leadership development and assessment is imperative in that it requires empirical supports to substantiate findings, future research, and program implementations. Engineering leadership programs such as those sponsored by Iowa State, Penn State, and Gordon-MIT echo the need for such data to establish a benchmark of competencies, as well as, inform curriculum (Ahn et al., 2014). This meta-synthesis sought to analyze the existing studies of leadership development in construction and engineering. With this in mind, leadership is explored thematically to identify opportunities for bridging the gap in the holistic development of leadership in engineering for students and professionals.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of the current study was to synthesize the existing leadership development research as it relates to the field of construction and engineering. The value of leadership as a complement to technical skills has been widely acknowledged within the industry and academia with many researchers pushing for its inclusion in engineering education curriculum (Ahn et al., 2014; Ellis & Petersen, 2011). Hence, the objectives were to identify current engineering leadership themes, garner an understanding of the momentum surrounding the integration of leadership development into construction and engineering curriculum, and highlight the need for empirical supports for leadership assessment.

Methodology

The sample initially began with 75 peer-reviewed U.S. based manuscripts, 16 non-U.S. based manuscripts, and four theses for a total of 95 viable sources. The articles were deductively coded using themes derived from prominent leadership development theories including trait, contingency, situational, behavioral, and relational (McCauley-Bush, 2013; Northouse, 2013). After coding, the articles were categorized by explicit reference first to undergraduate engineering students, second to engineering in general, and third to leadership development from college to career. Subsequently, the list was narrowed down to 59 thematically appropriate studies, 33 of which mentioned engineering at the undergraduate and/or professional level explicitly. Hence, the judgment was made that the remaining 33 were the most relevant and applicable studies given the purpose of this study. (See table 1).

Table 1: Journals and Citation

Journal	Number of Articles	Google Citations[a]	Web of Science Citations[a]
JEE	1	0	0
IJEE	1	0	0
IJMPB	2	31, 14	0
Procedia - SBS	1	1	0
JSTEM	4	4, 13, 8, 4	0
JPIEEP	3	19, 10, 17	6, 3, 1
PPSDC	1	1	0
CIQ	1	3	0
JCEM	1	73	3
PMJ	1	68	0
LME	3	2, 4, 59	0
JLS	3	0	0
IEEE	2	28, 27	0, 5
JETM	1	26	9
BJM	1	11	0
IJPM	2	89, 240	0
JEBE	1	1	0
JLE	1	1	0
JME	1	28	3
Astropolitics	1	1	0
CME	1	23	0
JEE	1	0	0
IJEE	1	0	0

[a] Citation counts are in order by the way the article appears in the reference section.

All of those articles were published between 2001-2014 and categorized according to content that aligned with scholarly leadership study periods. The categories were the trait period, 1900s-40s; behavior period, 1940s-1960s; contingent period, 1950s-1970s; and new period 1980s – now (Northouse, 2013; Bass & Bass, 2008). Sources were located using keyword searches in the university library and journal databases, Google Scholar, as well as, the reference section of relevant articles. Google scholar was used because of its comprehensive index of scholarly

literature across publishing formats and disciplines. The articles were retrieved from the journals listed in Table 1.

Synthesis

Leadership Themes

Across the articles synthesized four major themes were identified. These include: trait and skill approach, emotional intelligence, transformational and authentic leadership, and 21st century skills. The findings in accordance with each theme will be discussed more in depth in the sections that follow.

Trait and Skill Approach. As previously stated and supported by the literature, leadership in construction and engineering has primarily been perceived within the context of traits (inherent) and skills (learned/developed). This aligns with earlier theories of leadership that focused primarily on the leader. The trait approach follows the mindset that there are certain attributes and characteristics that predispose individuals for effective leadership. An exhaustive list of such traits does not exist; however, some leadership scholars have attempted to capture a synopsis of the characteristics of effective leaders. Some reoccurring traits include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Northouse, 2013), many of which fall within Stodgill's (1948) personal leadership factors of capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation. Additionally, drive, leadership motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowing the business are traits that Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) have identified as significant. Nevertheless, Zaccaro (2007) posits that complex interactions between multiple traits are more predictive of leadership than disparate collections of characteristics.

In the field of engineering, the trait approach is rather exclusionary because it assumes that an individual either has what it takes to be a leader or they do not, but a differentiating factor of the skills approach is the focus on competencies that can be taught and learned. The skills approach focuses on knowledge, skills, and abilities that can be acquired, learned, and developed over time and contextually. So where as the trait approach would warrant leadership from someone who was inherently motivated, intelligent, confident, and perhaps born into a certain socio-economic status group, the skills approach would focus on teachable characteristics such as effective communication, teamwork, and problem-solving. In other words, these approaches forge a dichotomy between who a leader is and what a leader can do. Crumpton-Young et al., (2010) attribute effective leadership in engineering to communication skills, interpersonal skills, personal drive, teamwork skills, knowledge, and decision-making abilities. Complementary to that, Bonasso (2001) makes the case for engineers needing to step out of "the box" that they themselves created and apply their problem solving skills towards becoming effective leaders in society. The perceptions of what is required for engineers to be effective leaders maintain the trait and skills focus; however, the application introduces a less leader-focused mindset.

Farr and Brazil (2012) convey the importance in engineering leadership for leaders to maintain technological relevance in addition to developing traditional leadership traits, a dynamic that they claim makes engineering leadership more complex than other disciplines. Additionally stating that, "Engineers at all levels are often naive about the optimum mixture of technical and

non-technical skills needed to be a success" (p. 8). Further, Farr and Brazil (2012) present a framework for accessing leadership deficiencies and maintain that establishing effective leadership is as much a result of developing competencies as it is being developed within the context of respective life stages. Overall, there are both positive and negative aspects to perceiving leadership through the narrowed lens of traits and skills. On the positive side, these approaches promote self-reflection and awareness; conversely, leadership studies offer a more expansive assortment of lenses through which to explore the gaps that impede the development of construction and engineering students and professionals.

Although the trait/skill approach to leadership remains dominant in the construction and engineering field, the literature reflects an emergence in support for relational leadership theories. This is in line with the evolution of theories in leadership studies, which encourages a shift from being solely leader-focused. Hence, the focus becomes "what a leader does" as opposed to "who a leader is", and within the engineering leadership literature has been reflected in the exploration of emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, authentic leadership, social structures, and 21st century skills.
Leadership within the construction and engineering field often occurs within the context of project management. "Leaders in projects are increasing involved in boundary spanning activities which often require them to lead teams across organizational, national and ethnic boundaries (cross-functional teams)" (Tuuli et al., 2012, p. 167). Therefore, the discussion that follows regarding conceptual frameworks around "what a leader does" will be contextualized with the PM leadership role in mind.

Emotional Intelligence. Consideration of emotional intelligence (EI) in the discussion of leadership within construction and engineering as a means of improving project performance is a fairly recent occurrence (Cacamis & El Asmar, 2014; Muller & Turner, 2007). Colman (2009) defines emotional intelligence as having the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior. Hence, EI represents a change from the leader-centered trait/skill approach to refocusing attention on negotiating quality interpersonal relationships. Four out of the thirty-three articles from the literature focused on EI as a means of understanding the impact of quality interpersonal relationships on successful leadership development and team performance. The first study conducted by Clarke (2010) examined project management behavior and attributed successful project leadership to competence in communication, teamwork, attentiveness, and managing conflict. More specifically, the study explored the correlation of EI with empathy, cognitive ability, personality, transformational leadership, and the aforementioned competencies. Clarke's study found positive correlations between EI and the competencies, as well as, empathy and attentiveness. Clarke also found positive correlations between EI and the idealized influence and individualized consideration dimensions of transformational leadership. It should be noted that cognitive ability and personality characteristics were controlled for in this study. Subsequently, the results of the study imply that EI abilities can be developed within the construction and engineering field, which would technically support the traditional skills approach.

A different perspective was provided by Lindebaum and Cassell (2012), as they explored the sense-making done by project managers in construction regarding the viability of EI. Lindebaum

and Cassell did not ascribe any specific competencies during the study, but instead operated within the narratives of construction as a male-dominated field and receptiveness/resistance to EI. Their findings suggest that individuals within this field construct their identities based upon the traditional expectations of the industry. Emotions are tied to individual identity, yet many expressed that emotions and discussion of such were inappropriate in the workplace, while other were indifferent. Nevertheless, based on the identities constructed within the xxxxx industry, EI may be perceived as threatening to PMs' understanding of personal identities, the construction industry, and what it means to perform effectively (Lindebaum & Cassell, 2012). Consequently, the results of the study imply that there may be reluctance to embracing EI, accompanied by a desire to remain within the parameter of skills and traits that are not heavily focused on interpersonal relationships. With this in mind, developing EI as a leadership competency could prove challenging in the construction and engineering field, which contradicts the previously discussed study. It should be noted that this study was conducted with a group of white males of British descent.

Transformational and Authentic Leadership. Transformational and authentic leadership are additional newcomers to the discourse on leadership in construction and engineering. This is evident in only two of the 33 articles addressed them in a manner other than supplemental. Transformational leadership embodies a process of change and transformation during which people often capitalize on charismatic and visionary elements; authentic leadership deals in the genuineness and trustworthiness of leadership (Northouse, 2013; Toor & Ofori, 2009; & Chan & Chan, 2005). Both approaches to leadership are a part of the relational period of scholarly leadership studies that considers the leader, followers and overall social environment. Toor and Ofori's (2009) study of authentic leadership supports the significance of it as a leadership developmental within this industry. More specifically, Toor and Ofori conclude that,

> "Authenticity of leaders in the construction industry enhances their personal autonomy, desire for positive relationships with others, sense of purpose in leadership, mastery over their environments and motivation to grow as leaders." (Toor & Ofori, 2009, p. 310).

Chan & Chan (2005) aimed to empirically evaluate leadership styles in the field of construction. Examining Bass's transformational leadership theory specifically, Chan and Chan utilized the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) as a measurement instrument for the study. Based on the results of their study, inspirational motivation described as the ability to "motivate and inspire followers and colleagues by building confidence, filling and arousing enthusiasm and spirit in the group" (Chan & Chan, 2005, p. 415) is the most prevalent form of transformational leadership in the construction industry. Hence, investing in the development of transformational leadership within the construction and engineering industry can be a worthwhile undertaking. In general, both transformational and authentic leadership can be contextualized as styles. Accordingly, as Tuuli et al. (2012) suggest with their idea of "leadership adjustment" (p. 165), adapting to changing demands while balancing the technical and interpersonal aspects of leading are imperative for successful leadership development.

21st Century Skills. The concept of 21st century skills represents a multidisciplinary nexus of technical, interpersonal, and leadership skills. Technical skills are sometimes referred to as 'hard' skills; conversely, interpersonal and leadership skills may be referred to as 'soft' skills.

According to Toor and Ofori (2008), the development of well-rounded 21st century professionals in construction and engineering is jointly the responsibility of industry, academia, and professional organizations with the government as a facilitator of the process. The collaboration of effort among these stakeholders can appropriately address leadership development in construction and engineering students and professionals alike (Toor & Ofori, 2008).

Similarly, Taverney and Rendleman (2011), suggested that if the United States wants the economic sustainability and quality of life that the engineering discipline enables, there must be a steadfast investment in STEM education. These perspectives complement the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology, Inc. (ABET) EC2000 focus on students in STEM education and the development of their professional skills. Additionally, according to the National Academy of Engineering (2004), the attributes of engineers in 2020 include a wealth of leadership-oriented skills including, but not limited to, analytical and business skills, communication, ethics, and a commitment to lifelong learning. Hence, the ideal engineering graduate and professional needs not only the technical and task-oriented savvy as traditionally taught in engineering, but also the business and management savvy of an MBA, along with the empathy and interpersonal abilities of someone with a background in human development and psychology. Interestingly, this implies the need for translating more holistic concepts into skills-oriented reasoning, which reflects the comfort level of this industry with the first theme discussed.

Leadership Development

"There is a broad sentiment in the industry that today's new graduates are not adequately trained to deal with the soft issues …. academic programs do not prepare professionals with an appropriate blend of hard and soft skills" (Toor & Ofori, 2008, Ellis & Petersen, 2011). As mentioned previously, hard skills typically refer to the technical know-how associated with a given industry and soft skills relates to the more interpersonal and leadership skills that span across industry boundaries. This viewpoint communicates a clear need for incorporating 'formal' leadership development content into curriculum across disciplines, in college and career. Ellis & Petersen (2011) discussed a graduate program (M.Sc.) in civil engineering and construction that utilize project based learning to embed leadership development into the curriculum. This instructional approach provides real world scenarios that allow students to engage with technical, business, social, cultural, and ethical issues. Motivation, critical thinking, and life-long learning are other traits that the M.Sc. programs aspire to develop, which aligns with the ASCE Vision 2025 promotion of engineering leadership, sustainability, innovation, risk management, and public policy influence (Shrivastava, 2013). Methods of student assessment presented by Ellis and Petersen (2011) include portfolios, 360-degree feedback evaluations, PMBOK-inspired zero tolerance weekly evaluation, community-based capstone design project.

Due to the already dense nature of construction and engineering curriculum, there has been a lack of inclusion when it comes to embedding leadership development (Ellis & Petersen, 2011; Farr & Brazil, 2012). Another impediment to adding leadership to the curriculum is the inability to agree upon a definition of leadership, and consequently a lack of clarity about appropriate target competencies for students (Riley, Horman, & Messner, 2008). Nevertheless, there are quite a few post-secondary programs that have successfully incorporated leadership into the

development of their construction and engineering students. Two programs that take a competency-based approach include:

- *Penn State University's* Building Construction Competencies (BCC) program employs situational learning during the students' last two years of the program (Riley et al, 2008).
- *Iowa State University's* co-curricular four-year engineering leadership program employs classroom-learning opportunities assessed via competency based student leadership portfolios aligned to an Engineer of 2020 (Athreya & Kalkhoff, 2010).

In addition to the programs above, there are other universities that approach their leadership development content through coursework, seminars, self- assessment, and experiential leadership experiences. These universities include: IUPUI, Ohio State, University of Central Florida, University of Maryland, and University of Michigan (Cox, Cekic, & Adams, 2010). Any of these programs can serve as a blueprint for incorporating leadership into construction and engineering curriculum.

A study involving engineering faculty and a midwestern university was conducted to garner the perception that they hold about the level of effort required of academia in developing leadership skills in undergraduate engineering students. Faculty acknowledged the need for leadership development and suggested leveraging interdisciplinary relationship between colleges, facilitating experiential learning with supplemental leadership activities, and encouraged incentivizing faculty to provide formal Leadership instruction (Cox et al., 2010). A later study conducted by Cox, Cekic, Ahn & Zhu (2012) showed that faculty and industry experts diverge slightly on perceptions of leadership constructs for undergraduate engineering students, yet many of the constructs identified are on par with other industries. Technical competence and being data-driven were highlighted as the two most important leadership constructs for engineers. To that end, the practical implication of the study suggests that, "Leadership… can be incorporated into the existing engineering curriculum without adding new courses to an already bloated plan of study" (Cox et al., 2012).

In the discussion of integrating leadership development into introductory engineering courses, Sankar, Kawulich, Clayton, and Raju, (2010) explores the effectiveness of instructional methods in improving cognitive skills, team working skills, attitude, and the transfer to future work environments. The study measured the multidisciplinary technical and interpersonal skills that appear in throughout the literature such as communication, business, and design. Project based learning and multimedia case studies that emulate real world scenarios were shown to be most effective in developing technical and leadership skills in the students.

Extra-curricular activities are another means by which construction and engineering students can develop leadership skills. Extra-curricular is differentiated from co-curricular in that extra-curricular experiences work separate from curriculum as opposed to alongside coursework. Involvement in student associations has proven to be an effective way to develop and practice leadership skills. Amirianzadeh, Jaafari, Ghourchian, & Jowkar, (2011) show that this type of engagement affords students the opportunity to improve their communication skills with professors and peers, strengthen their learning and knowledge, as well as, develop stronger ties within their social environment. The Engineering Leaders of Tomorrow Program (LOT) is extra-

curricular program solely focuses on leadership develop under the philosophy that "leadership can be learned and can be taught" (Simpson, Evans, & Reeve, 2012, p. 224). This program aligns with the literature in engineering leadership as it aspires to develop personal, team, and societal leadership in students in areas such as emotional intelligence, conflict management, and public policy, respectively.

The literature exposes the strengths and limitations of leadership development programs and initiatives for construction and engineering students. One strength of current leadership develop programs is the seemingly foundational belief that leadership is a skill, and therefore can be taught and learned. A second strength lies in the overall recognition and acceptance of the need for construction and engineering students to demonstrate technical competence, business savvy, emotional intelligence and leadership (Goldkey, 2014; Gerolamo & Gambi, 2013). Finally, the programs take a pedagogical approach to providing leadership instruction by means of project-based and experiential learning. On the other hand, limitations of current leadership develop programs include a lack of standardization across programs, a dearth in assessment uniformity and consistency, and curricular gaps that may be the result of a disparity between industry and academia's perspectives of compulsory leadership competencies.

Leadership Assessment, Measurement, and Instrumentation

Simply stated, leadership development and assessment requires empirical supports to substantiate findings, future research, and program implementations. Developing measurement instruments that can deliver such supports will likely require input from students, industry experts, and academic partners. "The use of multi-rater assessment of individual competence is widely popular in evaluator circles (Nowack & Mashihi, 2012; Toegel & Conger, 2003) and is increasingly used for leadership evaluation (Asumeng, 2013; Drew, 2009)" (as cited in Rosch, Collier, & Zehr, 2014). The 360-degree feedback evaluation is one version of a multi-rater assessment that is commonly used in business and other disciplines. Accordingly, it appears in the engineering leadership literature as a viable assessment tool, along with electronic portfolios and leadership development plans. There are a number of tools for measuring emotional intelligence including: The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) (Bar-On, 1997), The Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al., 2002), The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) (Goleman, 1998a) and The Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence (SEI) (Schutte et al., 1998) (As cited in Mo & Dainty, 2007). In addition to these instruments for measuring EI, there are a number of inventories and questionnaires for measuring leadership competencies, one being the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) as mentioned in the literature. Nevertheless, a limitation of a number of these is the self-reported nature and fragile theoretical foundation.

Ahn et al. (2014) highlighted the need for a research-based assessment that measures the development of leadership skills in construction and engineering students. Other researchers have identified the same need, thus a valid instrument must be developed to not only aid analyses, but promote generalizability and/or transferability as well. However, as long as an agreed upon generally accepted and widely used definition or theory of leadership in the construction and engineering field remains elusive, the ability to come to consensus and strategize on assessing for broad impact will continue to be challenging.

Conclusion and Future Research

This analysis sought to identify current engineering leadership themes, garner an understanding of the momentum surrounding the integration of leadership development into construction and engineering curriculum, and highlight the need for empirical supports for leadership assessment. From the literature, it was determined that a concrete and universally agreed upon definition of leadership has alluded the construction and engineering field just as it has most other disciplines (Ahn et al., 2014). Consequently, a uniformly agreed upon method for leadership development and empirically supported assessments remain amiss in this field. Likewise, the discourse on leadership in this field consistently lends itself to leadership development within the context of skills-based competencies that can be learned/developed concurrently with technical skills (Ahn et al., 2014; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Farr & Brazil, 2012).

Older approaches associates with trait and skill concepts of leadership reinforce a viewpoint situated in the early to mid-1900's in which men dominated the workforce and the civil rights movement had yet to occur (Morrison, 1992). Construction and engineering remains a white male-dominated field, which likely reinforces the comfort level with the traditional skill and trait approach (indeed, masculinity was often recognized as a requisite trait for leadership in the trait period of leadership (Stogdill, 1957). Nevertheless, in exploring the traditional trait and skill approach, emotional intelligence, transformational and authentic leadership, and 21st century skills it is clear that the discourse is shifting. Interestingly, the literature shows an increased emphasis on relational approaches to leadership. Relational approaches to leadership theories have gained momentum in this field, but as additions to, not in place of trait and skill based-competencies (Toor & Ofori, 2009; Clarke, 2010; Mo & Dainty, 2007). This emergence of the newer approaches to leadership may be representative of the growing diversification in the field as it considers not only the technical and twenty-first century skills of the leader, but also follower relatedness, and the societal landscape in which leadership occurs (Simpson, Evans, & Reeve, 2012; Toor & Ofori, 2008; Chan, 2008).

Inherent traits and teachable skills will likely remain foundational in the development of leaders in construction and engineering, but they will not represent the sole factors for effective leadership. The additional approaches discussed here are becoming increasingly important, especially as the construction and engineering field expands globally. Globalization increases the formation of multicultural project teams, and this team must engage in effective interaction that promotes knowledge transfer and yield successful outcomes (Iorio & Taylor, 2014, Mäkilouko, 2004). These effective interactions are the hallmark of leaders with 21st century skills, emotional intelligence, charismatic appeal, and authentic relationships.

Leadership and the role of leader have been and continues to be highly regarded, yet marginally understood. Nevertheless, the expansion of approaches to leadership in construction and engineering necessitate its intentional and strategic inclusion in post secondary curriculum, and assessment. As discussed earlier, there are a number of universities that have found effective means of embedding leadership development into their already dense technical curriculum, or including it as a supplement. The modular, seminar, experiential, and workshop type platforms employed by these programs may serve as great models that can be adapted to fit the needs of

students across various universities. Additionally, the opportunity may also exist for leveraging partnership between universities and industries to ensure continuity in leadership development from college to career.

This meta-synthetic literature review has indicated how perceptions of leadership have trended in construction and engineering fields. While trait and skill approaches tend to remain dominant (potentially more so than in other fields), engineers are being called to conceptualize and practice leadership in far more adaptive and inclusive ways. The meta-synthesis provides fertile ground for further research including: the correlation between diversification in the field and holistic leadership development approaches; instructional strategies for leadership that span college and career; and a value-based definition of leadership that permits the empirical measurement of effective leadership in construction and engineering. Tracer and climate study approaches represent efficient methods for understanding the perspectives of current students and graduates of engineering programs regarding their leadership development. Additionally, future research should focus on acquiring primary data to ensure that the most relevant information is collected for the purpose of informing curriculum and shaping the future of the industry. Overall, embracing the thematic shift without losing sight of the skills and competencies necessary for effective leadership will ensure that students and professionals in construction and engineering remain relevant and competitive in the US and global economy.

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Utilizing Film to Teach Leadership: An Analysis of Miracle, Rocky IV, and Lincoln

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Abstract

Presenting verbal and visual material can be an effective teaching tool for learners who are being introduced to new leadership material. Film was selected as the multimedia outlet with the intention of engaging an individual's critical thinking skills while demonstrating different leadership components. The purpose of this study was to analyze three leadership films with the intent of assisting a leadership educator in the process of teaching: (a) leading teams, (b) leading change, and (c) transformational leadership. It was concluded that Miracle was ideal for teaching about leading teams because it exposed the nuances of team dynamics. Additionally, Rocky IV was ideal for demonstrating leading change because the movie focused on breaking cultural barriers and highlighted how individuals prepare for significant change. To that end, Lincoln was a valuable film in teaching transformational leadership because the leader in the film was successful at changing the mindsets of people.

Introduction

The Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications (ALEC) 303: Classic Figures in Leadership is taught every fall with the intentions of teaching undergraduates about historical leadership events and/or individuals and comparing those to current leadership events and/or individuals. The course is taught by instructors utilizing film. The use of film as a teaching tool provides students the opportunity to evaluate leadership utilizing both auditory and visual messages (Mayer, 2001). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to analyze three different films utilized in the ALEC 303 course with the intention of producing teaching information for instructors of leadership. The teaching methodology used in this study can be readily available and incorporated into leadership courses to assist in the transformation of how students view leadership.

Theoretical Framework

The dynamics of leadership revolve around developing one's self, followers, and influencing the organization in which one serves (Northouse, 2013). Organizational leadership, in particular, requires the leader to develop working teams which in turn strive to reach organizational goals (Northouse, 2013). The influence of Cohen and (1997) and Yukl (2013, p. 263) provided a detailed outline in which to lead a team. Those guidelines include: (a) emphasize common interests and values and use ceremonies, rituals, or symbols as a means to develop collective identification; (b) encourage and facilitate social interaction; (c) tell people about group activities and achievements; (d) conduct process analysis sessions; (e) hold practice sessions under realistic conditions; and (f) use after-activity reviews to facilitate collective learning by the team.

Once the guidelines for teams are established, changes within the organization may need to occur and the leader, once again, may need to enforce some tactics for change (Kotter, 1996). Those

tactics for leading change are "(a) create a sense urgency about the need for change and communicate a clear vision of the benefits to be gained; (b) identify likely supporters, opponents, and reasons for resistance; (c) build a broad coalition to support the change and fill key positions with competent change agents; (d) use task forces to guide the implementation of changes; (e) empower competent people to help plan and implement change; (f) make dramatic, symbolic changes that affect the work; (g) prepare people for change by explaining how it will affect them and help people deal with the stress and difficulties of major change; (h) provide opportunities for early successes to build confidence and monitor the progress of change and make any necessary adjustments; and (i) keep people informed about the progress of change and demonstrate continued optimism and commitment to the change" (Yukl, 2013, p.84). The dynamics within an organization team may appear trite, but the ultimate goal of the leader in the organization should be to transform individuals into leaders who will positively impact the organization. Thus, this process is referred to as transformational leadership.

The guidelines of transformation leadership for the leader are: (a) articulate a clear and appealing vision and explain how the vision can be attained, (b) act confident and optimistic; (c) express confidence in followers; (d) use dramatic, symbolic actions to emphasize key values; and (e) lead by example (Yukl, 2013, p. 332). Furthermore, transformational leadership empowers followers to evolve and grow into leaders through inspiration, motivation, and stimulation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders also inspire followers to recognize their individual strengths and weaknesses in order to enhance performance and align themselves with their goals and objectives while developing a sense of self-identity (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Bass and Riggio (2006) noted an essential component of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation, a leader's ability to motivate followers to be innovative, try new approaches to old situations, and be creative in reframing problems. Intellectual stimulation encourages the leader to analyze problems from multiple perspectives and derive multiple solutions to the problem (Bass & Riggio, 2006). For example, a leader who challenges students to be engaged in leadership and creatively analyze and/or reflect on the experience is actively working on transforming the follower and stimulating thought. Additionally, transformational leaders are also mentors who positively influence the followers' development and individual capacity to lead (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Those developments are fostered through the active engagement within the environment and the individual constructing of one's own learning (Bass & Riggio, 2006); thus, is referred to as constructivism.

Constructivism posits learning as an active process where one learns through engagement with the environment around them (Benaim, 1995). The learner possesses the ability to derive meaning from events, which occurred within the environment (Dewey, 1916). Dewey (1916) explained that by engaging people in activities within social environments, their emotional and mental dispositions are shaped through observing the behaviors of other individuals engaging in the activities with them. Furthermore, constructivists believe the learner acquires new knowledge by processing relationships through assimilating new data with preexisting data (Kamii, Manning, & Manning, 1991). By processing relationships, learners continually modify their understanding of events and reality by linking prior knowledge to new information, further developing how they think, and what they know (Strommen & Lincoln, 1992). Therefore, a

learner's knowledge emerges from experiences and situations in social settings, which denote importance and meaning to the learner.

Through constructivism, learners develop critical insight and knowledge of new phenomena by means of actively engaging with objects or events within the environment (Wadsworth, 1979). Three actively engaging educational practices that substantiate learning are simulations and role playing, active discussions, and graphics (Schunk, 2012). Through these venues (especially graphics), a learner is more engaged in the learning process and the human body can obtain more information (Schunk, 2012). Additionally, Piaget (1926) postulated a learner should be submerged in an environment where opportunities are presented in order to construct personal experiences through the individual development process. Piaget (1926) also believed learning is an active process in a social setting, where collaboration takes place, and assimilation with prior experiences helps to shape the learner's present reality.

Shaping one's learning and presenting the learning in a form of reality calls for an understanding of neuroscience, a specialized field dealing with the brain and the nervous system, which works to understand and decipher brain commands and functions (Zull, 2002). One important facet of neuroscience concerns the cerebral hemispheres (Zull, 202). The cerebral hemispheres consist of the left side of the brain and the right side of the brain, each having different functions relating to the ways people think and process information (Gazzaniga, 1992; Sperry, 1973). The left hemisphere controls and receives input from the right side of the body and predominately specializes in rule-based reasoning, deductive tasks, logical rationale, and analytical thinking (Miller, 1997). Furthermore, the left hemisphere sequentially processes information such as mathematics, language, and writing (Champoux, 1999) and is considered to be the verbal side of the brain (Miller, 1997). Additionally, research has indicated the left hemisphere processes the majority of academic content received by the brain, whereas context of information is processed in the right hemisphere (Schunk, 2012).

The right hemisphere is responsible for creativity and is typically unorganized, spontaneous, artistic, and directs focus on pictures, art, colors, and music (Jourdain, 1997). One way to actively engage the right hemisphere in creative thought and analysis is through the utilization of multi-media outlets. Multimedia refers to presenting material in the forms of auditory/verbal and visual/pictorial (Mayer, 2001). The use of multimedia outlets can assist an individual in cognitively connecting learning to life events (Schunk, 2012). Schunk (2012) stated "cognitive neuroscience supports the idea that much can be learned through observation" (p. 46). Additionally, to make learning meaningful, context should be incorporated into the learning process as much as possible (Schunk, 2012).

Mayer's (2005) cognitive theory of multimedia learning postulated individuals learn and retain information more effectively from combining words and pictures rather than using words alone. Furthermore, multimedia learning begins "within a learner's information system, a system that contains separate channels for visual and verbal processing" (Mayer, 2005, p. 46) and is activated through five steps; "(a) selecting relevant words for processing in verbal working memory, (b) selecting relevant images for processing in visual working memory, (c) organizing selected words into a verbal mental model, (d) organizing selected images into a visual mental model, and (e) integrating verbal and visual representations as well as prior knowledge" (Mayer,

2001, p. 54). Mayer (2001, 2005) has included PowerPoint, video media, and computer video learning as examples of multimedia. Simultaneously presenting verbal and visual material can be an effective teaching tool for learners who are being introduced to new material (Berk, 2009; Mayer & Johnson, 2008). Therefore, engaging students in constructivist learning environments by utilizing multimedia outlets may be one way to teach leading team, leading change, and transformational leadership.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to analyze three leadership films with the intent of assisting a leadership educator in the process of teaching: (a) leading teams, (b) leading change, and (c) transformational leadership. The objectives of this study are to:

1. Describe how *Miracle* demonstrates leading teams;
2. Describe how *Rocky IV* demonstrates leading change; and
3. Describe how *Lincoln* demonstrates transformational leadership.

Subjectivity Statement

Two researchers were involved in this study: (a) one agricultural leadership lecturer and (b) one professor of agricultural leadership and education. The lecturer has completed her undergraduate degree in psychology, her master degree in agricultural leadership, and is a former student-athlete. The professor has recently published works in the areas of leadership development, women in leadership, and supervisory leadership. Both have prior experience with qualitative data collection techniques and have published qualitative works.

Collectively, the researchers believe students construct knowledge through prior knowledge and experiences. In addition, the researchers believe that active engagement with one's environment is a necessity in order to transform and shape one's leadership perspective. Therefore, these beliefs influenced and provided the basis for the theoretical lens chosen for this study.

Methods

The leadership components chosen to analyze were leading teams, leading change, and transformational leadership. Film was selected as the multimedia outlet with the intention of engaging an individual's critical thinking skills while demonstrating different leadership components. In addition, film provides an opportunity to view authentic leadership predicaments (Saldana, 2009). The films selected were *Miracle*, *Rocky IV*, and *Lincoln*. Additionally, these films were analyzed and pilot tested during a fall 2013 and fall 2014 undergraduate leadership class in the Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications Department, a course in which leadership is analyzed through a variety of genres including, film, autobiography, drama, fiction, and speeches.

The film, *Miracle*, was selected to effectively demonstrate leadership within teams. *Miracle* is based on a true story of the 1980 United States hockey team that defeated the Soviet Union team and later went on to win Olympic gold over Finland. The coach, Herb Brooks, demonstrates his ability as a leader to make difficult group-decisions to develop his players as a team.

Furthermore, he convinced the group of twenty-six undisciplined players to believe in his leadership vision that they could defeat the undefeatable, the Soviet Union. Leading teams was the leadership focus for the film *Miracle* and the researchers utilized the guidelines to leading teams for their evaluation.

The 1985 film, *Rocky IV,* is based upon a prizefighter, Rocky Balboa, and about his internal struggles with the controversy between the United States, the Soviet Union, and the cultures that defined both the countries during that era. Rocky is faced with the challenge of fighting Ivan Drago, from the Soviet Union, after Ivan Drago killed his best friend and trainer, Apollo Creed, during an exhibition fight. Rocky challenges Ivan Drago to a fight on Christmas day. Rocky journeys to the Soviet Union to train for his professional fight on Christmas. The plot of the movie is to demonstrate a man's internal desire to increase acceptance between cultures and to encourage hard work and dedication. In addition, Rocky changes the organizational climate of the Soviet Union people. Overall, the movie is an inspiring account of how one individual can and will change the organizational climates of culture.

The 2012 film, *Lincoln*, recounts President Abraham Lincoln's efforts to abolish slavery under the Thirteenth Amendment, during the United States Civil War. In 1865, President Lincoln feared his 1863 signing of the Emancipation Proclamation, an executive order proclaiming the freedom of all slaves in the ten rebellion states during the Civil War, would be thrown out by the courts once the war had concluded. Lincoln was adamant slavery needed to be abolished; however, he was a part of the Republican party and the steps necessary in abolishing slavery required convincing the Democratic side. It was up to President Lincoln and the Republican party to transform the thinking of not only the Democratic party, but also the nation. Lincoln was a leader first and a politician second, and used transformational leadership to accomplish desired tasks. Throughout the movie, President Lincoln demonstrates the qualities of a transformational leader, showing respect for those around him regardless of their skin color or age, and maintaining close relationships with his followers. Transformational leadership was the leadership focus throughout the *Lincoln* film and the researchers utilized the guidelines for transformational leadership to evaluate the film.

In order to fully examine the leadership approaches demonstrated in the three films, the study was performed using a qualitative research design (Hays & Singh, 2012). Each researcher independently collected data from the films *Miracle*, *Rocky IV*, and *Lincoln*. In addition, data were gathered from observations, documents, and scenes related to each of the films. These multiple sources of artifacts collected provided the researchers with a bank of data from which themes could be created and interpretations made (Hays & Singh, 2012). Specifically, content analysis was utilized to collect and interpret the data. Hays and Singh (2012, p. 315) outlined specific steps in order to perform a content analysis study. These steps are as follows:

1. **Identify research questions and constructs**. The researchers collaborated to develop research questions and/or objectives.
2. **Identify texts to be examined**. The texts that were utilized for this study to check validity coding were leadership literature, film literature, and the films *Miracle*, *Rocky IV*, and *Lincoln*.

3. **Specify the unit of analysis**. The films *Rocky IV*, *Lincoln*, and *Miracle*, verbal conversation in those films, and the films visual scenes were utilized as the units of analysis. These multiple sources of data collection provided source validity for the study.
4. **Specify the categories**. The specific categories selected were organizational culture and climate, transformational leadership, and group-decision making.
5. **Generate sample coding**. The sample coding scheme established was to identify scenes in the movie in which the specific leadership concepts existed.
6. **Collect data**. Each researcher collected data independently on the films *Miracle*, *Rocky IV*, and *Lincoln*.
7. **Purify the coding scheme**. Semantic validity was performed by examining and comparing the data collected in order to agree on specific content in the films that presented the leadership theory or approach.
8. **Collect data**. Continue to collect data until the data is exhausted and represents the leadership theory or approach.
9. **Assess reliability and validity of the coding schemes**. Researchers compared data collected and examined how well each piece of data collected represented the underlying constructs.
10. **Analyze data**. The data were analyzed and common themes were agreed upon.

Once the themes were identified, the literature was reviewed again to verify that the analysis of the films represented the appropriate leadership theory or approach. This process of inductive and recursive analysis requires the research process to be a field of discovery while still reflecting on the process (Patton, 2002).

Results

The information was collected to satisfy the objectives of this study as listed below. The reader should utilize *Appendix I: Movie Cast Members* to identify cast members who are described in the film scenes.

Objective 1. Describe how Miracle demonstrates leading teams.

A. Guidelines for leading teams

1. Part of being on a team is establishing common interests and values. This was displayed in the movie when the United States hockey team traveled to Norway to play the Norwegian team. While there, the US team was not focused on the game. Players on the bench were more interested in looking at the women in the crowd and the players on the ice were not competing or working hard enough during the game. After the game was finished and the US team lost, Coach Brooks made the team get on the line and do sprints on the ice as a team. While the players did ice sprints, Coach Brooks emphasized they were going to play like champions, play like teammates, cooperate, and all play with the same shared values, priorities, and strategies. The players did ice sprints for hours, even after the lights in the arena were turned off until one player, Mike Eruzione, stood up, said his name, and said he played for the United States of America, symbolizing he came to the realization he played on a team and part of being on that team required cooperation, shared goals, and common interests. This scene is also applicable to developing collective

identification through symbols. The United States jersey became a symbol of the group's identity and solidified what it meant to have membership on such an elite team (scene start/stop time 37:39-46:54). An additional scene that displays a team emphasizing shared interests and values is when Coach Brooks walks into the locker room of the US hockey team right before they are about to play the Soviet Union and gives a motivational speech stating the goals for the game, the strategy that will be implemented during the game, and that it is the US hockey team's time to win (Scene start/stop time 1:24:25-1:25:36).

2. Social interaction was the guideline used to evaluate this next scene. After Rob McClanahan and Jack O'Callahan got into a fist fight on the ice, Coach Brooks stood up and said that from that point on they needed to move forward as a team and part of doing that required them getting to know one another. Therefore, Coach Brooks made a few of the players say their names, where they are from, and whom they play for (scene start/stop time: 22:06-23:46). Another scene that exhibits social interaction is when the team is doing group stretching. Group stretches before or after practices are a great way to interact with all team members (scene start/stop time 55:39-56:38). Additionally, after the Christmas party, the boys went outside and played football together, another great opportunity where social interaction can be encouraged (scene start/stop time 1:05:30- 1:07:06).
3. In order to keep from feeling alienated, a few members of the team inquired about the plans for the new team member added to the roster late. The players demanded to know from the coaching staff why the new player was added and if he would stay. Coach Brooks made the decision to tell the players he added the new player because he would add to the team. This scene was an example of telling people about group activities (scene start/stop time: 1:00:34- 1:03:01). Furthermore, part of leading a team is keeping members of the team informed about their performance. Coach Brooks did just that when he let Jim Craig, the goalie, know that he was not planning on playing him due to his lack of effort on the ice and that he knew Craig had more than what he was giving in him (scene start/stop time 1:16:27-1:18:00).
4. Conducting open discussions with the intention of improving the team is essential. Two scenes displayed discussions where suggestions were made about the overall decisions for the team, the first being when Coach Brooks and Coach Patrick were in Coach Patrick's office and Coach Brooks made the suggestion that pushing them too hard was making them tired and that he thought it was not a good idea because it would not improve their performance (scene start/stop time 36:00-37:38). The second scene was when a few players asked to talk with Coach Brooks and Coach Patrick about the addition of a new team member late in the season. The players suggested the new player should not be a part of the team because he was not making the roles of the other team members easier and therefore would not be contributing to the overall success of the team (scene start/stop time 1:00:36- 1:03:01).
5. Holding practice sessions improves team performance and prepares team members for potential difficult tasks in the future. Many practice sessions were held throughout the movie, where the players were pushed to work together and perform complex tasks which in turn enhanced the team members' confidence so when they played in games, they could rise to the occasion and respond using what they learned

in practice (scene start/stop times: 20:08-23:46; 32:50-35:33; 50:57-53:07; 59:11-59:39).

6. When the US hockey team watched game film, collective learning from experience was taking place. The game film allowed the players to analyze their game and discover what they had to do to improve (scene start/stop time 48:20-50:56). During the half time against Sweden in the Olympics, Coach Brooks went into the locker room and assessed the first half of the game telling them they were playing horribly and in order to win they needed to improve their performance. Furthermore, he used dramatic actions and words to get the team fired up so the team would get back on track and improve from the first half (scene start/stop time 1:24:25-1:25:36).

Objective 2. Describe how Rocky IV demonstrates leading change.

B. Guidelines to leading change

1. Create a sense of urgency about the need for change and communicate a clear vision of the benefits to be gained. The Soviet Union and the United States during the filming of *Rocky IV* were enemies. Therefore, Apollo Creed (United States professional boxer) initiated an exhibition fight with Ivan Drago (Russian professional boxer). During the exhibition fight, Apollo Creed dies and this creates a sense of urgency for Rocky Balboa (another United States professional boxer and Apollo Creed's manager) to challenge Ivan Drago to a boxing match in the Soviet Union. The death of Apollo Creed initiates the vision for Rocky Balboa to change the relationship between the United States and Soviet Union (scene start/stop time: 15:10 to 33:47).
2. Identify likely supporters, opponents, and reasons for resistance. Rocky Balboa decides to train to fight Ivan Drago in the Soviet Union on Christmas Day. He explains to his wife (Adrienne) the reason he will be fighting Ivan Drago and she becomes negative about Rocky's decision. Rocky clearly explains to Adrienne why he is drawn to fight Ivan Drago and identifies supporters, opponents, and reasons for resistance (scene start/stop time: 35:27 to 41:25)
3. Build a broad coalition to support the change and fill key positions with competent change agents, use task forces to guide the implementation of changes and empower competent people to help plan and implement change. Rocky Balboa refuses to let Adrienne convince him that he will not fight Ivan Drago in the Soviet Union and reflects on his life as a professional boxer, husband, friend, and father. In addition, he takes Paulie (Adrian's brother and Rocky's manager) and Tony "Duke" Evers (Rocky's corner man) to the Soviet Union. Paulie and Duke are going to assist Rocky in the training process to fight Ivan Drago (scene start/stop time: 41:17 to 50:08).
4. Make dramatic, symbolic changes that affect the work. Rocky Balboa flies to Russia to train for his upcoming fight with Ivan Drago. Rocky requests a non-luxury living facility for the duration of his training. This request enables Rocky to make a dramatic change to his training unlike Ivan Drago. The symbolic changes to training for the upcoming fight leaves Rocky Balboa in a better position to be mentally and physically strong enough to complete his work (scene start/stop time: 50:57 to 58:34).
5. Prepare people for change by explaining how it will affect them and help people deal with the stress and difficulties of major change. Rocky Balboa returns from his training run to find Adrienne standing on the porch of his house in the Soviet Union.

She had realized it would be difficult to watch Rocky fight Ivan but she accepted the reasons as to why Rocky was fighting Ivan: to make a major change in the way the United States and Soviet Union interacted (scene start/stop time: 58:48 to 1:02:47).

6. Provide opportunities for early successes to build confidence and monitor the progress of change and make any necessary adjustments. Rocky Balboa is training in the Soviet Union and has been assigned two Soviet Union individuals to follow him throughout his training. On one specific training outing, Rocky recognizes he must make the necessary adjustments to better prepare himself for the upcoming fight. Therefore, Rocky navigates from his normal training route (leaving the Soviet Union individuals unable to keep up) and explores other aspects of the Soviet Union (the mountains) in which he needs to build confidence (scene start/stop time: 1:02:47 to 1:04:22).
7. Keep people informed about the progress of change and demonstrate continued optimism and commitment to the change. The final fight between Rocky Balboa and Ivan Drago is an intense battle between two professional fighters who are also fighting for their country. At the beginning of the fight, the Soviets were completely against Rocky and the United States. However, as the intensity of the battle between Rocky and Ivan Drago continues, the Soviet Union people begin to change their perspectives of Rocky and the United States. At the conclusion of the fight, Rocky confronts the audience and states "if I can change and you can change, everybody can change" (scene start/stop time: 1:04:22 to 1:27:17).

Objective 3. Describe how Lincoln demonstrates transformational leadership.

C. Guidelines to transformational leadership

1. In the movie *Lincoln*, President Lincoln was articulating a clear and appealing vision while in a meeting with his wartime cabinet. President Lincoln made sure to communicate the reasons as to why he wanted to abolish slavery, why it is important to him, why it is important for the country, and why the wartime cabinet needed to make passing the 13th amendment a priority (scene start/stop time: 23:15-30:45). In addition, President Lincoln continued to articulate his vision and explained how the vision could be attained when he stood before a few of his cabinet members and with frustration emphasized passionately that despite the rumors people were hearing about a Confederate peace offer to end the war, it was more important to pass the 13th amendment before accepting any peace offer. President Lincoln insisted his activists needed to go out, talk with members of the House of Representatives, and procure at a minimum two more votes to secure the passage of the 13th amendment (scene start/stop time: 1:43:43-1:46:34).
2. President Lincoln displayed a very confident and optimistic attitude about the passage of the 13th amendment throughout the movie by never giving up on his vision. However, his confidence and optimism is most evident when he was in a state of unrest with himself, and yet stood firm to his beliefs by sending General Ulysses S. Grant a telegram to remain prepared for military action and not allow the passage of the peace commissioners to Washington DC... The president made this decision with the hope and optimism that holding the peace commissioners off a few days would give the House of Representatives time to vote and possibly pass the 13th amendment (scene start/time 1:17:38-1:18:51).

3. An essential component in motivating one's followers is through expressing confidence in them. Throughout the movie, there were a multitude of times President Lincoln's cabinet members, activists, and fellow party members visually displayed doubt about the vision, however, President Lincoln reassured them he had confidence not only in the vision, but in the people carrying out the vision. President Lincoln went to the house of one of his activists, William Bilbo, and encouraged him by saying he believed he could get a few remaining undecided democrats to vote in favor of the 13th amendment. President Lincoln gave Bilbo instructions on attaining the votes while at the same time expressing his confidence he could get the seemingly unattainable task accomplished (scene start/stop time: 1:35:36-1:39:52).
4. In order to make a statement about the importance of not passing the 13th amendment, Fernando Wood stands before the House of Representatives and uses dramatic actions and tone of voice to emphasize his beliefs. Furthermore, Fernando Wood fabricates the situation by calling President Lincoln a dictator in order to make a point that passing the 13th amendment is not the right thing to do (scene start/stop time: 35:16-39:12). Additionally, President Lincoln often told stories throughout the movie that were intended to be symbolic of the overall vision he was trying to get people to see. In one scene of the movie, Lincoln tells a story of Euclid and his law of axioms in order to relate to the people around him and get them to see things in a different, yet symbolic way that emphasized the importance of passing the 13th amendment (scene start/stop time: 1:15:29-1:17:26).
5. At times, leading by example can mean one's actions speak louder than words. Towards the end of the movie, Thaddeus Stevens stood before the House of Representatives and did not claim that all people are equal, but with the end goal in mind said "I don't stand for equality of all things, only for the equality of all things under the law." Thaddeus Stevens had to stand up before everyone and use a play on words in order to stand up for what he believed was right and not upset too many people so that the Republican party might procure the necessary votes to pass the 13th amendment (scene start/stop time 1:19:32-1:23:16).

Discussion

The three films utilized in this study, *Miracle*, *Rocky IV*, and *Lincoln* provide educators a template for teaching three leadership components: (a) leading teams, (b) leading change, and (c) transformational leadership. *Miracle* was ideal for teaching about leading teams because it exposed the nuances of a team, what a team is comprised of, and what a team goes through from beginning to end in order to be successful.

Rocky IV was ideal for demonstrating leading change because the movie focused on breaking cultural barriers between the United States and the Soviet Union. In addition, the movie highlighted how individuals prepare for significant change. Additionally, *Lincoln* was a valuable film in teaching transformational leadership because it allowed the students to get a glimpse of what it took to get the 13th amendment passed. Students observed President Lincoln practicing transformational leadership while trying to change the mindsets of people of whom were against the process of change.

In order to use the films as an effective teaching method, the neuroscience of the brain was taken into account. As stated by Zull (2002), neuroscience is a field specifically dealing with the brain and the nervous system, working to decipher commands, functions, and the world around us. Furthermore, it is important to note the brain is made up of two cerebral hemispheres, the left and the right, each having different functions (Sperry, 1973). Throughout the duration of the films in the fall 2013 leadership class, students were presented the opportunity to actively engage both sides of the brain, the left hemisphere through verbal cues and the right hemisphere through visual cues (Miller, 1997). Simultaneously engaging both hemispheres, according to Schunk (2012), allows the human body to obtain and process more information. By understanding the neuroscience of the brain, educators have an advantage in creating teaching methods beneficial for students' learning and acquisition.

Learning through role playing or simulations, the learner will develop critical insight from experience (Schunk, 2012). With film, students are not only learning more about leadership and the components of leadership, but are getting first-hand experience through film. *Miracle* presented a form of reality of what it means to be a part of a team and allowed students to experience the nuances of a team through visual representation including practices, games, and team adversity. In a short amount of time, the students were able to experience what the 1980 United States Olympic hockey team went through to achieve success. This supports Dewey's (1916) notion that a learner's knowledge emerges from experiences and situations in social settings, which denote importance and meaning to the learner.

Given the context of the fall leadership class, students were immersed into learning situations where the films were used as a means of simultaneously engaging visual and verbal cues. In the beginning scene of the film *Rocky IV*, Apollo Creed's death was visually and verbally depicted on the screen. However, the sense of urgency residing in Rocky Balboa to challenge Ivan Drago to a boxing match in honor of his friend and his country could only be seen through visual delineation. Correspondingly, throughout the film *Lincoln*, President Lincoln's intentions in regards to the 13th Amendment and the hardships he went through during that time were made very clear not always by his words, but through facial gestures or exaggerated hand movements. Be that as it may, President Lincoln's speeches and discussions amongst the people and his cabinet solidified those intentions.

Typically, leadership is taught by means of lectures and textbooks; however, by teaching leadership through film, instructors are utilizing transformational leadership in order to inspire students to look at leadership through a new lens. Bass and Riggio (2006), note an essential component of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. Therefore, through the implementation of transformational leadership, educators should encourage students to actively engage in the process and analysis of leadership.

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A Case Study of Leader-member Exchange Between Teachers and Students

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Introduction

Given the influential nature between teachers and students, teachers are leaders (Mosley, Broyles, & Kaufman, 2014). Mosley, Broyles, and Kaufman (2014) questioned if a teacher, as a classroom leader, were able to foster high-quality relationships with all students, would students, as subordinates, be willing to work harder in the classroom? If the answer is yes, student learning could be enhanced; however, an understanding of how teacher-student relationships develop is critical to answering that question. Virtually no empirical studies have qualitatively explored the phenomenon of teacher-student relationship development. As teachers daily try leading students to academic success in an effort to meet local, state, and federal mandates, this research is opportune, necessary and has the potential to alter the ways in which teachers interact with students. The high school classroom affords an opportunity for expanding the research and deepening the much-needed understanding of teacher-student dyads.

Leadership educators are teachers of leadership, where they employ pedagogical and andragogical methods to educate others about leadership. As such, leadership educators, practice leadership in their various instructional settings. Certainly, understanding how teachers practice leadership with students would enhance the leadership educator's understanding of the transfer of learning through the lens of leadership theory.

This qualitative investigation follows a holistic case study tradition to explore teacher- student relationship development. Scholz and Tietje (2002) explained that holistic case studies are "shaped by a thoroughly qualitative approach that relies on narrative, phenomenological descriptions" (p. 9). The main units of analysis in this study are individual career and technical education (CTE) teachers and students within the CTE department of a high school. As demonstrated by Pienaar, Nieman, & Kamper (2011), the case study strategy is appropriate when research is situated in specific school and targets specific learners.

Various leadership theories describe the process of leading others; but leader-member exchange (LMX) theory also describes how relationships between leaders and subordinates change, reasoning that subordinates who have a high-quality relationship with their leader are willing to do more than is required (Northouse, 2010). Contrary to most theories of leadership which discuss leadership from the perspective of the leader or the follower, leader---member exchange (LMX) theory emphasizes the interactions that occur between leaders and subordinates, focusing on the quality of the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2010).

LMX theory holds that high quality relationships between leaders and subordinates promote increased communication, but very few have applied the theory in an education setting where the teacher was positioned as leader. Bowler (2001) explored how demographic similarities between a teacher and student affected the quality of LMX and how the quality of LMX between teacher

and student impacted the students' performance rating of the instructor. There was a positive relationship between LMX quality and end-of-course rating of the teacher by students, thus supporting the notion of LMX theory that benefits for the leader exist in high quality relationships. Myers (2006) investigated whether student perceptions of relational quality with their instructor are reflected in student motives to communicate with the instructor, recommending the consideration of students' perceived quality of teacher-student relationships as an explanation for why some students seem motivated to communicate with the teacher. Further, Mosley, Broyles, and Kaufman (2014) demonstrated that a higher quality relationship from the teacher perspective causes a higher quality relationship from the student perspective. If the teacher---student relationship has implications for both teachers and students, comparing teacher and student descriptions of relationship development with LMX theory could be beneficial for both parties.

The purpose of this case study was to investigate how teacher-student relationships develop. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do teachers and students describe the development of teacher-student dyadic relationships?
2. How do the descriptions of dyadic relationship development offered by teachers and students align with Leader-member Exchange theory?

Methods

Population and Sample

This study took place in the Career and Technical Education (CTE) department of a suburban high school in western North Carolina during the months of November and December 2011. The high school has a population of just over 800 students who learn in forty-four classrooms and five CTE laboratories spread throughout the school. The selection of the school used for the case study was motivated by: (a) quantity of CTE teachers in the school, (b) geographic proximity of the school to the researcher's residence, (c) the suitability of the school for the present study, and (d) the willingness of the school to grant access to teachers and students. The sample for this study was from a larger population of students from a previous study (Mosley, Broyles, & Kaufman, 2014) where researchers measured the perceived quality of teacher-student relationships using the Leader---Member Excellence–Shared---Leadership Exchange (LMX---SLX) instrument, developed by Graen, Hui, and Taylor (2006). During that study, participants indicated their interest in participating in an interview to explore the development of teacher---student relationships.

Though universally accepted rules for sample size in qualitative research do not exist (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), methodologists suggest a sample size upper limit of 15 participants in case study designs, with case studies of institutions frequently ranging from 4 to 12 participants (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Jiao, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Teddlie & Yu, 2006). Twelve participants were selected: four teachers and eight students. The teacher participants were selected using a typical case sampling strategy, "which involves selecting those cases that are the most typical, normal, or representative of the group of cases under consideration" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 176). The four teachers whose LMX-SLX mean score was closest to the

group mean score were chosen. The student participants were selected using intensity sampling to achieve comparability, which is one of a wide variety of purposive sampling techniques that exist (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). As explained by Patton (2002), intensity sampling occurs when a researcher chooses highly informative cases that intensively represent a phenomenon of interest. Four students who reported an extremely high LMX-SLX score, in comparison with their peers, and four students who reported a low LMX-SLX score, in comparison with their peers, were selected. Table 1 provides a description of the teacher participants. Each teacher participant was given a pseudonym to protect his or her identity, and the prefixes assigned to each pseudonym are not necessarily associated with the actual teacher participant's sex.

Table 1

Description of Qualitative Strand Teacher Participants (n=4).

Participant	Content Area	Teaching Experience
Mr. Johnson	Trade and Industrial	19 years
Ms. Williams Ms.	Health Occupations Agriculture	9 years
Davis		29 years
Mr. Lewis	Health Occupations	1 years

Table 2 provides a description of the student participants. Each student participant was given a gender-neutral pseudonym to protect his or her identity. Masculine pronouns will be used to reference student participants. Logan is a 15-year-old student who is a member of DECA. Bailey is a 17-year-old student who is a member of FFA. Nat is a 15-year-old student who is a member of HOSA. Morgan is a 15-year-old student who is a member of FFA. Dakota is a 16-year-old student who is a member of HOSA. Cameron is an 18-year-old student and is not a member of any CTSO. Sidney is a 15-year-old student and is not a member of any CTSO. Devon is an 18-year-old student and is not a member of any CTSO.

Table 2

Description of Qualitative Strand Student Participants (n=8).

Participant	Age	CTSO Member
Higher LMX		
Logan	15	Yes
Bailey	17	Yes
Nat	15	Yes
Morgan	15	Yes
Lower LMX Dakota		
	16	Yes
Cameron	18	No
Sidney	15	No
Devon	18	No

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected through in-depth, semi-structured interviews using open-ended questions following an interview guide, as semi-structured interviews "may yield much more than fully structured ones can" (Wengraf, 2004, p. 5). Questions on the interview guide probed for information regarding specific teacher-student relationships and provided participants with an opportunity to speak about teacher-student relationship development in general. The in-depth interviews were digitally voice recorded, as suggested by Seidman (2006), in order to capture the true words of the interviewee. The words of interviewees were transcribed and member checks were conducted, where transcriptions of interviews were provided to each interviewee to verify that his or her words were accurately represented (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The data were analyzed and reduced inductively, following processes prescribed by Seidman (2006), which began with initial coding and, through multiple iterations of data analysis, led to the emergence of themes. HyperResearch© qualitative data analysis software was used for coding and categorization of qualitative data. The final stage of analyzing the data required us to make interpretations of the themes and support interpretations with passages from the interviews. Additional member checks were conducted to check the validity of qualitative data analysis. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) explained that member checking involves presenting summaries of findings to study participants and asking them to verify that the findings accurately reflect their experiences.

Trustworthiness

Because many critics are reluctant to accept the findings from qualitative research, Guba (1981) developed criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of qualitative inquiries. Guba's (1981) framework recommended that qualitative researchers ensure the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of their research to demonstrate trustworthiness. In the present study, we ensured credibility by developing a familiarity with the culture being investigated and conducting member checks. Transferability was guaranteed by describing the context of the study and the phenomenon under investigation. We demonstrated dependability by providing a description of the methodology. Confirmability was achieved by admitting researcher beliefs and assumptions in regard to the study and identifying limitations of the study.

As bias of researchers can affect the reliability and validity of qualitative research, researchers should clarify bias when conducting qualitative investigations. We acknowledge the bias of teacher-student relationship development garnered from many years of secondary and postsecondary-level CTE teaching experience. Any propositions from initial bias were either supported by literature or dispelled due to lack of literary support. Further, pilot testing of the interview guide allowed us to test for biased questions to avoid leading questions and promote neutrality.

Results

From data analysis, five themes emerged. The themes are used to organize the findings of the qualitative strand of research. The five themes are:

1. The way in which a teacher structures the classroom affects the quality of teacher-student relationships.
2. Teacher actions affect student motivation.
3. Teachers have a preference for students who excel academically and are well behaved.
4. The quality of teacher-student relationships improves with increased interaction.
5. High-quality teacher-student relationships are caring, trusting, and mutually respectful.

Each theme is presented individually; however, the themes are not independent of one another. Rather, the five themes collectively describe the development of teacher-student dyadic relationships.

Theme 1: The way in which a teacher structures the classroom affects the quality of teacher-student relationships. Because teaching provides a large degree of autonomy inside the walls of a classroom, teachers are responsible for structuring the learning environment. Structuring a classroom includes aesthetics, teaching methodology, environmental factors such as lighting and temperature, formats of assessment, classroom management strategies, and all other aspects of a classroom that help form the learning environment. Table 3 provides categories and selected, aligned quotes that lead to the emergence of theme 1.

Table 3

Categories and selected quotes for theme 1: The way in which a teacher structures the classroom affects the quality of teacher-student relationships.

Categories	Selected Quotes
Class organization	I'm a pretty much rules person. I don't bend too much. I like, you know, organization and roles, but not the point. I just want it structured and I want the kids, I think kids respond well for that (Ms. Williams, I1 382–85).
	I like a structure, like, I don't like—yes, I like structure. But that doesn't necessarily mean it has to be, like, strict, unreasonable. Like, one of my best teachers was [teacher's name]. And he had, he had structure. You came in, you did your work, but at the same time you could talk with him. You could have a discussion in class. You know? Stuff like that as long as you were on-topic. And that's really the best way, I think, to do it. Where you can kind of, you know, let students express themselves. It's not just the same writing out of the book every day. But you still have to go in there, get your work done, and learn something. And then I've had teachers that just didn't care and you don't learn anything. And I've had those that are just so strict, all anybody's thinking about is getting out of the class rather than actually learning from the class (Cameron, I3 381–90).
Teacher expectations	I push them even when they don't want to be pushed to succeed and do well (Mr. Johnson, I6 9–10).
	I mean, I think that he, with everyone he, he kind of wants to—I don't think he wants to see anybody have a lackluster performance in his class. He really wants everyone to do well (Bailey, I7 204–06).
Teacher enthusiasm	She always kept you like focused with the class, and like it was, I don't know if you'd call it like energized but, you know, she just made it fun so

	you could remember everything (Dakota, I8 25–27).
	I thought the class was going to be pretty hard and difficult. But after awhile, you know, she brought, as I said, a mood into the room that would just, I guess, spark a fire in not only me, but everybody and make everybody want to try to do work (Sidney, I9 101–03).
Teaching and learning styles	I like most of my teachers, but some of them, I don't like their teaching style (Nat, I2 11–12).
	I think some students get more interested in application than they do just knowledge. And for some students, sitting in a desk watching a PowerPoint for 90 minutes is not happening. For some of them, they'll sit there and take notes. For others, in 10 minutes they're distracted (Mr. Lewis, I10 213–16).
Classroom climate	So allowing the student a place where they [sic] can come in and be successful, not feel excluded, and be a part of a room is, I hope, what kind of environment that I create in the classroom. And what I would hope other teachers would, you know, in their classrooms as well (Ms. Williams, I1 386–89).
	I try to make sure that every student feels welcome and invited (Ms. Davis, I4 109).

Theme 2: Teacher actions affect student motivation. While teachers are leaders and their actions set the pace for the development of teacher-student relationships, students must have a desire for the relationship to develop as well, or the teacher-student relationship will never prosper. Table 4 provides categories and selected, aligned quotes that lead to the emergence of theme 2.

Table 4

Categories and selected quotes for theme 2: Teacher actions affect student motivation.

Categories	Selected Quotes
Self desire	Some students have been dropping out since about fourth grade. And they're just waiting until they get old enough that it can become legal and, you know, they're not going to connect with anybody, you know, here (Ms. Davis, I4 189–92)
	I mean, if the student doesn't want to be there at all, you know, and acting out all the time, I mean it's kind of hard for a teacher (Dakota, I8 403–04)
Perceived value	I say a lot of stuff that, if you covered it line-by-line textbook, they wouldn't see the value in it, and they wouldn't get involved. It needs to be broadened out to specific things they're interested in, whether it's a kid who is restoring cars or a kid who is designing traps that traps animals in the fall for a side business (Mr. Johnson, I6 38–41)
	My grades have pretty much declined a little bit over time because my sophomore year I decided I wasn't going to college. I was going to join the military. So I decided that, you know, you only go to high school once. I'm going to focus less on getting into college and more on enjoying these years (Cameron, I3 17–20).
	"We both know I don't need the class to graduate. I mean, if he asks me to do something, I'll do it. But I don't really go out of my way to work for him, you know (Cameron, I3 31–33)
Pleasing the teacher	Personally, I try to impress [teacher's name] just because I like her so much. I want her to have the same feelings about me. And so I do try to impress her by working harder (Nat, I2 208–10)
	Everybody wants to try to do work for not only themselves, but [teacher's name] to try to make her happy (Sidney, I9 103–04)
	I think that if you enjoy being around your teacher, you want to do well for them. You don't want to let them down" (Bailey, I7 348–49)
	I think if he was a math teacher, I would do really well in that class. Because if I like a teacher, I'm going to try to please them more than if I don't, I'm going to try to make a 70 (Cameron, I3 78–80)

Theme 3: Teachers have a preference for students who excel academically and are well behaved. All teachers indicated a preference for treating students with fairness and equity; however, some found this difficult, tending to prefer working with students who were academically inclined. Table 5 provides categories and selected, aligned quotes that lead to the emergence of theme 3.

Table 5

Categories and selected quotes for theme 3: Teachers have a preference for students who excel academically and are well behaved.

Categories	Selected Quotes
Effort	There are students that every single day they bring a good attitude. And every single day they're giving you their best effort. And every single day they're trying to do what they can to please you, you know, as a teacher, and to do their very best and it's hard to have a day, you know, with them that you don't feel pretty good about them being there (Ms. Davis, I4 207–11)
	I have students who are very passionate about what they do and work really hard and study really hard and that makes me really excited. So if that makes them a—I mean, I try not to show favoritism towards students, but it makes me very happy when students are doing the right way (Ms. Williams, I1 172–75)
Level of support needed	Little instruction as far as she knows that I support her, but not a lot of—I don't have to tell her everything to do. You know, if I give her an assignment, she's good with it (Ms. Williams, I1 281–83)
	I think it's easier to work with those that it clicks easy . . . I think with some students that you see a desire to learn, it's just natural for you to try to help them excel (Mr. Lewis, I10 181, 31–32)
Favoritism	Well, I do make good grades. And some kids that don't, they don't really even want to try with them (Dakota, I8 129–30)
	I think they interact with me better, because I actually pay attention and work for them. And I think in return they treat you better if you do that (Morgan, I5 71–72)
	She is generally the same with everyone, but I mean, if you're more willing to talk to her and you're more willing to do all your work and stuff, generally, you'll be the one that she likes (Logan, I12 193–95)
	He's more inclined to be more understanding of someone that he knows is responsible, does what they do. I mean, I've been with him for three years, so I think that he—I mean, I don't want to say he gives me special attention. But I think that he would be more inclined to understand if something was going on with me (Bailey, I7 211–14)
Class performance	I think that you, he maybe is more inclined to some students because of their performance in his class (Bailey, I7 253–54).
	If you do make good grades and you show that you're trying, then she shows a lot more consideration for you than she would someone who just blows off tests and doesn't really care about what she's doing, because that's a waste of her time. If you don't care, then she shouldn't. So if you do good grades, she kind of, she kind of focuses more on you, because she knows that you're taking it in and that you're actually going to use it on your test, because some people just don't, they just don't care (Nat, I2 131–37).

Theme 4: The quality of teacher-student relationships improves with increased interaction. Both teachers and students describe the first encounter with one another as a platform on which first impressions are formed, explaining that as the duration of the relationship increase, they are able to get to know one another better. Both participant groups spoke to how the frequency of their interactions aided in the development of the relations in and out of the classroom. Table 6 provides categories and selected, aligned quotes that lead to the emergence of theme 4.

Table 6

Categories and selected quotes for theme 4: The quality of teacher-student relationships improves with increased interaction.

Repeating Ideas	Selected Quotes
Duration of interaction	I guess as the year goes on you get to know them a little bit better and, you know, you kind of talk to them more and more about different stuff. So, you know, like I guess the better the relationship the more you talk to them, the more you'll open up and stuff (Dakota, I8 118–20)
	Cameron described how the relationship with one of his teachers evolved during the course of a semester, saying, "I've just gotten to know him better and I learned he was a pretty laid-back guy. He's pretty cool and I could just, you know, joke around, kid with him more. I actually talk to him (Cameron, I3 187–89)
	I guess with my senior-level courses, we have a closer relationship because we've been together for four years, versus my freshmen and sophomores, who I don't know that well and who don't know me as well (Ms. Williams, I1 54–57)
Intensity of interaction	My mom has always been a good friend of hers, so I've known her for quite a while. And she's always been, you know, really nice, and always helps you if you need it (Logan, I12 31–32)
	She does one-on-one a lot, which helps. And it makes it, and she does after school tutoring for her class, too. So that combined kind of makes her more—she's more, she interacts with us more than the other teachers do. Like, she'll talk to you about the class, instead of just teaching you and then you leaving and that being the end of it (Nat, I2 53–57).
Career and Technical Student Organizations (CTSOs)	If you do [CTSO] and, like the more you get to know her, but if you don't, it's like just class, and you leave (Dakota, I8 257–58).
	Before they may have participated in [CTSO] and may have, like, got to know her better than some people, where some people have taken her class that's new (Sidney, I9 247–49)
	She talked me into doing [CTSO], and so I stayed after school with her a lot. And it was, like, one-on-one, because not many people can stay after school. And so that kind of got a lot better between us. And it got to where she enjoyed being around me, and I enjoyed being around her. And so after awhile it just got to where that class came really easy to me, because she's easier to listen to. Like, she doesn't bore you to death. So I just—and staying after school with her and going to competitions and her, talking to her like that, it really made me like her a lot more (Nat, I2 119–25)

Theme 5: High-quality teacher-student relationships are caring, trusting, and mutually respectful. Teachers and students alike enjoyed talking about high-quality teacher- student relationships and used a variety of descriptive terms to portray good relationships. In high-quality relationships, teachers want students to succeed and provide them with opportunities for success. Table 7 provides categories and selected, aligned quotes that lead to the emergence of theme 5.

Table 7

Categories and selected quotes for theme 5: High-quality teacher-student relationships are caring, trusting, and mutually respectful.

Repeating Ideas	Selected Quotes
Compassion and care	I mean, just the dedication that he puts into making sure that I'm where I need to be. He just makes, he doesn't care. Like he'll stay after school. He will help me whenever I need help. I just think he goes above and beyond when it comes to making sure that students are happy with his class and know the material and stuff like that (Bailey, I7 166–69)
	If they see me as somebody that cares about them and has an interest in them, I think that it would be natural for you want to gravitate to that person and develop a, you know, better relationship with them (Mr. Lewis, 10 357–59)
	If I can tell they're going to care and try to help me out, then I'm going to try to do my best because I know with that potential I have really good, I have potential to do really well in that class. But if it's someone who just doesn't care or doesn't like me, then I'm just going to do enough to pass so I can get out of there (Cameron, I3 142–46)
Confidence and trust	If I see a student that's starting to get a mastery of a concept, I tend to enforce that by asking if they'll help a student that's not got mastery of the concept (Mr. Johnson, I6 138–39)
	They have to be honest with me and trustworthy (Ms. Williams, I1 63)
	[Teacher's name] is more of the person that, she's more of, like, she is a stricter person. So if you told her something, she could keep it to herself. She's the type of person that you can confide in. And my other teachers, I really don't have that kind of relationship with them (Nat, I2 36–39)
Courtesy and respect	You know, addressing them when they ask questions, "Yes, ma'am," and "No, ma'am," because I want them to reciprocate that and have the same response addressed to me. So I hope I'm respectful to the students and in turn they are respectful towards me (Ms. Williams, I1 21–24)
	Respect them and they'll respect you (Morgan, I5 327).
	I like them and I like their class, so therefore I kind of have a respect for them. And when they tell me to do something, I just do it (Cameron, I3 112–13)

Discussion / Implications / Recommendations

We conclude that high-quality teacher-student relationships are nurtured when teachers demonstrate care, trust, and respect for students. Teachers in the present study continuously spoke of encouraging students, demonstrating care and concern for their well being, demonstrating trust, and treating students with respect. Students were aware of the care demonstrated by teachers and were appreciative. As Logan commented about teachers, "Usually those are the best teachers, the ones that actually care" (I12 69–70). In regard to trust, asking students to help the teacher with instructing other students demonstrates trust of that student not to lead his or her peers astray. Students were aware of this trust. Bailey told of how one of his teachers would ask him to help other students during class if they needed extra help in drawing landscape plans or reading, noting the relationship did not start off with such high trust when he first had the teacher for class, saying, "I think he's just more trusting of me now than he was then" (I7 138–39). Finally, teachers who fostered high-quality relationships demonstrated respect for their students. Mr. Johnson explained that respect included listening to student perspectives and opinions and valuing their input. To do this, he held classroom meetings.

This finding is consistent with leather-member exchange theory. As explained by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), higher-quality relationships between leaders and subordinates involve negotiations and are described as demonstrating mutual respect, support, trust, influence, and input in decision making, while lower quality relationships operate under a top-down influence from the leader, provide restricted support for the subordinate, and the interactions are more formal and based on contractual agreements. LMX theory refers to high-quality relationships as mature partnerships. Relationships that evolve into mature partnerships are characterized by leaders relying on followers to provide assistance when necessary or trusting followers, and followers relying on leaders for investment and encouragement (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The mutual trust, respect, and obligation to one another, which characterizes mature partnerships, serve as empowering and motivating factors to grow beyond formal work roles (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and result in more effective leadership outcomes (Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993). In the present study, both teachers and students described high-quality teacher-student relationships as caring, trusting, and respectful.

Because the investigation was a case study, conclusions are limited to the case site under investigation and cannot, therefore, be generalized to a larger population. Further, the student sample represented perspectives from students who perceived extremely high or low quality relationships with specific teachers - perspectives of other students could differ.

Implications for Practice

As teachers are leaders of student success, results of the present study offer multiple implications for teachers. It was discovered that teacher actions affect student motivation (theme two) and the quality of teacher-student relationships improves with increased interaction (theme four). As Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) explained, when a leader makes LMX available to all subordinates, there is an increased potential for the development of high quality relationships; however, Othman, Ee, and Shi (2010) highlighted limitations of LMX theory and argued that, in some cases, high-quality LMX could be dysfunctional. Interestingly, Mr. Johnson provided an appropriate example. He described: "I've had one that got over-familiar and he wound up letting it be a detriment. He thought, you know, I fish with him. I can get by with murder and it

did not fare well for him" (I6 329–30). While increased interaction outside of the class can be a positive step toward developing high quality relationships, teachers should use caution and monitor how teacher-student relationships develop to prevent dysfunction.

Existing literature reveals that favoritism by the leader, reliance on impression management by the followers, and perceptions of unfairness may lead to dysfunctional relationships within group settings (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010). Othman, Ee, and Shi (2010) proposed that dysfunctional high-quality LMX occurs in accordance with two circumstances: 1) "the flawed assessment of a member by a leader," (p. 341), and 2) when members "use upward influence tactics to create a favourable impression of themselves" (p. 341). In regard to favoritism, students addressed a dislike for treating students differently. Bailey described one teacher by saying, "I think that you, he maybe is more inclined to some students because of their performance in his class" (I7 253–54). Further, Nat provided this example: "If you do make good grades and you show that you're trying, then she shows a lot more consideration for you" (I2 131–33). Because of this, teachers must exercise caution when developing relationships with students and strive to not show favoritism, especially when evaluating student performance.

The evaluation of follower performance requires the assessment of a member by a leader. Othman, Ee, and Shi (2010) suggested that faulty evaluation of a follower by a leader could lead to dysfunctional relationships. Flawed assessments may occur due to "the lack of information and opportunity to observe the member" (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010, p. 341). Additionally, Dienesch and Liden (1986) warned that leader assessments of followers might be impacted by the halo effect, where those seeming to be strong performers in some regard are treated as if they are strong performers in all aspects. The possibility of such flawed assessments may be decreased in educational settings because quantitative measures, in the form of grades, are typically used to gauge student achievement. However, assigning grades to students is not always equitable when assessments use subjective grading criteria. Cameron described a situation with one teacher that points to the detrimental impact of flawed assessments:

This goes back to English. I guess I remember it more because I was not one of her favorites. Like, not even close. And we had a lot of open-ended questions on our test. And some little student that was a little, you know, kiss-ass would write something down that didn't make any sense and she'd mark it right. And someone would just be like a few words or a few details off, whole thing wrong. That was always, that always irked me (I3 335–40).

The first theme explained the way in which a teacher structures the classroom affects the quality of teacher-student relationships. Undoubtedly, how teachers choose to assess students relates to classroom structuring and teacher actions. Therefore, teachers should identify and employ equitable measures of assessment to prevent student perception of inequity.

When flawed assessments of subordinate performance lead to dysfunctional high-quality leader-member relationships, a sense of inequity is created among out-group members (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010). While perceived inequity can lead to perceived favoritism, favoritism and preferential treatment is a natural product of high-quality student-teacher relationships (Brophy & Good, 1974). Overtly showing favoritism to a group of students, however, is one of the biggest errors a teacher can make (Orange, 2000; Tantleff-Dunn, Dunn, & Gokee, 2002),

because this can decrease motivation for students not receiving favoritism. In this regard, then, teachers should be aware of their actions and be cautious of showing favoritism in the classroom because students having low-quality relationships with the teacher may have negative reactions. Teachers should strive to form high-quality relationships with all students, and as the present study revealed in the fifth theme that emerged from qualitative analysis, treat students equitably and respectfully.

Future Research

We recommend two specific areas for future inquiry. First, we suggest exploring how involvement in a CTSO interacts with teacher-student relationships and student achievement through the lens of LMX. During interviews, teachers and students attributed much of the relationship development and performance to involvement in a CTSO. CTSO involvement could stand alone as a dimension of teacher-student relationships in CTE.

Further, we encourage an examination of teacher-student relationships outside the context of CTE. CTE students experience coursework and learn skills that are applicable in the workforce beyond high school through an experiential approach (Stone & Alfeld, 2004).
Because of the nature of teacher-student interaction required in CTE courses, teacher-student relationships may develop in a different manner, given the increased frequency of one-on-one coaching and feedback required in CTE classes. CTE naturally lends itself to a more student-centered, authentic approach to instruction (Newman & Wehlage, 1995), whereas other secondary education coursework may not. As teacher-student exchanges may manifest differently outside the context of CTE, dyadic relationship development in non-CTE classes is necessary to advance an understanding of the phenomenon.

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Lessons that Last: LeaderShape Institute Participants' Durable Gains in Leadership Capacity

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Abstract

At a six-day leadership program, LeaderShape, 1,279 students at 21 institutions completed a pre-test, post-test, and delayed follow-up test of their leadership skills, confidence, motivation to lead, and motivation to advocate for social issues. Results show gains in some areas and certain students make more significant, durable gains than others.

An estimated $60 Billion (U.S.) is spent annually just in the United States on leadership development programs (Zenger, 2012) and is growing (O'Leonard, 2014). Similar increases in the number of programs and students they serve can be seen on college campuses (Owen, 2012). Meanwhile, confidence in current and future leaders in the United States has never been lower (Rosenthal, 2012), while others draw similar conclusions on a global scale (Kellerman, 2012). The need for high-quality leadership development programs, and the assessment efforts that can be used to validate their success, is significant. Our research was designed to rigorously assess the long-term effects of participating in a popular international co-curricular leadership development program for college students – the LeaderShape Institute.

Theoretical Model of Leadership Effectiveness

Many university-based leadership development programs in the United States espouse a model of leadership capacity that could be described as "post-industrial" in nature (Rost, 1993). In this framework, leaders possess ethical values, work in collaborative ways with teammates, align others around a common purpose, and engage in socially responsible actions and strategies. A recent study showed that over 80% of co-curricular leadership programs utilize models with these foundations (Owen, 2012). In our research, we utilized a tripartite model of leadership capacity (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014) that begins with such post-industrial leadership skills and also includes measures of the confidence emerging leaders have in their actions, as well as the motivation they report to engage in leadership behaviors. As emerging leaders develop capacity within each of these competencies – skills, confidence, and motivation – each competency helps reinforce the others. For example, with increasing skill being brought to bear, confidence in utilizing these skills often increases. Inversely, the lack of one competency can hinder the others. When emerging leaders lack the motivation to engage in the work of leadership, their skills and confidence may not be activated.

This study focused on examining students' gains in their leadership capacity within the context of the model described above. The measurement of these and related gains has been problematic in the past (Uleman, 1991), while the effectiveness of current efforts that assess cross-sequential reports of single participant responses remains to be seen (Bowman, 2011). An increasing number of leadership educators (Posner, 2009) are beginning to call for the assessment of programs that are more longitudinal in nature, and that examine participant growth both within

programs and after they have had the opportunity to implement learning within their own practice.

Research Questions

Our research focused on university students' gains in broad-based leadership capacity that lasted beyond the end of the programmatic intervention. We were interested primarily in the gains in skill, confidence, and motivation to lead. Secondarily, we were interested in how university students with different social identities and leadership experiences may have differed in their gains. To these ends, our specific research questions were:

1. To what extent is a six-day immersion experience, the LeaderShape Institute, associated with long-term gains in leadership skill, confidence, and motivation to lead?
2. To what extent do differences exist in incoming levels of and long-term gains in leadership capacity by gender, race, class status, and prior leadership experience?

Methods

Population and Sample

The LeaderShape Institute is a six-day immersion retreat designed for university students to develop transformational and ethical leadership capacity. While the curriculum is designed and coordinated by LeaderShape, Inc., a not-for-profit private organization, over 100 university campuses in the United States and a small number in Canada, Mexico, and the Middle East partner with the organization to host sessions for their registered students. In addition, LeaderShape, Inc. hosts Institute sessions during summer months that are open to any student from any university. Annually, over 4,000 students typically participate in a LeaderShape Institute session, most of whom are undergraduates.

An open call to institutions during the Fall semester of 2013 that host sessions yielded 21 universities interested in participating in this research study. These universities were diverse in terms of size, control, admissions selectivity, and faculty research output. In addition to these 21 campus-based sessions, data were gathered at four national sessions open to participants from any university and hosted directly by LeaderShape, Inc.

The sessions are hosted at disparate retreat centers. At the beginning of the session, participants were asked to complete the paper-based version of the survey before the session began. From these, a total of 1,333 participated in the pre-test data collection, representing over 90% of all registered students at these sessions. At the end of the six-day session and before participants departed the location they were asked to again complete the paper-based version of the survey. Of the pre-test participants, 1,279 (96%) also participated in the post-test wave of data collection. The pre-test survey included additional demographic and background experience questions not included on the post-test version. Finally, approximately three months after the session, participants were contacted via email and invited to participate in an online follow-up survey. Of the pre-test participants this follow-up survey had 343 (26%) participants.

Concerned about potential bias introduced through self-selection in survey participation, we conducted extensive analysis of the participation rates in the post-test and the follow-up test. For the post-test, we employed logistic regression to estimate participation as predicted by pre- test responses, first using univariate regression and then multi-variate regression. These tested participant self-reported social identities, prior leadership training and experience levels, and responses to the eight pre-test psychometric constructs. No differences were identified between post-test participants and post-test non-participants on any of these measures. Of greater concern was the substantively lower response rate to the three-month follow-up survey invitation. We estimated the same logistic regressions to predict participation from the pre-test responses, and additionally included in the analysis the participants' changes between pre-test and post-test scores on the eight pre-test psychometric constructs—effectively estimating whether pre-test-to-post-test changes predicted follow-up test participation. Of these 32 coefficients estimated, only one variable predicted follow-up survey participation. Participants who reported higher non-calculative motivation to lead scores on the pre-test were slightly more likely to participate in the follow-up test ($t=4.10$, $p<.001$), suggesting that of all measured psychometric constructs, only participants who report leading without regard to their own personal gain would also be more likely to respond to an online survey invitation. With this singular qualification, we proceeded with confidence that the participants in the follow-up test had no statistically significant differences from non-participants in the follow-up test.

In the pre-test, participants were asked to respond to questions regarding their social identities. With regard to gender, 58% identified as female, 32% as men, 1% reported a transgender identity, and 9% did not report. Approximately 48% of participants identified as Caucasian, 17% as African-American, 12% as Asian-American, 6% as Latino/a, 5% as multi- racial, 1% as Middle Eastern, and 11% did not report their racial identity. Freshmen comprised 27% of our sample, sophomores comprised 29%, juniors 25%, seniors 8%, and graduate students 2%, while 9% did not report a class standing. Lastly, 7% of the overall sample identified as an international student.

Also in the pre-test, participants were asked about their prior levels of leadership training and leadership roles. Approximately 26% had "never" received prior leadership training; 13% had "once;" 27% had "sometimes;" 17% had "often;" 8% had "almost always;" while 9% did not respond when asked about their prior leadership training.

Instrumentation

Our study was designed to measure broad-based leadership capacity through assessing growth in students' post-industrial leadership skills, confidence in leading, and motivation to engage in leadership behaviors. To answer our research questions we assessed student leadership capacity using three different scales with a total of eight sub-scales. This approach enabled us to address research question one and its focus on gains in leadership skill, confidence, and motivation to lead.

Leadership Skill. We measured leadership skill through three sub-scales: The Leader Behavior Scale (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), a popular and non- copyrighted 28-item instrument includes two sub-scales respectively focused on transformational and transactional leadership. A sample item for transformational behavior was, "I help other group

members develop a team attitude and spirit among ourselves." A sample item for transactional leadership was, "I always give positive feedback when other group members perform well." Item responses have a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." We chose the LBS due to its use, for many years, as a broad measure of transformational leadership unassociated with the narrower Full-range Transformational Leadership Model and its respective Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The LBS has been in use for over 20 years as a psychometric tool (Yukl, 2010) in both business and education settings, with Cronbach reliabilities ranging from .71 to .89 (Yukl, 2010).
We also utilized the Ethical Leadership Scale, a 10-item measure designed to measure the degree to which participants incorporate ethical behavior into their leadership values and planned behaviors (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). The ELS is correlated with the Idealized Influence scale within the popular Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997), measuring aspects of transformational leadership. However, as ethical behavior and transformational leadership theoretical are related but distinct concepts (Bass, 1998), confirmatory factor analysis shows that the ELS measures a distinct leadership capacity but is related to transformational leadership (Brown, et al.) Moreover, initial psychometric examination of the ELS showed no significant relationship with social desirability measures or social identity demographic factors (Brown, et al).

Leadership Confidence. To assess students' confidence in leading, we utilized the Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL) scale, an 8-item measure of a person's confidence in engaging in leadership behaviors (Murphy, 1992). The SEL has been in use for 20 years in professional and educational environments and, like the LBS, has undergone extensive psychometric examination (Hoyt, 2005). A sample item is, "I know how to encourage good group performance." Item responses have a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Research has shown that internal reliability is good, i.e., above .76 (Murphy & Ensher, 1999), and the scale has been shown to possess convergent and discriminant validity when used with measures of self-esteem and leadership experiences (Hoyt, 2005).

Leadership Motivation. Motivation to engage in leadership behaviors was measured using the Motivation to Lead (MTL) scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), a 27-item measure equally divided across measures of affective-identity (AI), non-calculative (NC), and social-normative (SN) motivations to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The MTL assesses the degree to which people feel "called" to lead as well as the pressure they feel and energy they possess to engage in leadership behaviors. The AI scale concerns the degree to which an individual is personally drawn to leadership roles and includes items such as, "Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group." The NC scale concerns the degree to which a person avoids rationally calculating the individual costs and benefits of holding a leadership position and includes items such as, "I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group." The SN scale is used to determine the degree to which a person leads due to a sense of duty or responsibility to others and includes items such as, "People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them." Responses use a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The scale has been used primarily in professional and public organizations and has alpha reliabilities ranging from a low of .65 for the NC scale to a high of .91 for the AI scale. The MTL has recently been extended to the field of higher education as a tool to measure student leadership development (Rosch, 2014).

Social Issues Advocacy. Due to the LeaderShape curriculum focus, in part, on the application of social justice behaviors, we also included an adapted version of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS; Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misialek, 2011), recently designed to assess a person's motivation to publicly advocate for social issues considered both socially just and important to the person completing the measure. The original scale was developed by its authors to also measure aspects of political advocacy (i.e. motivation to vote, lobby, or campaign for people or political issues); these items were not included in the current study. Language within each item was also adapted for an educational environment, where phrases such as "I am professionally responsible to…" were changed to "I am personally responsible to…" Sample items within the SIAS include, "I am personally responsible to confront friends and colleagues who display signs of discrimination," and "I use social media to advocate for social issues that are important to me." While the scale has been in use for less time than the others, and therefore possesses fewer psychometric markers of strength, the original research conducted to create and validate the scale indicates an acceptable degree of convergent validity with measures of multicultural empathy, as well as discrimant validity when measured with items on self-esteem and life satisfaction.

Data Collection

Participants were assessed in three waves of data collection. A pre-test was completed in person prior to any participation at the LeaderShape Institute, often at an orientation session weeks prior to the session, but in some cases immediately prior to the session beginning. A post- test was administered immediately at the conclusion of the session, often in person and before students departed from the retreat center but after all curriculum had been delivered. Three months after their LeaderShape Institute session participants were invited via email to complete a follow-up test through an online survey via Qualtrics survey software.

Data Analysis

The bulk of our initial analysis has consisted of a series of matched-sample t-tests that compared students' pre-test scores with their post-test scores and their follow-up test scores. Participant responses to questions on prior leadership training and leadership roles were categorized into high or low groups, based on their response to the 1-5 scales. These groups were constructed by responses above or below the sample's median score, respectively, while excluding responses in the median score. This created two distinct groups separated with a two- step gap on the scale for further analysis.

Effects Coding.

To examine differences in participants with regard to their categorical social identities (gender, race, sexual orientation, and class year), we utilized effects coding (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2011) to examine each category relative to other participants. Traditional quantitative practices involve either reducing a categorical variable down to an indicator variable or choosing a reference group to exclude. Both practices privilege one group over the other groups for analytical and non-theoretical reasons. This results in interpretations, for example, of racial demographic variables

such as “white versus non-white” or “when compared to white participants.” To avoid this false dichotomy, we employed effects coding. A relatively new technique in educational research (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2011), effects coding eliminates the need for a reference group with categorical variables. Instead, all groups are reported in the results and their coefficients are interpreted as a comparison to other members in the sample.

This technique estimates statistics for every sub-group and therefore enables interpretation of every sub-group. In this study, the categorical variables with regression estimates calculated using effects coding were: race (eight groups: African-American, Asian-American, Caucasian, Hispanic, Middle Eastern, Native American, multi-racial, and no response), gender (four groups: male, female, trans, and no response), and sexual orientation (five groups: straight, gay/lesbian/bisexual, rather not say, questioning, no response).

Results Aggregated Gains in Leadership Capacity

The means and dispersion statistics for each of the leadership scales are displayed within Table 1, while differences between pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test scores are also shown. Difference statistics listed under follow-up test columns denote a t-test utilizing these and their respective pre-test scores.

Overall, immediately after their session concluded, participants reported increases in all of their leadership capacities other than their Affective Identity motivation to lead. Several months later, students’ scores remained elevated in regards to their transformational, transactional, and ethical leadership skill, their leadership self-efficacy, and the commitment to advocate for social issues. While their Social Normative motivation to lead scores showed a significant increase after their session, these scores fell below incoming levels when measured several months later.

Leadership Skill. Measured through three scales—transformational skills, transactional skills, and ethical behavior—participants reported statistically significant higher scores on all three scales in the post-test when compared to their pre-test. Transformational leadership scale increased from a pre-test mean of 3.98 to a post-test mean of 4.29, a substantive increase ($t=21.48$, $p<.001$). Scores on the transactional leadership scale increased from 4.20 on the pre-test to 4.40 on the post-test, a statistically significant ($t=9.34$, $p<.001$). The ethical leadership scale scores moved from 4.12 to 4.35, a substantial increase ($t=14.86$, $p<.001$).

These gains persisted into the follow-up test on transformational skills and ethical behavior, but not significantly for transactional skills. The transformational scale scores remained elevated three months after the experience, going from the pretest mean of 3.98 to the follow-up test mean of 4.13 ($t=6.14$, $p<.001$). The ethical behavior scores also remained higher, from 4.12 pretest mean to 4.34 in the follow-up test ($t=8.69$, $p<.001$). The transactional scores were still higher from the pre-test in the follow-up test. But they were no longer statistically different from the pre-test scores. This partially relates to the greater standard deviation in the transactional scores than the standard deviations of either the transformational skills scale or the ethical behavior scale.

Leadership Confidence. Using Murphy’s Self-Efficacy for Leadership scale, we assessed students confidence in their own abilities to lead effectively. In the pre-test, the mean score for

the scale was 3.89. This increased substantially, and statistically significantly, in the post-test scores to 4.27 (t=20.14, p<.001). Three months after the program, the students reported lasting gains in their self confidence to lead. In the follow-up test the scale's mean remained elevated at 4.04, and statistically significant (t=4.09, p<.001).

Leadership Motivation. To examine participants' motivation to lead, we measured this on three subscales: Affective Identity, Social Normative, and Non-Calculative as discussed earlier. These saw fewer statistically significant changes than the measures previously discussed. For Affective Identity, there were no statistically significant shifts in the mean scores of participants between the pre-test, post-test, or follow-up test. We tested for both directions, so while scores did not appreciably increase, they also did not decrease significantly.

For the Social Normative subscale, all participants' pre-test mean score was 3.71. This increased to 3.78 (t=4.21, p<.001) in the post-test. Importantly, in the follow-up test the mean score shifted in the opposite direction by nearly the same magnitude to 3.57 (t=-4.82, t<.001) and the standard deviations across all three tests were consist (0.43, 0.49, and 0.46 respectively).The mean score for the Non-Calculative subscale was 3.71 and increased considerably in the post-test to 4.24 (t=14.42, p<.001). However in the follow-up test the mean score was no longer statistically significant at 3.99 (t=1.27, p<.001).

Social Issue Advocacy. We used a newer instrument to examine participants' motivation to speak out publicly for socially just issues. In the pre-test survey participants' responses had a mean score of 3.98, which increased remarkably in the post-test to 4.15 (t=17.58, p<.001). This remained elevated and statistically significant in the follow-up test at 4.00 (t=6.16, p<.001).

Table 1

Leadership Scales Descriptive and Difference Statistics

	Pre μ (σ)	Post μ (σ)	t	p	Follow-up μ (σ)	t	p
Transfrm Ldshp	3.98 (.36)	4.29 (.38)	21.48	<.001	4.13 (.42)	6.14	<.001
Transact Ldshp	4.20 (.50)	4.40 (.54)	9.34	<.001	4.28 (.55)	2.25	.030
Ethical Ldshp	4.12 (.38)	4.35 (.40)	14.86	<.001	4.34 (.41)	8.69	<.001
Self-Efficacy	3.89 (.50)	4.27 (.45)	20.14	<.001	4.04 (.61)	4.09	<.001
Motivation: Affective-Identity	3.55 (.61)	3.58 (.62)	1.46	.140	3.48 (.63)	-1.86	.060
Motivation: Social Norm.	3.71 (.43)	3.78 (.49)	4.21	<.001	3.57 (.46)	-4.82	<.001
Motivation: Non-Calculative	3.71 (.43)	4.24 (.55)	14.42	<.001	3.99 (.64)	1.27	.200

Social Issue Advocacy	3.98 (.51)	4.15 (.52)	17.58	<.001	4.00 (.54)	6.16	<.001

Disaggregated Gains in Leadership Capacity

Further, beyond the changes across the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up tests of all participants, we also examined differential gains with regard to each measure of leadership between men and women, and across racial categorizations, class standing, and degree of prior leadership experience. Here we highlight emergent significant results within each grouped analysis.

Gender. Prior to participating in the LeaderShape Institute, women reported lower degrees of transformational leadership skill and confidence compared to men ($t=4.21$, $p<.001$). By the conclusion of the Institute, while both women and men reported significant gains (women: $t=16.84$, $p<001$; men: $t=10.85$, $p<.001$), women displayed even higher scores than men ($t=2.68$, $p<.01$). Several months later, both groups' scores remain elevated, while the disparity in scores disappeared.

Race. Prior to participating in the LeaderShape Institute, students reported significant differences by race in their motivation to advocate for issues of social responsibility and justice. African-American ($t=2.43$, $p<.01$) and Asian-American students ($t=2.85$, $p<.001$) reported slightly higher levels of motivation compared to all other participants on the pre-test. However, these gaps disappeared by the conclusion of the program, and remained non-existent several months later. However, students identifying as Caucasian were the only racial group to report elevated levels of social issues advocacy motivation months later.

Class Standing. No differences existed in students' confidence in leading peers when compared by class standing prior to participating in the LeaderShape Institute. While all class years reported significant gains immediately after the program, only freshmen and seniors' gains persisted after several months (freshmen: $t=3.23$, $p<.01$; seniors: $t=2.98$, $p<.01$). Moreover, when compared to other class years, freshmen were the only class that reported durable gains (seen several months later) in non-calculative motivation to lead ($t=2.35$, $p<.05$) and transactional leadership skill ($t=2.31$, $p<.05$).

Prior Leadership Experience. While all groupings of students, reported significant gains in their confidence in leading others upon conclusion of the Institute, these gains lasted only for students who reported low degrees of experience or no experience in leading others prior to participating ($t=4.22$, $p<.001$). Similarly, while all groupings of students gain in transformational skill after participating, students who reported a low degree of prior experience in leadership training events or courses report larger gains three months later than those with more experience ($t=4.55$, $p<.001$ vs $t=2.21$, $p<.05$). Even in areas where, in the aggregate, students did not make significant gains (such as in their affective identity motivation to lead, for example), the gap between students who entered with a high degree of prior leadership experience and those reporting an initial low degree of experience disappeared three months after their Institute experience.

Discussion

This research study was designed to examine the lasting gains in broad-based leadership capacity within students after participating in a six-day leadership immersion program. Our results showed that students made gains in their skills, confidence, and motivation to lead and that these gains largely lasted at least three months beyond participating in the program. The most substantial gains observed were in the areas of transformational leadership and ethical leadership skill, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to advocate for issues related to social justice.
In leadership skill, the results showed that the program had a substantial impact on participants, and this impact persisted through the follow-up test for two of the three scales measured: transformational leadership and ethical leadership. In the follow-up test the transactional leadership scale returned to slightly above the pre-test levels used as a baseline.

We observed substantial increased in participants' confidence as well. This was much higher in the post-test, and continued to remain elevated in the follow-up test three months later. This is evidence that the program contributed to participants' self efficacy in meaningful and lasting ways.

For the measures of leadership motivation, we observed more varied results. We measured Motivation to Lead on the subscales of Affective Identity, Social Normative, and Non-Calculative. Scores increased from the pre-test to the post-test in all three subscales, but only significantly so in Social Normative and Non-Calculative. The Affective-Identity scores did not move significantly from the pre-test in either the post-test or the follow-up test. This lack of movement indicates that the program does not shift participants' motivation to lead based on their self-identity as a leader. Further, none of the subscales' follow-up scores showed significant increases. The marked decrease observed in scores on the Social Normative subscale from the pre-test to the follow-up test stands out even more. It indicates that participants motivation to lead based on others' expectations goes down considerably three months later.

Across all the scales measured, three stood out with out-sized gains in both the post-test and lasting through the follow-up test, exceeding even self efficacy gains. Measurements of self efficacy increased remarkably in the post-test, which was anticipated because participants are concluding a week-long intense, positive experience. But returned much closer to the pre-test levels in the follow-up test. However, responses to the scales of Transformative Leadership, Ethical Leadership, and Social Issue Advocacy all spiked much higher from the pre-test to the post-test and continued to remain high, and elevated above other scales' changes, in the follow-up test responses. These are noteworthy because it is evidence that participants are gaining and retaining growth in these areas at levels that are comparable to their more visible gains in confidence.

Disaggregated Results Discussion.

Disaggregating results by gender, race, class standing, and prior leadership experience resulted in differences in gains within and across these groupings. Broadly speaking, groups of students with lower incoming capacity made gains after participating within the program, and several months later, displayed levels of leadership capacity equal to students who entered the program at higher levels.

Briefly, examining class year and leadership experience, we observed important differences in a three categories. The reported gains in leadership self efficacy were persistent three months later only for freshmen and seniors. Freshmen also were the only class year to report significantly elevated gains when compared to other class years in non-calculative motivation to lead and in transactional leadership. Participants reporting low prior leadership experience also reported high gains in leadership self efficacy. But the differences in prior leadership experience did not correlate with any other differences in scores three months later. The LeaderShape Institute has largely similar effects, regardless of the prior leadership experience level of the participant.

We observed that women entered the program reporting lower scores on transformational leadership and on self efficacy when compared to men entering the program. However women reported higher scores in the post-test higher than men—but no differences between genders in the follow-up scores. While one could interpret this as women gaining more from the program, one may also interpret this as the program more simply affirming skills that were under-reported

in the pre-test and the follow-up test demonstrating the parity three months later. The differences we observed among racial groups were on responses on the Social Issue Advocacy Scale. Several racial groups had few participants identify with them, and due to the post-hoc analytical techniques used, we only detected effect sizes that were large. In the pre-test scores on the SIAS, both African-American participants and Asian-American participants reported higher motivation to advocate for social issues as compared to all other participants.

This gap disappeared in the post-test and in the follow-up test, with no significant differences between racial groups. Durable changes over time, from the pre-test to the follow-up test, were detected with Caucasian participants as having significantly higher motivation to advocate for social issues three months after the experience than before it started. Collectively, these results demonstrate that many participants of color enter with higher motivation to advocate for social issues and that remains unchanged over time. What did change over time was the substantial increase in Caucasian participants motivation to advocate for social issues.

Collectively, these disaggregated results show positive outcomes for the LeaderShape Institute's key focus on social justice issues. The gains reported by women in confidence to lead demonstrate a contribution to these participants self efficacy in identifying as leaders. These results also show that Caucasian students increase substantially in their motivation to advocate for social issues and remain motivated three months later. These positive effects indicate that the LeaderShape Institute's key focus is indeed making a positive difference in participants' approaches to leadership.

Implications

Taken together, these aggregated and disaggregated results suggest that students experience developmental opportunities differently based on their incoming capacities, and these results imply the need for leadership educators to consider providing differential experiences for students at different levels of incoming capacity, or for different types of students. Owen (2012) reports that many co-curricular programs are still developing their resources and structure; these programs might be in an opportune level in their own development to consider differential structures.

In addition, our results showed several differences in students' scores when measured immediately after the program compared to several months later. This implies the need for more time-sensitive assessment practice among leadership educators, as a post-program evaluation process may neglect to show key aspects of leadership development. At the end of many leadership development experiences participants have a clear recognition of what they gained. But if the goal is long-term growth in students' leadership capacities then we would do well to measure the outcomes in long-term timeframes.

Further Research

Next in our research is to examine how these key leadership capacities interact during the developmental process for students. This includes understanding the pathways through which students progress through on their way to strengthening their leadership skills, confidence, and

motivation. The research reported here indicates that students do not pass through linearly or evenly through their development of leadership capacity. Nevertheless, the data reported here can further help us understand these pathways.
From this research we saw key differences in students' scores reported in the immediate post-test survey as compared to the three-month follow-up survey. But further research is needed to determine whether the follow-up survey measured scores indicative of permanent changes in leadership capacity or whether the scores are continuing to fluctuate beyond three months. A more long-term survey would deepen our understanding of lasting effects from leadership development programs.

Lastly, while our research was national and representative in scope related to participants, it only examined one leadership development curriculum. As evidenced in this study with differing results in the post-test and follow-up test the duration of a program is a key factor.
Further research focused on other workshops, courses, and conferences is necessary for a more complete picture of the student leadership developmental process.

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Self-Perceived Leadership Competencies among Agricultural Sales Students

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Abstract

As a process, leadership skills can be cultivated within the classroom over the course of a semester. Leadership skill development can be reinforced without any direct approach and hence be a bi-product of a course whose main focus in not leadership. This study was designed to evaluate students enrolled in an agricultural sales course offered at [State] university to determine if the course content (sales) influenced their leadership skills as related to the profession of agricultural sales. Leadership is a process that builds overtime. As a process, leadership skills can be cultivated within the classroom over the course of a semester. Through a series of personality and leadership assessments, findings resulted in students being both high task and high relationship oriented, a slight shift from introversion to extroversion and concluded in a top five characteristics of students' strengths. Data was also analyzed to gather the demographics of students.

Introduction

Over the past decade, the term "leader" has become a buzzword. Previous studies have been conducted to differentiate the terms leader, manager, and follower (Zaleznik, 1977; Daft, 2010; Kotter, 1998). The term leader is so popular that when entered in a Google search, the search engine yields 947,000,000 results in 0.82 seconds (personal search, 2015). Similarly, the term "leadership" fosters 491,000,000 results in 0.49 seconds (personal search, 2015). While both terms are immensely popular and used throughout society and pop culture, there is not a set definition for either term.

It is agreed upon in literature there is no clear and distinct definition of leadership (Haber & Komives, 2009; Huber, 2002; Ricketts & Bruce, 2008; Nahavandi, 2006) Nahavandi (2015), discusses the complexity of leadership and the variety of leadership effectiveness and how it is not a formula for "one size fits all." In fact, Riggo (2013) claims the majority of knowledge about leaders and leadership is wide spread. "There is a generally held belief that knowledge about leadership is 'all over the place'" (Riggo, 2013, p. 10). However, the term leadership is familiar to most and the majority of society can concoct a working definition based on his or her perspective and personal context (Huber, 2002).

In the discipline of leadership education, most practitioners refer to Northouse's definition of leadership, which defines the phenomenon as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 5). This definition outlines four specific components of leadership: leadership is a process, involves influencing others, leadership happens among a group of people, and involves the ability to set and achieve group goals (Northouse, 2013). The concept of leadership being a process is a key aspect of the definition. Defining leadership as a process means leadership is a phenomenon that occurs between a leader and the followers. Furthermore, the term process implies the relationship is continually moving

and therefore, leadership is not stagnant. Defining leadership as a process allows multiple individual the opportunity to become a leader based on education, experience, or situation (Daft, 2010). Therefore, leadership is available to everyone and not just to those born with specific traits or characteristics (Northouse, 2013).

Purpose

Studies show the importance of leadership being explored early in education rather than waiting for those skills and traits to develop over time with ones career (Nahavandi, 2006). "The development of leadership skills is a process, not an event" (Fritz, Williams & Barbuto, 2003, p. 4). This study is designed to evaluate students enrolled in the fall 2014 AGEC 3323: Agricultural Production Marketing and Sales course offered at [State] University. This study analyzes students 'self-perceived leadership competencies to determine if the course content impacted students' leadership competencies over the course of the semester.

The research objectives that guided this study were as follows:

1. Determine demographics of students.
2. Determine incoming leadership competencies of agricultural sales students.
3. Determine leadership competencies of agricultural sales students upon completion of course.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Leadership Traits

Early leadership studies focused on leaders with a specific set of defined traits. These so called *Great Man Theories* advocated that leaders are individuals born with specific traits that yield themselves towards being a natural born leader (Stogdill, 1948). A trait is defined as an innate characteristic an individual is born with (Northouse, 2013). Therefore, traits are inherited or ingrained in an individual's DNA. Traits are not learned and are characteristics an individual might or might not possess. Many studies have been conducted to determine a defined list of traits inherent in effective leaders. While there is not a defined single formula for leadership, researchers have discovered five traits present in most effective leaders. These traits could include, but are not limited to, intelligence, charisma (self-confidence), determination, integrity, and socialbility (Northouse, 2013; Stogdill, 1948, Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1974; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004).

An individual's traits formulate an individual's distinctive character or personality. Murphy and Davies (2006) conducted a breakoff study of the Trait Approach by utilizing the Five Factor Model created by Vinchur, Shippmann, Switzer, and Roth in 1998. This purpose of the study was to determine traits needed for success in the profession of sales. The Five Factor Model is comprised of "five broad factors (dimensions) of personality traits" (Srivastava, 2014). The five dimensions are extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Each dimension of these five dimensions is further detailed with specific traits that collectively formulate the overall dimension. For example, the term extraversion refers to traits such as sociable, energetic, openness, and imaginative. The Five Factor Model is measured

through 44-item Likert-scale assessment (John & Srivastava, 1999). This study concluded an individual who is deemed a successful sales person would be "capable and driven towards established goals, but is capable of handling stressors, such as frequent sales 'no's', and gets along well with others" (p. 18). Furthermore, the study advocated for future research to be conducted to find single factor measurements to determine links between job performance and personality (Murphy & Davies, 2006).

Leadership Skills

An individual's skills are defined as characteristics that have been acquired overtime from education and environmental influences (Northouse, 2013). Therefore, skills are learned through situational experiences and educational opportunities. Katz (1955) conducted research to determine the different types of skills possessed by individuals in leadership positions. The end result of the research was the development of the Three Skills Approach Model. This model contends "effective leadership depends on three basic personal skills: technical, human, and conceptual" (Northouse, 2013, p. 71). The term technical skills refer to an individual's ability to use specific methods and techniques to complete a task. The ability of an individual to relate well to others and react to social cues are referred to as human skills. Finally, conceptual skills are needed at the highest level of leadership as they are associated with creating a vision, developing a strategic plan, and setting obtainable goals (Nahavandi, 2015). Furthermore, the skills approach accounts for environmental influences. Therefore in the skills approach, the effectiveness of the leader depends not only on his or her skill set but also on situation the leader is placed in (Nahavandi, 2015).

Leadership and Career Preparation

Today's universities have a common goal – to prepare students to successfully enter the workforce, and individuals with leadership skills and traits are the ones desired by employeers (Ricketts & Bruce, 2008; Graham, 2011; Morgan, King, Rudd, Kaufman, 2013). This means educators should reinforce leadership concepts and competencies to educate students to be leaders in their homes and communities (Holzweiss, Parrott, & Cole, 2013). In a higher education setting, these goals are strategically achieved through formal education including courses in leadership, communications, and ethical theory, as well as experiential learning including internships, study abroad programs, and leadership positions held within student organizations. While leadership education can be deliberate, the majority of students are informally exposed to leadership competencies through courses where leadership is not the focus. Therefore, the curriculum in these courses reinforces key leadership competencies while students may not be aware of the impact it will have until later in their careers (Giroux & Penna, 1979).

With the current generation of college students, leadership is a key term used more heavily than it has been in years past. "The best way to describe the current status of leadership studies is as an 'emerging disciple'" (Riggo, 2013, p. 10). The study of leadership has received a stronger recognition in education in recent years, and while it is not always a specific course taken, students are engaging in informal leadership education in a variety of classes in many disciplines. Informal education is not intentional education, but is taught through day-to-day life

experiences, informal education through leadership can come through personal experiences with leadership roles (Etling, 1993).
For the purpose of this study, instruments utilized were: two assessments found in Northouse's, *Leadership Theory and Practice* and the Clifton's StrengthsFinder assessment. These assessments were chosen based on convince to be disseminated to the population, but also because of their nature. The Psychodynamic Approach was used to evaluate introversion and extroversion, which has been looked at in the workforce through many different studies, such as a study explored by Linnehan and Blau in 1998 working with incoming, young professionals; and then through a second study by Vincent and Ross in 2001 to evaluate how employees are energized throughout their daily tasks. The Task vs. Relationship Orientation is used to better understand employees and their interworkings with one another, especially through conflict, as found in a 2002 study through the University of Iowa (Bono, Boles, Judge & Lauver), which outlines the factors that contribute to being task or relationship oriented and how those factors effect ones personality. Finally, research shows the importance of knowing ones self, through understanding your strengths (Jackson, 2011).

Methodology

To conduct this study, evaluative research methods were used to compare the change and relationship between leadership and personality characteristics of students in an agribusiness sales course at [State] University. Data was collected though a pretest-posttest, quassi-experimental research design and also through a basic demographic survey. Experimental research is deemed a credible approach to understand the effect of the intervention, in this case, the curriculum taught between pretest dissemination and posttest dissemination (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The pretest-posttest technique was chosen for both the convenience of dissemination and validity of results. The pretest-posttest design is a vastly used technique and can be seen in many educational research studies (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). There are some limitations with this design, as with a traditional pretest-posttest as students may over-compensate for the knowledge they have or the personality they best associate with before having a solid foundation of content and being able to appropriately evaluate themselves (Klatt & Taylor-Powell, 2005). Other limitations include the environment of the participant both personally and physically at the time of survey dissemination (Campbell & Stanley, 1996). Because there are no comparison groups or control groups, there is no evidence that outside factors that fall between the pretest and posttest disseminations could be the cause of the change, if any, during the time of intervention (McMillan & Schumaker, 2010).

This study used a set of instruments. The data collection instrumentation utilized for this study were two assessments found Northouse, *Leadership Theory and Practice*, the Clifton's StrengthsFinder assessment, and a demographic questionnaire. The Psychodynamic Approach survey from Northouse was to evaluate introversion and extroversion of the participants. This approach was founded in the studies and findings from Berne's Transactional Analysis (1961), Frued's research of personality types (1938), and most significantly Jung's study of personality types, creating 16 possible combinations of four dimensions of personality (1923 and 1993) (Northouse, 2013, p. 319-348). The Task vs. Relationship assessment was validated through studies related to the Style Approach. These studies included Stogdill's research at The Ohio State University in 1948, the University of Michigan also in the 1940's, and most recently, Blake

and Mouton's Managerial Approach in 1964. Clifton's (1999) StrengthsFinder was "developed through rational and empirical processes" and "has been repeatedly subjected to psychometric examination" (Asplund, Lopez, Hodges & Hartner, 2009, p. 2). A panel of experts reviewed and evaluated the demographic survey to ensure validity and reliability.

The population (N = 116) of this study consisted of students enrolled in the fall 2014 undergraduate [State] University Agribusiness Sales course, ACEG 3323: Agricultural Production Marketing and Sales. Of the total population, 97 students completed the pretest and posttest, four-part assessment packets (n = 97), making the response rate 83.62%. The sample

was selected from a convenience standpoint as all participants of the sample population were enrolled students in the course (McCormick, Dooley, Linder, & Cummins, 2007).

Because of the nature of the pretest-posttest design, assessments were given during the first week of classes for the 2014 semester before any content of the course was delivered, and at the end of the same semester once all material from the course was taught. For the pretest, students were given a packet containing a consent form, the demographic survey, the Psychodynamic Approach assessment, the Task vs. Relationship assessment, and finally a handout with the 34 Clifton's StrengthsFinder characteristics. Students filled out the packets pertaining to the directions carefully provided on each page. At the end of the semester, students came into class with their scores from the Clifton's StrengthsFinder assessment, which was taken on their own time through a provided link. Students then received a packet, similar to the one provided at the beginning of the semester with the same consent form, demographic survey, Psychodynamic Approach assessment, and Task vs. Relationship assessment.

For the purpose of this study, descriptive statistics were analyzed through frequencies and percentages to assess the relationship between pretest and posttest scores.

Results

There were a total of 116 undergraduate students enrolled in the fall 2014 undergraduate [State] University Agribusiness Sales course, ACEG 3323: Agricultural Production Marketing and Sales. Of the total enrolled, 115 completed the pretest, yet only 108 of the pretests were usable upon evaluation. There was only one factor that eliminated the other seven pretests; the directions for the Clifton's StrengthsFinder Assessment were misunderstood by students. A total of 110 returned posttests were returned. Of those posttests, only 97 were usable. Factors that contributed to the loss of 13 posttests include; students misunderstanding the directions, not completing the Clifton's StrengthsFinder Assessment through the provided link, and also not being able to match up pretest and posttest respondents. Therefore, the data analyzed was collected from the 97 matching pretest and posttest respondents.

From the data collected, demographics were evaluated for the 97 completed packets; results of career path and relationship between sales and leadership questions were analyzed from both pretest and posttest and compared accordingly. Analyses were made through comparing the pretest and posttest scores of the Task vs. Relationship assessment and the Psychodynamic Approach assessment. Results were also compared between students' self-perceived Clifton's StrengthsFinder assessment and the posttest results.

It is shown in Table 1, of the students surveyed, it was an even mix of males and females in the course. Students were primarily of junior status and enrolled in the college of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources. There was shown to be a mixture or majors within the Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources College, mostly falling between Agricultural Business and Animal Science. Students come from a variety of hometowns, with the majority of them growing up on a farm in a rural area.

Table 1
Frequency of Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Characteristic	***f***	***%***
Gender:		
Male Female	49	50.52
Classification in School: Freshman	48	49.48
Sophomore Junior Senior		
Graduate Student	0	0.00
Major:	23	23.71
Agricultural Business Agricultural Communication	54	55.67
Agricultural Economics Agricultural Education	20	20.62
Agricultural Leadership Animal Science	0	0.00
Plant and Soil Science Accounting		
Not Declared	39	40.21
College:	9	9.28
Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources Arts and	8	8.25
Sciences	3	3.09
Education	5	5.15
Engineering, Architecture, and Technology Human	29	29.90
Sciences	6	2.06
Spears School of Business	1	1.03
Center for Veterinary Health Sciences Graduate	1	1.03
College		
Honors College	96	98.97
Hometown Description:	0	0.00
Downtown area in a city or town Subdivision in a city	0	0.00
or town	0	0.00
Urban or suburban area outside of city limits Rural	0	0.00
area; not on a farm	1	1.03
Rural area; on a farm	0	0.00
	0	0.00
	0	0.00
	4	4.12
	8	8.25
	10	10.31
	7	7.22
	68	70.10

Table 2 shows a slight shift over the course of the academic semester in students' perception of being task or relationship oriented. After course completion, students shifted to be more highly task oriented and a slightly less relationship oriented. From the analysis, it can be seen that students often associate themselves with being highly task and relationship oriented.

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages of Students Who Perceive Themselves More Task or Relationship Oriented

Level of Orientation	**Pre-Test Task Oriented %**		**Post-Test Task Oriented %**		**Pre-Test Relationship Oriented %**		**Post-Test Relationship Oriented %**	
	f	**%**	***f***	**%**	***f***	**%**	***f***	**%**
Low	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	1.03
Moderately Low	5	5.15	4	4.12	4	4.12	6	6.19
Moderately High	48	49.48	32	32.99	44	45.36	43	44.43
High	44	45.36	61	62.89	49	50.52	47	48.45

Table 3 shows a large shift in student perception of introversion and extroversion over the course of the academic semester. Students became less introverted, however instead of siding completely with extroversion, students' shifted to ambivert, being a mixture of both introverted and extroverted.

Table 3
Frequencies and Percentages of Students Who Perceive Themselves More Introverted or Extroverted

Characteristic	**Pre-Test**		**Post-Test**	
	f	**%**	***f***	**%**
Introvert	35	36.08	27	27.84
Extrovert	61	62.89	59	60.82
Ambivert	1	1.03	11	11.34

Table 4 shows a large shift in student desire to seek a sales position upon graduation. Most students were undecided coming into the course, but after course completion and gaining informational construct, students were able to make a more sound decision of career path.

Table 4
Frequencies and Percentages of Students Plan to Seek a Sales Position Upon Graduation

	Pre-Test		**Post-Test**	
	f	**%**	***f***	**%**
Yes	35	36.08	39	40.21
No	17	17.53	29	29.90
Undecided	45	46.39	29	29.90

Table 5 shows the majority of students believe there is a connection between sales and leadership both on the pretest and posttest.

Table 5
Percentages of Students Who Find a Connection Between Sales and Leadership

	Pre-Test		**Post-Test**	
	f	**%**	***f***	**%**
Yes	95	97.94	92	94.85
No	2	2.06	5	5.15

According to Table 6, the top 5 most related characteristics from the students' perceived Strengths Finder assessment from the pretest survey were; Achiever, *48.45%* (n=47), Competition, *36.08%* (n=35), Responsibility, *32.99%* (n=32), Communication, *28.87%* (n=28), and Belief, *26.65%* (n=21).
Table 6
Frequencies of Students Self-Perceived Clifton's StrengthsFinder Assessment

Characteristic	**Ranked 1**	**Ranked 2**	**Ranked 3**	**Ranked 4**	**Ranked 5**	***f***
Achiever	24	6	5	5	7	47
Belief	5	3	6	3	4	21
Communication	4	7	8	6	3	28
Competition	8	9	7	6	3	35

Responsibility	8	3	12	5	4	32

According to Table 7, the top 5 most related characteristics from the Strengths Finder assessment from the posttest survey were; Belief, *47.42%* (n=46), Responsibility/Significance, *30.93%* (n=30), Responsibility/Significance, *30.93%* (n=30), Relator, *29.90%* (n=29), and Self-Assurance, *25.77%* (n=25).

Table 7
Frequencies of Students Post-Test Clifton's StrengthsFinder Assessment

Characteristic	**Ranked 1**	**Ranked 2**	**Ranked 3**	**Ranked 4**	**Ranked 5**	***f***
Belief	18	6	10	6	7	46
Relator	7	6	6	4	6	29
Responsibility	5	5	8	8	4	30
Self-Assurance	5	5	4	7	4	25
Significance	8	7	5	5	5	30

Conclusions

This study creates a brief profile of college students enrolled in an Agribusiness Sales Course to better understand their basic leadership and personality characteristics and strengths through various assessments and questionnaires. Students were asked to complete, for the pretest, a demographic survey, a Psychodynamic Approach assessment to measure introversion and extroversion, a Task vs. Relationship assessment, and finally a handout with the 34 Strengths Finder characteristics in which they self-assessed their top five characteristics. At the end of the semester, students were then given the same assessments and they also completed the Clifton's StrengthsFinder assessment which ranks all 34 characteristics in order based on the results from the extensive questionnaire completed online, only the top five for each student were recorded for research purposes.

From the results provided, the profile created was a follows: an undergraduate student who grew up on a rural farm, this individual is not in their first year of school, they are studying an in the college of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources in an agricultural business or animal science related field. Students in this profile showed variance in their desire to enter the sales force upon graduation, and they believe there is a connection between sales and leadership. Students who fit this profile define themselves being both high task and high relationship oriented and also fall primarily under the category of extroversion. Students showed more drastic variability in exhibited strengths, however the majority of individuals had the Belief, Relator, and Self-Assurance strengths identified as one of their top five strengths from the Clifton's StrengthFinder Assessment.

From the demographic questionnaire, the class was well represented by both males at 50.52% (n=49) and females with 49.48% (n=48) who were primarily juniors, 55.67% (n=54) enrolled in the College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources (n=96) and grew up on a rural farm (n=68).

To the surprise of the researcher, students were less relationship oriented than anticipated as more students identified themselves with being high task oriented by the end of the semester with 62.89% (n=61). It is important to note that given the times during the semester when the pretest and posttests were disseminated, the physical and emotional state of students could be vastly altered as towards the end of the semester students' work load seems to increase and the stress of final examinations can cause an altered score on personality assessments than when in a more relaxed environment. Students were still primarily considered extroverted through the pretest, 62.89% (n=61) and the posttest, 60.82% (n=59). The data of introversion and extroversion shows this would fall under the category of a leadership trait as it is something that does not easily change and is what the individual is born with.

When evaluating the Clifton's StrengthsFinder results, at the beginning of the semester, when students self-evaluated and picked the top five traits they associated themselves with according to the definition, the most commonly noted trait was Achiever with 48.85%, while at the end of the semester after students completed the assessment online, Achiever was not even noted in the top five characteristics of the class. However, responsibility and belief were found on both the pretest and posttest data counts.

As mentioned earlier in the study, an individual's traits formulate an individual's distinctive character or personality. Just as Murphy and Davies (2006) stated, sales individuals need to be "capable and driven towards established goals, but is capable of handling stressors, such as frequent sales 'no's', and gets along well with others" (p. 18). Through the results of this study, it is seen that the students can get along with others as they are primarily extroverted and highly relationship oriented. Also, students' strengths are identified with being able to build relationship through being relatable and finding the significance of the relationship. Also, they will be able to handle the frequent "no's" because they believe in their work.

Recommendations

This study was successful at finding the basic demographic, personality and leadership information of the students enrolled in the Spring 2014 Agribusiness Sales course at [State] University. Future research could be done to find the same information about sales professional in the agricultural sales industry to understand if there is a relationship between students who want to go into the sales industry to be successful in their career and successful individuals in the career field. Having information about both students and professionals could help connect career seeking students and employee seeking professionals.

Research could also be done to bridge the gap of knowledge between what students are learning in the classroom and what professionals are using in the industry. By evaluating individuals with a sales career and asking what content should be taught in a sales course based on knowledge they use on a day to day basis, students would be able to gain a more practical knowledge base to make them more successful in their future sales positions.

Future researchers may also consider the option to assess students' in a different manner such as the retrospective post-then design to help reduce the limitations found with the pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design. Demographics could have been more extensive to include the age range and ethnicity of students.

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Important Aspects to Consider for Designing an Emotional Intelligence Teacher Training Program

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative applied research was to learn about the most important aspects to consider for designing an emotional intelligence (EI) teacher training program that could be implemented among educators of Monterrey, Mexico. Existing EI training programs were analyzed and experts were interviewed for collecting the data.

Introduction

Emotions permeate the classroom during instruction, both emotions from the teachers and from the students. Emotions play a very important role in learning; for such reason, they should not be ignored (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012, p. 1; Powell & Kosuma-Powell, 2010, p. 6). Teachers are highly fundamental to the realization of quality education (Devaney, O' Brien, Tavegnia, & Resnik, 2005, pp. 111-112). Thus, teachers need to acquire social emotional competencies (Devaney et al., 2005, pp. 111-112). Socially and emotionally competent teachers are more prepared to coach students through conflict situations, encourage cooperation among students, and act as role models of prosocial behavior, among many other benefits (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492; Nizielski, Hallum, Lopes, & Schutz, 2012, p. 327). The problem is that currently most teacher training programs do not foster the development of emotional intelligence among teachers (MacPhee & Seligson, 2004, p. 80).

In addition, there is a great need to foster among Mexican citizens social emotional competencies. As Gonzalez (2014, p. 47) explains, the cultural heritage of the Latin-American culture has promoted among males a lack of adequate expression of emotions, which has resulted in the expression of violent behaviors, lack of adequate communication, and broken relationships. On the other hand, the Latin American cultural heritage has fostered among women an inadequate self-concept and low self-esteem, which has a negative impact on their relationships as well (Gonzalez, 2014, p. 55).

Purpose

As it has been previously explained, the teaching- learning process is a social endeavor which is influenced by social and emotional aspects. For such reason, establishing a positive teacher student relationship and a favorable learning environment is important for learning to occur. Educators hold a key role in fostering positive teacher -student relationships and a favorable learning environment. In addition, educators act as role models for their students, given that they hold great influence among them. Thus, for favorable learning to occur and for encouraging the development emotional intelligence among students, fostering the development of social and emotional competencies among educators is important.

However, since a long time ago, teacher education and training have focused exclusively on content knowledge, on how to develop a lesson plan, and on knowing educational theories and teaching methods. Old habits are difficult to be modified, so still most teacher education and professional development programs ignore EI as a topic to be promoted among educators (Fleming & Bay, 2004, p. 95). Thus, the purpose of this research was to obtain a foundation of knowledge for designing an EI teacher training program for educators of Monterrey, Mexico.

Guiding Questions

Several questions were used to guide this applied research project:

1. What does the professional literature say about the topic of EI and its development?
2. According to the professional literature, which are some specific strategies and activities that may be useful for fostering EI among adults?
3. What are the topics, activities, and outcomes of several existing EI adult-oriented programs?
4. According to the information provided by an expert on the topic, what are the main aspects to consider when seeking to train adults on EI?
5. According to expert practitioners on adult professional development, which are the most important aspects to consider when seeking to design and implement an adult-oriented training program?
6. How can all the data provided by the different sources serve as a foundation for designing the training program?

Literature Review

EI has an important role in leadership development. It even may be stated that EI is a foundation for leadership development (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012; Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero, & Martos, 2012; Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2003; Zeidner, Mathews, & Roberts, 2012). Teachers are leaders, and their leadership can be seen when they develop exemplary practices in the classroom (Garamarawi, 2010, p. 305). For such reason, educators and, most importantly, leadership educators should seek to develop and portray such competencies.

Educators have a very influential role in EI development. They hold a vital role in fostering EI and for such reason, it is very important for teachers to be trained on the topic. Teachers interact emotionally with others during most of their job, needing to exhibit positive and pleasant behaviors; they are required to assess the reactions of their students and to attempt to influence them. Emotions are contagious, so the teachers' moods and emotions have a deep impact on their students. As a result, teachers are very influential because they hold a leadership role in the classroom, so their emotions are highly infectious. Their influence can be positive and constructive or negative if the teacher is suffering from stress, depression, or personal problems (Mathews et al., 2002, p. 484; Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010, pp. 149-152).

Benefits of EI among Educators

In addition to what has been previously stated, it is important to establish some of the multiple benefits of training teachers on EI competencies. When teachers enhance their EI through training, they are more capable to teach those competencies to their students, given that teachers end up teaching who they are (Barnfather & Amod, 2012; Devaney et al., 2005; Palmer, as cited in McCombs, 2005; Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg, & Walberg, 2004). Another benefit is that they learn how to manage their own stress. Also they learn how to engage in problem solving in a more skillful way. Developing these competencies helps lessen among teachers the possibility of leading to burnout, and as a result, they most likely will be able to endure (Nelson, Low, & Nelson, 2005; Palomera, Fernandez-Berrocal, & Brackett, 2008; Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010).

When teachers develop EI, they are able to develop supportive and encouraging relationships with their students, being able to coach students through conflict situations and encourage cooperation. Emotionally intelligent teachers are able to connect with their students, filling their classes with pleasure, challenge, and joy and establishing a committed relationship with their students filled with care, trust, and acceptance—all which have a very positive impact on student learning. The success of any program is less what they do and more the way they do it. Caring relationships form the foundation of genuine and enduring learning, given that the teaching–learning process is of a social nature (Domitrovich, Gest, Gil, Bierman, Welsh, & Jones, 2008; Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013; Hargreaves, 1998; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Leedy & Smith, 2012; Nizielski et al., 2012, Zeidner et al., 2012). In addition, emotionally intelligent teachers tend to be assertive, have empathy, have the ability for decision making, able to lead, able to motivate, have anger management skills, are proactive in responding to stressors, are more aware of the importance of developing EI among their students, and feel greater satisfaction in their work (Aremu & Moyosola, 2012; Krishnakunar & Rymph, 2012; Palomera et al., 2008).

Importance of Each EI Competency among Teachers

However, in order to have a more clear perspective of the importance of fostering EI competencies among teachers, it is important to also understand why fostering each specific EI domain among them is needed. For example, fostering self-knowledge among teachers is greatly important because they are able to recognize the connection between the mood they are experiencing and what they think, say, and do. Teachers are able to acknowledge their own learning style, which is important because people tend to teach in accordance to their main learning style. They are aware of their teaching philosophy, knowing what they seek to foster among students and why they seek to promote such competencies. In addition, they are aware of their assumptions and the expectations they have of their students, as well as the impact those expectations may bring, and they are aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Likewise, fostering self-regulation among teachers is very important as well, because teachers who are able to self-regulate tend to generate a classroom climate of trustworthiness and are effective in handling difficult situations, given that when disruptive emotions intrude into the classroom learning suffers (Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010, pp. 20-30, 73-87, 107-132).

Fostering motivation and empathy is important. Motivated teachers give of their time and energy with no need of extra compensation, and they tend to find a sense of purpose in their job.

Motivated teachers tend to provide students with extra help and tend to be involved in community projects. Those who have empathy are able to engage in a more positive way with students. In addition, they tend to seek to recognize the negative emotional effect a student may be having on them in order to be able to reframe those perceptions in a more positive way; empathy is seen as a critical component of conflict resolution. Finally, having relationship management is very important, because teachers are required to establish positive relationships in the classroom in order to be able to develop trust, which is considered a key element for facilitating learning (Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010, pp. 107-132, 140-147).

Strategies for Fostering EI among Educators

According to the obtained data, there are many strategies experts have recommended for training teachers. The first aspect that experts have recommended for learning to occur is for the participants to practice what they have learned over a long time. Participants also need to have a high degree of motivation through learning the usefulness of what they are learning in order to establish commitment. The barriers they might face when they begin to apply what they have learned should be anticipated, and support should be given so they do not lose that motivation (Bransford et al., 2002; Cherniss, 1998; Mathews et al., 2002). In addition, for an EI program to be successful, it needs to have clear goals and specific objectives (Guskey, 1998); the program's content should be adapted to the participants' needs and according to their previous experiences. The facilitator should model what he or she is teaching and should establish a trusting relationship with the learners, fostering a safe and supportive setting (Boyatzis, 2007; Bransford et al., 2002; Mathews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). It is recommended to begin with an assessment of the competencies, as well as to provide opportunities for practice or role playing with feedback, experiential practices, opportunity for discussion, and structured reflection of their own practices. For EI development, repeated modeling, practice, and corrective feedback is required (Domitrovich et al., 2008; Mathews et al., 2002; Powell & Kusuma Powell, 2012; Zeidner et al., 2012). Finally, it is important to foster collaboration and a sense of community among the participants, also the training efforts should be evaluated (Guo, Kaderavek, Piasta, Justice, & Ginty, 2011; Zeidner et al., 2012).

Another set of strategies that have been recommended by experts for developing EI are taking the participants to understand why EI skills are important, identifying EI skill deficits, assessing the effects of those deficits on their careers, and practicing the EI skills by participating in hobbies (Liptak, 2005). For developing self-awareness, filling a learning style inventory and an inventory of their personal education philosophy is important (Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010). For self-regulation development, anticipating hot buttons and practicing constructive reactions through role playing is recommended. Analyzing case studies and clips of teachers using emotion management strategies may be helpful as well (Corcoran & Tormey, 2012; Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2010).

Methods

The data were collected using a qualitative method. The participants who were purposefully selected for obtaining data were three Mexican expert practitioners on adult professional development and one expert on EI development. The information that was sought from the

expert practitioners on adult professional development took place through interviews using mostly open-ended questions (Creswell, 2009, p. 179). The purpose of the interviews was to obtain information according to the interviewees' experience and perspective regarding which aspects they considered to be of great importance for designing and implementing an effective adult-oriented training program. The open-ended responses allowed exploring the reasons beyond the closed-ended questions (Creswell, 2012, p. 220).

Prior to the data collection process, a needs assessment was made. For the needs assessment, school coordinators in Monterrey were briefly interviewed. Given that the assessment's outcomes gave a positive result, confirming the need of training educators on EI, a search of current EI teacher training programs was done. The purpose of this was to learn if designing an EI program for teachers in the community was needed or if there was an existing research-based program that considered the cultural aspects of the community and which could be implemented. However, no EI teacher training program that considered Mexico's cultural aspects and that was research-based was found, which confirmed the need of designing an EI teacher training program for educators of Monterrey.

A thorough search of information within peer-reviewed journal articles, books, and other written media was compiled, read, and summarized in order to provide a solid foundation of data on the topic of EI. The EI subtopics researched were mainly related to EI development, strategies and activities that foster EI among adult learners, and adult professional development. The most relevant data obtained within the literature review section were discussed and analyzed.

Many EI training programs were reviewed, but only those that were research-based and were presented in peer-reviewed journals were selected. The programs were targeted towards adult learners and preferably oriented to teachers or pre-service teachers. For revising the programs' elements a checklist was used. Five EI programs were selected, which considered most of the aspects included in the criteria. The five programs that were analyzed complied with the following aspects: had a clear goal, mentioned the EI topics included and explained some of the activities used, were assessed and obtained positive outcomes in their assessment. The most relevant information presented by these five programs was analyzed.

For enhancing the obtained data, an EI expert was contacted by e-mail and three Mexican expert practitioners on adult training were interviewed. For the interviews, an interview protocol was used. Each interviewee owns a company oriented towards professional development and coaching. Also, they act as facilitators providing training programs to adult learners. For contacting these experts, first the researchers located someone who knew them and asked him to contact them by phone and introduce them in order for them to be expecting the researchers' e-mail. Then, via e-mail, the researchers asked them if they were interested in participating in the research, and the purpose of the research was explained. If they agreed to participate, their phone numbers were collected and a phone interview was scheduled. For each interview, about 30 minutes were allotted. An interview protocol was designed to serve as a guide during the interview process, and the interview was recorded for the data provided to be transcribed and analyzed.

Creswell (2003, pp. 196, 217) explained that triangulation of the data should be sought, given that the flaws of one data source of information may be strengthened by another. For such reason, by combining the use of the professional literature, the analysis of existing research based EI programs, the EI experts' ideas, and the data provided by the Mexican professional development expert practitioners through the interviews, a triangulation of data was obtained. The objective of using diverse means of data was to combine the information obtained and learn what should be considered for developing a high quality EI training program oriented towards educators.

Results

The information gathered from the professional literature review, the selected EI programs, the EI expert's data, and the data provided by the Mexican expert practitioners on professional development were analyzed. The data provided by all the sources was combined and its results were presented in a table. The main outcome of the data analysis was a list of the most important aspects to consider for designing an EI program, which was obtained through answering the guiding questions. The results of those very important elements to consider, as well as the sources that convey its importance, are presented within Table 2. The list of elements obtained was used as a foundation for designing an EI teacher training program.

However, it is also important to observe the results of the experts' interviews. Within Table 1, each of the aspects mentioned to be important by the experts at the interviews are introduced. The purpose of the table is to acknowledge the similarities and differences on the experts' responses. To achieve this, the four columns to the right denote a mark for every expert who agreed on the importance of the aspect presented in the left column.

Table 1
Experts' Opinion Comparison and Contrast

Important aspect	E1	E2	E3	E4
Understanding the clients' needs and context	X	X	X	
Have clear objectives			X	
Provide opportunity for participants to discuss opinions and create ideas for applying content	X	X	X	
The training should be experiential, providing content in fun, creative, and interesting ways	X	X		
Provide feedback to participants	X			
Guide participants to reflect on their EI competencies				X
Motivate participants at the beginning of the training		X		
Participants should be allowed to learn according to their own rhythm, style, and need		X		

Important aspect	E1	E2	E3	E4
Participants require much commitment on their behalf				X
The training should be relevant to daily life		X		
Trainers should have foundational knowledge and proven methodologies	X		X	
Facilitators should have integrity (giving an example of what he or she teaches) and be trustworthy	X		X	
Facilitators should have facilitation skills	X			
Facilitators should be in synchrony with each other		X		
Facilitators should love the program		X		
Facilitators should be punctual and give a positive first impression.			X	
Facilitators should keep their knowledge current	X			
Facilitators should connect with the audience		X		
Use qualitative assessment	X	X	X	
Use quantitative assessment	R			
Regarding EI, the main area of struggle is personal competency, recognizing their emotions and the perception they have of emotions	X			X
Emotional self-perception and self-control are most important to foster				X
Foster among participants understanding their temperament and learn from others		X		
Promote teamwork of people from different temperaments		X		

Note. The left column lists each aspect mentioned by the experts. The other columns denote an X for each expert who mentioned that aspect as important. E1 = Mr. Gilbert, E2 = Mr. Alejandro, E3 = Mr. Joe, and E4 = the EI expert. R = Rarely.

In Table 1, a comparison among the experts' responses was done, providing a clearer perspective of the aspects that are important to consider according to several of them. As a result, important attention should be given within an EI program design to the aspects that were mentioned by some of them without losing sight of aspects that might be important, even if they were only mentioned once. It may be conveyed that the aspects that are vital to consider according to the experts are understanding the client's needs and context, providing opportunity for participants to discuss opinions and create ideas for applying the content, and, finally, using a qualitative

assessment to measure the training's outcomes. These three aspects were mentioned by the three Mexican expert practitioners; for such reason, special attention should be given to them. Some aspects that are also very important to consider, because they were mentioned by two of the experts, are the training should be experiential, providing content in fun, creative, and interesting ways; the trainer should have foundational knowledge and proven methodologies; and the facilitator should have integrity and be trustworthy. On the topic of EI, two experts mentioned that the main area of struggle for adult learners is personal competency, including recognizing emotions and the perception they have of emotions; Mr. Gilberto mentioned this problem is increased due to our Mexican cultural heritage, and change needs to be sought. It is important to mention that there are many aspects included in the interviews that were only mentioned once, but that still are important to consider on an EI program design and implementation, which are those marked only once in Table 1.

Table 2
Comparison of Aspects Using a Triangulation of Data

Important Aspects	G2	G3	G4-5	CR
For Program Design				
Participants should practice what they have learned	X	X	X	
It is important to foster motivation and commitment through teaching the usefulness of what they are learning	X	XX	XX	
Anticipate possible barriers and provide support	X			X
Establish clear goals	X		X	X
Analyze the context			XX	
Begin with an assessment	X			
Use role plays	X	XX		
Use experiential practices	X	X	XX	
Provide opportunity for discussion	X	XX	XX	
Provide time for structured reflection	X		X	
Provide feedback	X	X	X	
Identify EI skills deficits	X			
Promote practicing EI skills through hobbies and to daily life	X	XX	X	
Analyze case studies	X	XX		
Use movement for increasing EI		X		
Participants' goal setting	X	XX		
Use of imagery		X		
Journal writing		X		
Use qualitative assessment		XX	XX	
Use quantitative assessment		X		
Regarding EI, the main area of struggle is personal competency, recognizing emotions, and the perception they have of emotions	X	X	X	X
Emotional self-perception and self-control are most important to foster	X	X	X	X
Foster among participants understanding their temperament and learn from others			X	

Important Aspects	G2	G3	G4-5	CR
For Self-Awareness				
Fill a learning style inventory	X			
Fill a personal education philosophy inventory	X			
For Self-Regulation				
Anticipate hot buttons	X			
Practice constructive reactions through role plays	X			
View and analyze videos of teachers using emotional and classroom management	X	XX		
Relaxation techniques	X	X		
Identify manifestations of stress	X	X		
Learn ways to cope with stress	X	X		
Cognitive restructuring	X			
Assertiveness training	X			
For Relationship Management		X		
Promote teamwork			X	
Promote healthy interactions with others		X	X	
Foster collaboration and a sense of community	X		X	
Problem solving		X		
For Program Implementation				
Adapt content to participant's needs	X		XX	X
Participants should be allowed to learn according to their own rhythm, style, and need			X	
Facilitator should be a role model of what is fostered	X		XX	
Facilitators should foster trust and a supportive setting	X		XX	
Facilitators should have facilitation skills			X	
Facilitators should be in synchrony with each other			X	
Facilitators should love the program			X	
Facilitators should be punctual and give a positive first impression.			X	
Facilitators should connect with the audience			X	

Note. The left column lists the elements mentioned as important by at least one source. G2 = Guiding Question 2 results from the literature review. G3 = Guiding Question 3 results from the program analysis. G3-4 = Guiding Questions 3 and 4 results from expert interview data. CR = culture-relevant, resulting from the cultural aspects presented in the introduction and within Guiding Question 1 analysis. X = element was mentioned by that source. XX = element was mentioned more than once within that same source type.

In Table 2, the aspects that are important to consider for an EI program design and implementation can be observed; it is possible, as well, to review the sources that confirm the importance of such aspects. Those design aspects that were confirmed by the three sources, as well as by being culturally relevant, and that as result should definitely be considered within an EI program design are promote self-awareness or self-perception and promote self-regulation or self-control, including recognizing emotions and perception of emotions. Then, those aspects that

were confirmed by three sources and that consequently are considered very important to include in an EI program are participants should practice what they have learned, it is important to foster motivation and commitment through teaching the usefulness of what they are learning, provide opportunity for discussion, provide feedback, promote healthy interactions with others, and promote practicing EI through hobbies and daily life.

In addition, those aspects that are confirmed to be important by two sources and that should be acknowledged by an EI program design are establish clear goals, analyze the context, use role plays, use experiential practices, provide time for structured reflection, foster collaboration and a sense of community, analyze case studies, take participants' to develop goal setting, use qualitative assessment, view and analyze videos of teachers using emotional and classroom management skills, identify sources of stress, use relaxation techniques, identify manifestations of stress, and learn ways to cope with stress. Finally, those aspects that were mentioned by one source are anticipate possible barriers and provide support, begin by using an assessment, use movement for increasing EI, use imagery, use writing, use quantitative assessment, foster among participants understanding their temperament and learn from others, fill a learning style inventory, fill a personal education philosophy inventory, anticipate hot buttons, practice constructive reactions through role plays, use cognitive restructuring, use assertiveness training, and promote teamwork and problem solving.

Regarding the aspects that are important to consider for the implementation of the program design, the one that is vital to foster, given that it was mentioned by two sources and is cultural relevant as well, is to adapt the content to participants' needs. Implementation aspects that are very important to consider given that they were mentioned by two sources are: that the facilitator should be a role model of what is fostered and that the facilitator should foster trust and a supportive setting. Finally, those implementation aspects that were mentioned by one source are that the participants should be allowed to learn according to their own rhythm, style, and need; and related to the facilitators' role, the facilitator should have facilitation skills, be in synchrony with each other, love the program, be punctual and give a positive first impression, keep his or her knowledge current, have foundational knowledge and proven methodologies, and connect with the audience.

Using the results of the analyzed data, a list of the aspects that were found to be very important to consider for designing an EI program are presented.

The vital elements to consider in the design of an EI program follow:
(a) promote self-awareness or self-perception, (b) promote self-regulation or self-control, (c) participants should practice what they learn, (d) foster motivation and commitment, (e) provide opportunity for discussion, (f) promote healthy interactions with others, (g) promote practicing EI on daily life, and (h) provide feedback.

Elements important to consider follow: (a) establish clear goals, (b) analyze the context, (c) use role plays, (d) use experiential practices, (e) provide time for structured reflection, (f) foster collaboration and a sense of community, (g) analyze case studies, (h) have participants set goals, (i) use qualitative assessment, (j) view and analyze videos of teachers using emotional and

classroom management skills, (k) identify sources of stress, (l) use relaxation techniques, (m) identify manifestations of stress, and (n) learn ways to cope with stress.

Discussion

The ultimate purpose that was sought by the researchers was to learn about the most important aspects to consider for designing and implementing a quality EI training program for educators. Then, use such data for creating an EI teacher training program for fostering EI competencies among the teachers of Monterrey; seeking to have a positive impact in their teaching practice. The foundational aspects of the research provided evidence that EI can be developed through training. In addition, an aspect that sparked from this research was the importance and need of fostering emotion recognition and emotion acceptance among Mexican citizens, due to their cultural heritage. These two aspects are related to the self-awareness and self-regulation EI elements, which were two elements confirmed important by all the researched sources presented in Table 2, when the researched data were triangulated. As a result, both aspects should be promoted among Mexican citizens, given that such elements are very important for fostering EI development.

Even if the main focus of the research is to foster EI competencies among Mexican educators, the results may be useful for educators within an international setting. This may be possible given that the professional literature that was reviewed, the EI expert who provided data for the research, and the analyzed EI programs are from an international setting and are not circumscribed specifically to the Mexican context. As a result, some of the strategies and aspects recommended to consider within an EI educator training program may be applicable to international leadership educators as well. As presented within the literature review section, there are great benefits when educators receive training on EI competencies and apply such competencies in their teaching practice. In addition, when seeking to foster leadership skills it is of great importance for educators to model through their example such leadership competencies. However, according to the professional literature, emotional intelligence may be considered a foundation for leadership development; as a result, it could be conveyed that fostering EI competencies among leadership educators is important.

Limitations

It is important to acknowledge some limitations of this research. The main limitation was related to obtaining brief data from the EI expert, as well as being unable to contact an EI expert from Mexico. This limitation was lessened by interviewing the professional expert practitioners, given that two of them had practical experience on EI training. Another possible limitation might be that the professional literature on the topic is from an international setting, including the EI programs analyzed. Thus, no professional literature from a Mexican expert on EI training was found and used as part of the professional literature. Therefore, the EI cultural aspects were obtained from the cultural heritage data presented and by what the Mexican professional development experts conveyed.

Recommendations

There is an aim for Mexican EI experts to publish research-based literature in order to provide EI contextual data for future projects and research, as mentioned by one expert practitioner within his interview and, previously, within the limitations section. Furthermore, EI research-based programs designed for the Mexican context should be developed, being that as was previously established, there is a need to encourage EI among Mexican citizens.

Conclusions

The purpose of this applied research was to design a teacher training program for the educators of Monterrey, Mexico. For achieving this outcome, a rigorous review of professional literature took place, as well as a search and analysis of existing EI programs. A qualitative method was also used for collecting foundational data from experts. Brief data were obtained from an EI expert, and more complete data were provided by Mexican professional development experts. In addition, cultural information that impacts the Mexican culture and its citizens' EI development was provided.

All of the foundational aspects mentioned above were of great assistance in providing a solid base of data that confirmed the need to foster EI among Mexican educators. Also, such data provided evidence that EI can be developed through training. Additionally, many research-based strategies for fostering EI exist but none that considered Mexico's cultural aspects. As a result, the research provided valuable data, providing a list of elements that were considered for the EI training program design. Through using as a foundation the list of important elements obtained from the research process, an EI training program was created. Mexico needs citizens who have the skills to become successful in their personal and professional lives and who may use such skills for the community's benefit. Teachers hold great influence and are the foundation for having the opportunity of this to happen; for such reason, this applied research was oriented towards educators.

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An Exploratory Analysis of Community-Based Leadership Experiences

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Abstract

We explored community-based leadership experiences as a tool for leadership development. Community-based experiences engaged all participants in an aspect of experiential learning. Additionally, community-based experiences engaged students in developing both knowledge and knowing. Our findings suggest important considerations for the application of community-based leadership experiences in leadership development programs.

Introduction

Higher education exists, in part, to develop individuals ready for professional practice (Astin & Astin, 2000). Therefore, postsecondary educators should attend to what students must know to successfully engage in professional practice. Cook and Brown (1999) provided a unique way of thinking about what a person can know, suggesting knowledge and knowing are distinct forms of what can be known. Practice, the art of doing, distinguishes these two concepts. According to Cook and Brown (1999), knowledge can occur without an ability to do; whereas knowing necessitates doing. For example, the knowledge of strategies to effectively facilitate a meeting (i.e., creating an agenda, engaging participants, conflict management strategies, etc.) is separate from the ability to actually facilitate a meeting. The distinction between knowledge and knowing has implications for leadership educators who see their roles as developing individuals to be practicing leaders. Professional practice requires both knowledge and knowing, as Cook and Brown point out "[knowledge] gives shape and discipline to knowing" (1999, p. 393). Consequently, leadership educators need to facilitate an increase in students' knowledge *and* knowing, to adequately prepare them for professional practice.

Although void of the terms knowledge and knowing, Allen and Hartman (2009) point out that leadership educators struggle to include both conceptual understanding and practice as curricular foci. In fact, research suggests leadership education has focused on individual's knowledge with little attention given to their knowing (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012). An unbalanced approach, with scant attention paid to leadership knowing, fails to accomplish the goal of developing individuals ready for professional practice in leadership. In an effort to infuse practice, some leadership educators have included community-based leadership participation within their leadership development programs. However, the leadership education literature has not explored the efficacy of community-based requirements as a pedagogical tool for engaging students in leadership development. The purpose of this study is to explore whether community-based leadership participation can serve as a method for developing students' knowledge and knowing.

We sought to ground this study in a theoretical framework that adhered to the "…reciprocal interplay between knowledge and knowing" (Cook & Brown, 1999, p. 393). Our search led us to the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT; Kolb, 1984), which posits a cyclical process for learning

in which learners (a) participate in a concrete experience, (b) make sense of their experience through reflections, (c) develop abstract conceptualizations based on their experience and reflections, and (d) practice these conceptualizations in new situations. We felt this theory attended to knowing (i.e., participation in concrete experience and practicing conceptualizations in new situations), knowledge (i.e., making sense of experiences through reflection and developing abstract conceptualizations), and the critical interplay between these concepts. Additionally, the cyclical nature of ELT affords us an opportunity to explore student progress through the learning cycle during their community-based leadership participation. We suggest progress through this learning cycle would provide evidence of the development of both knowledge and knowing. Specifically, we addressed the following research question: Do students' reflections on a required community-based leadership experience demonstrate progress through the experiential learning process described in the ELT?

Literature Review

This study was informed by past research addressing the salient concepts of our research question. Specifically, our review will flush out the concepts of knowledge and knowing and their importance in leadership education, assess current curricular approaches in leadership education in relation to knowledge and knowing, and explore the research on experiential learning in postsecondary education.

Applying Knowledge and Knowing to Leadership Education

Rost and Barker (2000) described a leadership education approach which prepares students for post-industrial leadership. Post-industrial leadership brings to light the "…complex social relationships among people who practice leadership" (Rost & Barker, 2000, p. 5). The post-industrial view of leadership contrasted previous perspectives of leadership, which described leadership as more directive and less relational (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Preparing students for success as post-industrial leaders requires attention to both knowledge and knowing (Brungardt, 1996; Cook & Brown, 1999). The knowledge required for leaders to engage in the post-industrial view includes an awareness of how relationships are built, how people are motivated, and cause-and-effect relationships within interpersonal interactions (Rost & Barker, 2000). Knowing, the ability to do, within the post-industrial leadership perspective entails leaders able to build relationships, motivate people, and create change through interpersonal interactions. If the role of leadership education is to prepare leaders for post-industrial leadership, educators must build students' knowledge and knowing through their leadership development programs. In the next section, we explore common curricular approaches currently used in leadership education and consider their attention to both knowledge and knowing.

Curricular Approaches in Leadership Education

To explore the curricular approaches used in leadership education, we employed a common framework for curricular strategies within leadership education. Conger (1992) identified four categories, labeled by their desired outcomes, of leadership education approaches: personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building. Personal growth refers to

curricula designed to increase students' understanding of their own actions, virtues, and goals. Conceptual understanding refers to curricula aimed at building students' knowledge of leadership (e.g., teaching leadership theories). Feedback, through experiences like mentoring, is designed to provide leadership learners with information on their personal strengths and weaknesses. Skill building, the final category of curricula discussed by Conger, refers to curricula aimed at building students' abilities to perform the skills necessary to achieve their leadership goals.

Recent research has further explored the four strategies suggested by Conger by highlighting the specific curricular strategies used by leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012). This research affords us the opportunity to focus on those strategies most commonly employed within leadership education. In his assessment of pedagogical strategies employed within leadership education, Jenkins (2012) found that class discussions, interactive lectures, small group discussions, group projects and presentations, and research-project presentations were the most commonly used strategies. As we considered these common approaches within leadership education, we identified a lack of attention toward students' leadership knowing, especially through opportunities outside the traditional classroom. The experiential learning process holds the potential to engage students in learning through concrete activity (Kolb & Kolb, 2005), and may serve as a method for developing the knowing of leadership learners. In the following section, we explore the application of experiential learning within higher education.

Experiential Learning in Postsecondary Education

A common tendency among post-secondary educators is the attempt to transmit knowledge to the learner (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). This tendency emerges from the dominant metaphor within education, the acquisition metaphor, which views knowledge as a transferrable entity (Sfard, 1998). Alternatively, the participation metaphor suggests learning does not occur through transmission from one individual to another; rather, learning occurs when individuals engage in action, becoming participants within a community of practice (Sfard, 1998). The learning process described within the experiential learning theory forces educators to shift their perspective of learning from transmission of information to learning as a learner-centered process of action, reflection, reconceptualization, and application.

As we consider the transition of educators from acquisition-oriented teaching to experience-oriented teaching, we must highlight research on what constitutes an effective educational experience. First, it is important to note that not all experiences provide equal opportunity for learning (Dewey, 1938; Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Effective educational experiences create a learning space that appropriately balances challenges and support (Kegan, 1994; Sanford, 1966). Challenges emerge when students are pushed, through an experience, to participate in an environment which requires the adaptation of previously held ideas and behaviors to new environments (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2006; Sanford, 1966). However, without adequate support, these challenging experiences can be detrimental to the learning process (Evans et al., 2006). This requires that post-secondary educators purposefully select experiences to initiate the experiential learning process (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). We designed our research to provide leadership educators with empirical data to make purposeful decisions regarding the use of community-based experiences in leadership education.

Methods

The purpose of our research was to explore students' reflections of a community-based leadership experience for evidence of progression through the experiential learning cycle. We selected qualitative research methods due to the exploratory nature of this research as well as the opportunity qualitative methodology affords researchers to share the personal stories and experiences of participants.

Data Collection

We collected data from all 11 students who participated in a community-based leadership experience within a year-long leadership development program. We collected the data through one-on-one, semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2009) conducted a week after students completed the program and their community-based experience. Pre-determined questions were designed to have students reflect on their experiences within their community-based experience (e.g., "what benefits and challenges did you experience with your community involvement?"). The interviewer used follow-up questions to gather more information on the students' experiences. All data were transcribed verbatim in preparation for data analysis.

Participants

The 11 participants in this study ranged from sophomore to senior standing. Ten of the 11 students were enrolled in majors within the College of Agricultural Sciences with one student majoring within the College of Forestry. Throughout the description of our findings, we utilized pseudonyms to protect the identity of participants engaged in this research study. The participants were engaged in a leadership development program that included a community-based leadership development requirement. Students were expected to engage in a community-based experience for three to four hours a week during two (i.e. winter and spring terms) of the three terms they were enrolled in the leadership development program. Additional requirements of the program included being paired with a faculty mentor and participation in weekly seminars addressing a variety of leadership topics including personal leadership awareness, creating and sustaining change, and leaving a legacy through leadership. On average, 15 minutes of the weekly two hour seminars, were spent reflecting on community-based leadership opportunities. During this reflection, peers and program faculty offered perspective and advice.

Data Analysis and Analytical Framework

Data were deductively analyzed according to our operational model of the experiential learning process (Kolb, 1984). We developed five categories of codes based on our operational model: concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, pre active experimentation, and active experimentation. Table one describes the five codes and provides potential examples of the type of data that were coded within the five categories.

Table 1

Operational Codes used in Our Analysis

Code Category	Code Definition	Potential Quotes
Concrete Experience	Students completed a hands-on or minds-on experience.	"At my experience, I did…"
Reflective Observation	Students reflected on an experience.	"I noticed that during my experience…"
Abstract Conceptualization	Students created explanations for why their experience occurred a certain way.	"Because of my experience, I understand…better."
Pre active-experimentation	Students indicated a commitment to attempting a newly conceptualized strategy in future experiences.	"In the future, I will do…differently"
Active Experimentation	Students applied a new approach within their experience.	"I tried a different approach during my experience."

Note. Pre active-experimentation was added to our operational framework due to students expressing a commitment to future active experimentation without having the opportunity to complete that active experimentation at the point of data collection.

Using these operational codes, co-authors initially worked together to code two paragraphs of student data. This process was utilized to calibrate each individual coder to the operational codes. After the calibration phase, each of the four authors individually coded data for each of the students. Our individual coding process yielded 88% agreement among coders (Armstrong, Gosling, Martaeu, & Weinman, 1997); we believe this high level of agreement among coders evidenced a trustworthy coding process. Those codes on which the coders agreed are shared in this paper; additionally, we attempted to select data to share in the findings that were representative of the 11 students' experiences within their community-based leadership development activities.

Research Quality

In his comprehensive work on qualitative research, Creswell (2009) articulated a variety of strategies for ensuring high quality qualitative research; we employed a number of these strategies to increase the quality of our research process. First, our target throughout data collection was to collect "rich" data. We structured interviews to engage participants in an in-depth discussion in which students shared their experiences within their community-based leadership opportunities. Additionally, our four person research team sought to triangulate the data analysis process by each individually coding the data and then comparing our codes to ensure credibility of our analysis. Finally, we scanned the data for discrepant evidence (i.e.

counter-codes), defined as data that would contradict our findings, to ensure the findings we report are an adequate representation of the experiences of students.

Limitations

The goal of qualitative research is to explore a phenomenon in-depth, often with fewer participants (Creswell, 2008; Maxwell, 2005). The nature of the qualitative approach often restricts the generalizability of findings to larger populations. Due to the limited number of participants and the unique nature of the program that participants were engaged in, we do not attempt to generalize the experiences of students in this study to larger populations. However, we feel the information we present in this study provides valuable information concerning the experiences in which students were involved. We encourage leadership educators to use the experiences of the participants in this study when considering the potential value of including or adapting a community-based experience within their leadership development offerings.

Findings

A summary of our findings, including the number of codes within each of the five categories (i.e. concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, pre active-experimentation, and active experimentation) for all participants, is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Summary of Codes by Experiential Learning Phase

	Number of Agreed Upon Instances for Codes				
Student	Concrete Experience	Reflective Observation	Abstract Conceptualization	Pre active-experimentation	Active Experimentation
Group 1					
Chris	-	3	-	-	-
Group 2					
Natasha	1	5	-	-	-
Group 3					
Marie	3	3	1	-	-
Charles	2	6	7	-	-
Karina	2	5	3	-	-
Group 4					
Felix	6	14	7	1	-

Jenna	4	3	2	2	-
Patty	2	7	2	1	-
Group 5					
Jaxson	3	7	7	-	1
Rita	1	6	1	-	1
David	2	5	3	-	1

Note. Concrete experience and active experimentation were considered representations of knowing; reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and pre active-experimentation were considered representations of knowledge.

With the exception of Chris, each of the 11 students evidenced both a concrete experience and reflective observation through their community-based experiences. Considering the link between knowledge and knowing and the experiential learning process, these findings suggest 10 of the 11 students had opportunities to develop their knowledge (i.e. through reflective observations) *and* knowing (i.e. through concrete experiences) during their community-based leadership experiences. Additionally, nine of the 11 students provided evidence of an abstract conceptualization, another opportunity to develop their leadership knowledge, resulting from participating in their experiences. Three of the 11 students shared a commitment to applying a different approach in future leadership endeavors (i.e. pre active-experimentation; a representation of knowledge) and three students shared applying a new approach during their community-based experience (i.e. active experimentation; a representation of knowing). In an effort to share the students' stories, we broke the 11 participants into five groups based on their progress through the experiential learning cycle. For example, one group comprises Patty, Felix, and Jenna, because each were coded as engaging in concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, and pre active-experimentation; whereas Chris will comprise a group by himself, as he is the only participant to evidence reflective observation without any other categories. Grouping participants in this way provides the clearest representation of students' progressions through the experiential learning process.

Group 1 – Chris

Group one comprises one participant, Chris. Chris, a sophomore majoring in agricultural sciences during his year in the leadership program, was one of the younger participants and the only student who evidenced just one stage of the experiential learning process: reflective observation. Chris's community-based leadership opportunity included volunteering at a local youth-sports organization where he engaged in developing sportsmanship among youth participants. As Chris described his experience within this organization, he kept the discussion focused at the level of reflection and did not evidence any other stages of the experiential learning process. For example, during his interview Chris reflected "I'd say the biggest benefit is just jumping into an organization and trying to meet people almost so fast to try to establish your

credibility." During his interview, Chris shared a challenge he encountered during his experience; as part of his involvement, Chris was challenged to create a small change within the organization. Chris had an interest in changing a prominent chart that guided the youth to different sporting activities each day. However, the organization wanted Chris to work on developing the sportsmanship of the youth. Chris reflected that "it [was] hard to see or know the change because it is not on the wall; it is not where I can visually see it." Again, this quote stays at the reflection level, failing to address a different conceptualization of his experience or experimentation with different strategies during this challenge.

Group 2 – Natasha

The second group of participants also comprised one student, Natasha. Like Chris, Natasha was a sophomore during her experience. Majoring in Fisheries and Wildlife during her involvement in this leadership development program, Natasha volunteered with, and was a student board member for, an organization focused on wildlife preservation within the community. Throughout her interview, Natasha evidenced progression through two levels of the experiential learning process: concrete experience and reflective observation. Natasha entered into the leadership development program with no formal leadership experience; therefore, when discussing her involvement in the community, Natasha remarked "it was my first leadership experience." This quote evidenced a concrete experience, and was coded as such. Additionally, throughout Natasha's interview she reflected on her involvement, highlighting that it was "good to get connected with the community," and the value of "working with people who were a lot older than me." However, Natasha's comments remained at the reflection stage and never evidenced transitioning to abstract conceptualization.

Group 3 – Charles, Marie, and Karina

The third group of participants comprises three students: Charles, Marie, and Karina. These three students were placed within the third group because their interviews evidenced engagement in three of the experiential learning process stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, and abstract conceptualization. One member of this group, Charles, was a junior majoring in BioResource Research during his time in the leadership development program. Through his community-based experience, Charles volunteered at a community outreach clinic, a program designed to provide medical care to low-income families. Another member of group three, Marie, a senior majoring in Animal Sciences, volunteered for a local organization that pairs mentors with younger girls who build relationships through running. The final member of group three, Karina, a sophomore also majoring in Animal Sciences while in the leadership development program, volunteered her time at a local soup kitchen. While each of these three students had a unique experience, our discussion will focus on Karina, whose reflections best represent the experiential learning process evidenced by the members of this group.

During her interview, Karina shared that volunteering at the soup kitchen was a "very new experience for me," a comment that evidenced a concrete experience. Additionally, Karina demonstrated reflective observation when she reflected on the value of encouraging students to get off campus for an experience, sharing "I thought it was great to make sure [we are] going outside the college…we tend to stick to what we know." Additionally, Karina said, "I have never

volunteered in a soup kitchen before; I didn't really know what to expect, and I had a lot of really great experiences and interactions with people while I was there." Evidence of a transition to abstract conceptualization, defined as new ways of thinking about their engagement in their community-based leadership opportunities, distinguishes members of this group from groups one and two. For Karina, this was identified in the following quote, "if I had cleared a little more time in my schedule and known what I going to get out of [my experience], that would have been beneficial." In Karina's example, we see her transitioning from simply reflecting on her experience to describing a new way of conceptualizing her actions. We coded this transition as evidence that Karina moved to the third stage of the experiential learning process, abstract conceptualization.

Group 4 – Felix, Jenna, and Patty

The fourth group of participants included three individuals, Felix, Jenna, and Patty. Students included in this group evidenced four stages of our operational framework for the experiential learning process: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and pre active-experimentation. The three students categorized into this group included Felix, a sophomore majoring in BioResource Research during his time in the leadership development program. Felix's community-based leadership experience involved volunteering at a nursing home for senior citizens. Another member of group four, Jenna, a junior majoring in Agricultural Business Management, tutored high school students. The third member of group four, Patty, was a sophomore majoring in Agricultural Sciences and Spanish during her time in the leadership development program. For her community-based leadership experience, Patty volunteered at a local elementary school, assisting younger students in their academics. For our discussion, we will again focus on one student, Felix, and his experiences as a representation of the shared progress of students within this group through the experiential learning process.

Felix shared a number of concrete experiences that occurred during his community-based leadership experience of volunteering in a nursing home. Specifically, Felix shared the experience of "meeting the same people every single time I went there, because they didn't remember me." In addition to concrete experiences, Felix's interview evidenced a number of reflective observations occurring during his community-based leadership opportunity. Felix reflected, "I really enjoyed [my experience]. I felt like I was doing something benefitting both me and the residents;" another reflective observation came when discussing a struggle to "go through all the applications" necessary to volunteer at the nursing home. Through his interview, Felix also evidenced abstract conceptualizations arising throughout his involvement with the nursing home. For example, Felix identified an alternative way of approaching community involvement, "I would start looking a lot earlier and take it a lot more seriously." Felix also identified a new conceptualization for community service. When discussing the impact of his community-based leadership opportunity, he shared "it kind of helps you realize what you want to do, what you really want to do, the things that aren't really going to help you and the things that you really feel are valuable."

In addition to evidencing concrete experiences, reflective observations, and abstract conceptualizations, participants in this group shared a commitment to engaging differently in future experiences, which we operationalized as pre active-experimentation. While we

acknowledge this commitment may not translate into active experimentation, we feel a commitment to approaching a situation differently shows progression through the experiential learning process beyond abstract conceptualization. Within Felix's interview, he shared the challenges he faced going through the application process to volunteer at the nursing home. Felix then went on to share, "if I was to go back and try to continue volunteering there throughout the summer or into next year, I would definitely mention something [about the application process], like maybe help take over the website or do something to help along the volunteer process." In this quote, we see Felix transitioning from an abstract conceptualization to thinking about how he could apply this abstract conceptualization within his community-based leadership experience. This transition was also evident for the other two participants within group four. During Jenna's interview, she shared a commitment to planning for community involvement in the future, "maybe it's not so much that I get involved with five things like I have done in the past, but cut it down to see if I can do that and hopefully community involvement will be one of those next year." Patty also shared a commitment to involvement, stating she needs to do a "better job researching my options." The transition evident in these comments is a commitment to a changed behavior in future endeavors, which distinguished group four from the other groups.

Group 5 – Jaxson, Rita, and David

The final group of participants includes three students, Jaxson, Rita, and David. Students in this group were unique in that they evidenced each of the four original stages of the experiential learning cycle: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. The three students within this group included Jaxson, who was a junior majoring in Agricultural Sciences and whose community-based leadership experience involved advocating for agriculture within the state legislature. Group five also included Rita, a senior majoring in Agricultural Sciences. Rita's community-based leadership experience involved a community food bank designed as a food resource for low-income families. The third member of group five, David, was also a senior majoring in Environmental Economics and Policy during his time in the leadership development program. David's community-based leadership experience entailed volunteering his time in a state senator's office. For our group-five discussion, we will focus our analysis on David, as we feel his reflections accurately represent this group's progression through the experiential learning process.

David evidenced engaging in concrete experiences during his community-based leadership experience. Specifically, David shared "meeting a lot of people and building relationships." Additionally, David evidenced reflective observations throughout his time working within the senator's office. One of these reflective observations was identified when David shared a challenge he had working within the office to, "[make] my actions relevant to community members…I couldn't see a direct impact on what I was doing." Through David's interview, evidence also emerged of abstract conceptualizations occurring through his involvement; specifically, David mentioned learning to change his expectations when working with others. He said, "it's hard to push people because, you know, they don't have the time or they just don't really want to do it, so it's really hard to push people to get the results that you want, so sometimes you need to settle for a little bit less." The defining characteristic for group five was that participants evidenced transitioning their abstract conceptualizations to active experimentation within their experience. In David's interview, he discussed the "direct

correlation between the things I was learning in the [seminar portion of the leadership development experience] and reflecting on my past experiences and then applying them to this new experience." David was not alone in his active experimentation, Jaxson also shared that he had to "improvise to fix things" when overcoming challenges within his experience. Rita also shared that her awareness of body language pushed her to actively experiment with new actions at the food bank, "each time I went I had to be actively aware of my body expressions and the way I talked." These data illustrate that students within group five had the opportunity to actively experiment with new ideas, skills, and approaches through their involvement in community-based leadership.

Discussion

In this paper, we argue for a leadership education approach that attends to both knowledge *and* knowing, based on the necessity of post-industrial leaders to possess knowledge of leadership approaches as well as the knowing (i.e. practice) required to enact these approaches in different environments. We identified that common pedagogical practices in leadership education may not develop students' knowledge *and* knowing (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012) and proposed community-based leadership experiences as a method for doing so. Using the experiential learning process (Kolb, 1984) as a theoretical foundation, we sought to test the efficacy of community-based leadership experiences by exploring students' reflections after a community-based leadership experience for evidence of progression through the stages of the experiential learning process.

Through analysis of students' interviews, we determined that three of the 11 students provided evidence of progression through the four original stages of the experiential learning process: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Additionally, three students shared evidence of progressing through concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and pre active-experimentation. While we acknowledge pre active-experimentation does not complete the experiential learning process, we suggest a student's commitment to attempting new approaches in future endeavors is a positive outcome of a community-based leadership experience. However, this still leaves five of the 11 students who did not reach the active experimentation or pre active-experimentation stage of the experiential learning process. When considering the experiences of these five students, we must first note that failure to evidence progression through the experiential learning process during an interview does not definitively imply that none of these students moved beyond the stages they articulated. It is possible students progressed through additional stages of the experiential learning process but did not share evidence of this during their interviews. Furthermore, we must consider whether the lack of evidence that these five students moved beyond abstract conceptualization constitutes a failed experience. We contend that any experience that engages students in components of the experiential learning process has value; therefore, the experiences of students who did not complete the experiential learning process should not be declared a complete failure. However, we should still consider potential reasons why students' reflections did not provide evidence of transition through the experiential learning process, especially as we consider the need to develop students' knowledge and knowing.

We identified the experiential learning process as a viable framework for analyzing the development of knowledge and knowing, because the experiential learning process yields evidence of both knowledge (i.e., engagement in reflective observations and abstract conceptualizations) and knowing (i.e., engagement in concrete experiences and active experimentations). From this perspective, we concluded that 10 of the 11 students identified an experience linked to building both knowledge and knowing within their community-based leadership experiences. The one exception was Chris, who did not evidence the development of knowing (i.e., no codes for either concrete experience or abstract conceptualization). These findings provide convincing support for community-based leadership experiences as a viable tool to engage leadership learners in developing both knowledge and knowing.

Additionally, as we compare the reflections of students who progressed through one or two stages of the experiential learning process (i.e., Chris and Natasha) to those students who progressed through the four traditional stages of the experiential learning process (i.e. Jaxson, Rita, and David), one important distinction emerges. Chris and Natasha were both younger students with little to no formal leadership experience prior to this opportunity; whereas, Jaxson, Rita, and David all had senior or junior standing and had participated in formal leadership endeavors before engaging in this community-based leadership development experience. Potentially, those less-experienced students may have been trying to orient themselves to community-based leadership and did not gain the support level necessary to balance the challenges of a new experience (Kegan, 1994; Sanford, 1966). We encourage future research exploring the role of previous leadership experience on student progression through the experiential learning process in leadership education.

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Research in leadership education must consider the effectiveness of various leadership development approaches. This line of inquiry provides leadership educators with empirical data useful in making curricular decisions within their leadership development programs. Our study found community-based leadership experiences effectively engaged all students in at least one aspect of the experiential learning process; however, evidence also emerged that student characteristics (i.e. experience in leadership settings) may influence a student's experience and his/her progression through the experiential learning process. We encourage leadership educators who utilize community-based leadership experiences, or who are considering this approach, to differentiate their support for students based on the student's previous leadership experience. For example, a student with little to no leadership experience should be given more support during a community-based leadership experience when compared to a student with previous leadership experience. Research identifying the importance of balancing challenges and support to create an appropriate learning space for students supports this recommendation (Kegan, 1994; Sanford, 1966). It is important for leadership educators to adapt and differentiate their leadership development approaches to create an appropriate learning space for all students engaged in leadership development.

We also recommend all leadership educators consider if, and how, the approaches they utilize attend to both knowledge *and* knowing. Effective leadership in the post-industrial era requires both knowledge and knowing. As leadership educators, we are doing leadership learners a

disservice by attending to only one of these outcomes within our programs. Our research provided evidence that 10 out of the 11 participants were engaged in opportunities to increase their knowledge and knowing during a community-based leadership experience. While these findings are encouraging, we recommend continued research on additional leadership development approaches and their abilities to engage and develop students in both knowledge and knowing.

Leadership development is a critical endeavor because it empowers individuals to make a positive difference in the lives of others. Leadership educators, and the leadership development experiences they employ, hold tremendous capacity to influence current and future change agents. Research and experience should inform the curricular decisions made by leadership educators. In this study, we explored one potential leadership development approach, community-based leadership experiences, and revealed important considerations when applying this approach to leadership development. Our hope is that leadership educators use this information to make an informed decision about the application of this approach within their leadership development programming.

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Emerging Adults and the Leadership Shift: What Millennials Have to Say about Building Effective Teams

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Abstract

This paper will discuss qualitative research surrounding a subgroup of the millennials and what they value in regards to teams and team leadership. As the need for people to function well on teams continues to increase, the "collaboration generation" has much to offer but what is it they really value and how will this impact the future of teams?

Introduction

With increasing need for organizational and corporate productivity and engagement, solid work teams are in high demand. Organizations and their hierarchical structures are flattening out and are depending on high performance teams for survival while millennials desire a voice at the table as soon as they take on a new job. Collaboration and empowerment are at the forefront of necessary skills. The millennials, those born between 1982 and 2005, are the largest generation in history at 80 million plus (Cooper 2012). They have flooded the workforce during this time of transition and need to learn to navigate the evolving organizational landscape (Howe & Strauss, 2007).

Research is heavy in the area of individual leadership development and program effectiveness, but in a collective sense, the research is lacking (Dugan, 2011). An intentional study seeking to understand a subgroup of the millennial population and their perceptions of self-selected life experiences in teams offers insight into what the millennials already bring to the workforce in regards to teams and what can be done to enhance those skills. There is little research to account for how millennials want to be led and how they define the ideal team.

While there appears to be some overarching defining characteristics of the millennials (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2010; Tulgan, 209; Twenge, 2006), the insights from this research led to deeper understanding of the skills, mindsets, and attitudes the millennials possess regarding team process, membership, and leadership. As the trend not only in organizations but also with an entire generation moves more toward collaboration and teams, it is essential to think about how to merge these two entities together.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to understand undergraduate student leaders', a subgroup of the millennial population, perceptions of self-selected life experiences in teams. These insights will lead to deeper understanding of the skills, mindsets, and attitudes the millennials already possess regarding group process and membership. It will also grant insight into the type of leadership millennials offer and desire when working in a team setting. Universities will be further

equipped to understand how to prepare millennials for the global workforce that awaits them after graduation.

Research Questions

1) How do student leaders describe their own participation in their self-selected life experiences in teams?
2) How do student leaders describe team process in their self-selected life experiences in teams?
3) How do student leaders describe team membership in their self-selected life experiences in teams?

Significance of Study

Collective action is an essential part of today's society (Latane, Williams, & Harkins, 2006). The necessity of teamwork is on the rise. The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, an organization devoted to preparing every student for the 21st century, lists collaboration as one of the needed skills for success (The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). In the National Association of Colleges and Employers Job Outlook 2012 Survey, 79.8% of employers ranked the "ability to work in a team" number one as the attribute they look for on a prospective hire's resume (NACE, 2012).

The need to work well with others and the need to be able to lead in order to bring value to an organization continues to increase in importance. Research on team leadership is becoming one of the fastest growing areas in leadership theory (Kogler Hill, 2013). Ineffective leadership is one of the main reasons that teams fail (Stewart & Manz, 1995). Not only are the skills necessary but researchers are continually trying to figure out how to do it with greater precision.

With over 80 million millennials either already in the workforce or joining in the next several years, it seems imperative to step back and look at the strengths brought forth by the "collaboration" generation (Cooper, 2012). Organizational thought would be amiss to not only capitalize on strong group performance in the most efficient way but also to build on strengths already present in the millennial generation toward that end.

Literature Review

This section reviews the precedent literature offering a foundation for the research study.

University Setting

The collaboration generation, the millennials, currently fully occupy the space in higher education and beyond. There are currently more undergraduates at this point in history than ever before (Elmore, 2010). The university has become less of a sign of privilege and more of a perceived necessity for success. At some point during their lives, being a part of a community in a university setting is a reality for many North Americans.

For the last two and a half decades, higher education has been universally accessible (Boyer, 1987). There are more undergraduate students than there have ever been but graduates are not being adequately prepared for the workforce, instead they are being prepared for more schooling. "Most colleges are out of step with the world their graduates will enter" (Elmore, 2010).

Employers are not satisfied with current college graduates, especially those from lower-tiered schools (Selingo, 2013). According to business leaders, effective teaching of teamwork and problem solving is something that is lacking in the training of students before they enter the workforce (Goltz, Hietapelto, Reinsch, & Tyrell, 2007).

Currently, higher education as a whole appears to be resisting innovation. In other industries, the failure to innovate could mean becoming extinct (Selingo, 2013). The time to try new ways of integration and facilitating learning in the academy appears to be now. New ways of engaging students are necessary as the millennials move through the university setting.

Millennials

The millennial generation was born between 1982 and 2005 (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Over 80 million people comprise this group who are surfacing new ways of thinking and doing (Cooper 2012). They are quite different than the generations before.

This generation has been named the "collaborators" (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). Collaboration is working together with others toward a common purpose while sharing accountability, authority, and responsibility. The effectiveness of the team is then increased by building on the different perspectives and abilities (Owen, 2012). Millennials want to think and work collaboratively. They like to do things in groups and believe they do well when partnering with others (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). They believe that when people try to do things on their own, they are actually slowing things down (Lancaster & Stillman 2010). As the millennials are the dominant generation in the classroom, current trends suggest that "collaborative learning" is replacing the standard lecture (Twenge, 2006).

In regards to teams, millennials desire to be seen as a member (Dorsey, 2010). This generation grew up in a learning environment where collaboration and teamwork were valued. As children, they were socializing before speaking was even possible. Once millennials could talk, they were involved in countless extracurricular group activities (Lipkin & Perrymore, 2009). Being on a team was more of a regular part of their childhood than for previous generations.

Millennials bring strengths to team-building. The "collaborators" are used to being on teams and know how to quickly bond and then to move on when their time as a team is over. When teams end they tend not to see this as a "goodbye" but instead they add those former team members to their "supernetworks" (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010).

This generation has been described as the EPIC generation. Sweet uses this acronym to help explain how this generation best receives and learns information (Sweet, 2000). The "E" is for experiential. Communication in the classroom must be more than just audible. They want to see

and do. "P" is for participatory. Millennials voices have always been welcome in the home and they want to also be heard at school and at work. "I" is for image-rich. They grew up in a digitally rich era and they tend to think in images (Elmore, 2010). Elmore suggests using metaphors to get a point across in the classroom because of this (Elmore, 2010). The "C" is for connected. They are connected on a continual basis and do not like to do much of anything alone (Elmore, 2010). Elmore suggests pairing students up with someone who is more advanced than they are so they can have a guide. Because relationships are so important to millennials, working and learning together can offer deeper understanding (Elmore, 2010). Lev Vygotsky substantiated this through his sociocultural approach to learning (Vygotsky, 1978). This approach will be discussed in more detail later.

Leadership Development

Educating and training the undergraduate in leadership development is a key way to prepare current undergraduates for what they will experience after their time in a university setting. This type of training not only offers opportunities for growth in intellectual understanding around leadership theory, the curricular, but also allows for experiential learning, through the co-curricular. Bridging the curricular and co-curricular allows for a more solid foundation of preparation for what lies beyond the university.
Opportunities for leadership development can be found in the classroom, organizations and clubs, (Boatman, 1999), community service (Arnold & Welch, 2004), and in student activities (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013). Co-curricular experiences can build upon what is learned in a formal classroom setting and can create strong leadership development opportunities through group projects that are collaborative in nature and serve both the community and the institution (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999). The 2014 Gallup-Purdue Index Report shows that students who were very active in extracurricular activities and organizations while in college were 1.4 times more likely to thrive in the area of well-being. They were also 1.8 times more likely to be engaged in work (Gallup, 2014). Undergraduate involvement in co-curricular activities including leadership development and group work can have a significant impact on the outcomes of their higher education and how it translates into their future lives.

Collective Learning

A strong team leader must understand how to bring the collective together in a way that accomplishes more than would have been done by just one individual. It is important to think through how this is accomplished. Lev Vygotsky offers a strong theory of collective development while Edmondson offers a new approach to training leaders through the concept of "teaming."

Vygotsky's sociocultural approach grants insight into an individual's development as part of the collective whole. "Human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (Vygotsky, 1978). This implies that children grow intellectually by engaging with others through shared experience, vicarious experience, and conversation.

Vygotsky sees "two dimensions of development: one that resides in the individual and the other in the collectivity" (Souza-Lima, 1995). This view implies that development is not predictable and sequential. Learning and development are in a recursive relationship that is transformational and primarily done socially. The world that people interact with and the people themselves are transformed as they engage in productive activity. In this paradigm, knowing occurs when the world and oneself has been purposefully changed. It is different than knowledge that simply consists of facts or regulations that are shifted from one situation to another (Putney & Broughton, 2011).

Knowledge impacts who people are and how they interact. The situation or context people find themselves in can have great influence on how individuals perform as part of a team. Through his zone of proximal development, Vygotsky states that those who work together can accomplish as a collective what they could not accomplish alone. When students engage with more capable peers, they are able to increase their level of potential development (Vygotsky, 1978). They no longer remain where they were, but are moved forward to where the more experienced students are presently functioning as long as the function at hand is within their own developmental level (Vygotsky, 1978). The whole gets better simply by being collective and sharing knowledge. Students learn in this sense through imitation and vicarious experience. As they see others on the team be successful at something, they, in turn, believe that they can be successful.

When a team works through a problem, there is the potential for knowledge to be constructed both for the collective and the individual. The participants internalize the language and knowledge of the team throughout the process (Edwards & Mercer, 1987). As shared knowledge is acquired, the team of individuals becomes more of a collective. As the team continues to be collective and share knowledge, lifelong learning for each member occurs. Individuals merge together as a team and as they grow together, they learn together.

Teaming

Edmondson believes the old ways of developing teams will no longer work in this fast-paced global environment as projects and people are continually shifting and innovative ideas are continually evolving. The time that teams have taken to build trust is no longer feasible. The marketplace is moving at too fast of a pace to allow time for selecting, building, and training the ideal team for a task (Edmondson, 2013). This concept of teaming requires that people "get comfortable with a new way of working rather than with a new set of colleagues" (Edmondson, 2012b). It involves recognizing needed collaborators and learning what is already known so work can be done together (Edmondson, 2013). Teaming involves lifelong learners at every level of an organization. The function of a team can no longer be about executing tasks but needs to be primarily focused on collective learning.
Edmondson presents "organizing to learn" as a new way to lead. She believes that in order to promote collective learning, an organization must develop critical teaming behaviors in their people (Edmondson, 2012a). Teaming, by definition, is a learning process (Edmondson, 2012a). Teaming takes the best of project management and combines it with team leadership (Edmondson, 2012b). This makes it possible to both plan and execute in this rapidly changing world while promoting collaboration in short-term teams that do not have the same amount of time to develop relational capacity as the traditional team (Edmondson, 2102b). Not only does

teaming call for learning and transformation to take place through a sociocultural approach, it lines up well with the strengths that the millennials bring to organizations. The university classroom often engages students in group projects. The time they have to develop relationships is often limited. This model of teaming could not only set them up well to be successful as students but also set them up for life beyond college. Edmondson proposes and calls the millennials to not only bring the hard and soft skills they have learned to an organization but to continue to refine and develop those skills so that the teams they join and lead can function at their highest level.

Postgraduate Environment

Millennials are entering the workforce in higher numbers and more rapidly than society can prepare them. In contrast, the Baby Boomers are on their way out at high rates and with great speed (Elmore, 2010). By the year 2025, it is expected that millennials will make up 75% of the global workforce (Barrett, 2011). The millennial generation, the largest generation to enter the workforce, is facing a tough economy and having to find new ways of navigating the organizational landscape that is emerging.

Companies are working to reduce costs by reducing the layers of management and using teams as a way to accomplish this. Teams learn more quickly, perform better, and adapt to change more easily (Levi, 2014). Meister and Willyerd predict that by the year 2020, it will be more of the norm for companies to hire entire teams. Teams will even move from company to company together as they have already built their working relationships and desire to keep them intact. NIIT, an IT company in India, is already putting this into practice. They sponsor a business planning competition at the college level and hire the winning team (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). The current generation working its way through college appears to be well-suited to take on this challenge.

The postgraduate environment leaves space for uncertainty, change, and innovation. As many sectors of society explore a more collaborative, team-oriented environment, the millennials possess an opportunity to truly make meaning out of their lives. The potential to walk alongside of them in this process is not small.

Methodology

This section contains a summary of the methodology used in this study including population, data collection, and data analysis techniques.

Population and Sample Selection

The sample was selected from undergraduate student leaders who attended Christian undergraduate colleges or universities in the midwestern United States. Three schools were chosen for interviews. Twenty-one students from these schools (seven from each school) were interviewed. This included undergraduates, who are over 18 years of age, and have been in a leadership position that operates in a team environment for at least one year. It was important

that the students had experience on a team because it guaranteed that they were able to provide information useful to this study.

Data Collection

A basic qualitative research study was performed. The primary instrument for data collection and analysis was the researcher (Merriam, 2009). Each participant was interviewed once. Initially, a questionnaire was sent out via Survey Monkey for all participants to share some demographic data (see Appendix 1). Next, a semi-structured interview was used. The interview protocol can be seen in Appendix 2.

Interviews lasted for approximately one hour. With consent, each interview was recorded with an Iphone and transcribed after the interview. Each participant was given a pseudonym that was used in analyzing and reporting the data in order to protect confidentiality. Transcripts were written to fully capture each interview. Follow-up emails were sent when the researcher needed further clarification.

Data Analysis

The analysis of this data was "ultimately inductive and comparative" (Merriam, 2009). The procedure for collection and analysis followed the constant comparative method (Merriam, 2009). The researcher typed memos throughout the research process. As the data was revealed, basic team processes and relationships within teams emerged that appear significant to this sample population. The researcher then coded and wrote on the core categories that emerged (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).
Transcribed interviews were used to further analyze the data. It was imperative to develop a "manageable classification or coding scheme" (Patton, 2002). The data was coded from the transcripts whenever possible.

Further insights were sought after with a few other techniques. Ideas and themes that began to emerge from the data were tried out on some of the participants. The researcher also stepped back from the data and thought about the concepts, analogies, and metaphors that applied to the possible themes emerging in the data (Merriam, 2009).

Findings

The findings of this research included a wide range of team experiences that were both positive and negative. Four themes surfaced. Themes included: value they found in being on a team, team skills, team culture, and team leadership.

In spite of having had some negative experiences, participants affirmed that they found value in being part of a team. Four categories found included: integral to the human experience, community element, personal growth, and preparation for the future.

Team skills with a high value to participants were significant in the following areas: communication, creativity, encouragement, taking initiative, emotional intelligence, and balance

between fun and serious. Participants reported that these skills were important to being good team members.

Team culture was the third major theme found in the study. Participants believed there were several things that were essential to a team's culture. The subthemes within team culture included: all in it together, time together outside of team, diversity, inclusion, psychological safety, collective learning, humility, accountability, team role is strength-based, and supervisor support.

The study also revealed that team leadership was another important theme in regard to team experiences. Hierarchy was mentioned as a positive aspect of a leader by only two participants. Both of these participants followed that up by stating that the leader needed to either be approachable or balance their authority with side-by-side leadership. Many participants wanted a leader that came alongside of them and was treated as an equal. Several also shared that it was key that the leader worked in collaboration with the team and not dictate to team members.

Some participants shared that leadership was a shared or fluid entity. Team leadership could either be held and shared by more than one person on a team or it could be passed around to other team members according to their strengths and passion.

The leader's role was often defined as facilitator. It was seen as a necessary role for a team to function but not as one that had more value. For many, this also implied that the role of the leader would hold more responsibility but more responsibility did not elevate the leader above the team. The research showed that it was also important in a leader's practice that they empowered the team.

The skills that a leader needed according to the research included: keeping the team on task, vision, and emotional intelligence. There seemed to be an understanding that the leader should adjust according to who was on the team. In general, it appeared that there was not one right way to lead but that how an individual leads would depend on who was a member of the team.

Discussion

While this research only represents a small subgroup of the millennial population, it is the hope of this researcher that these findings add to what is already known about the millennials and will aid in better equipping the university to prepare millennials for the global economy. It is also a desire that these findings will inform the postgraduate environment on how to meet the millennials where they are and guide them to grow into who they can become.

The millennials are an image-rich generation (Elmore, 2010). Therefore, each participant who took part in this research was asked to share a metaphor for what they considered their ideal team experience. Several metaphors shared provided vivid images capturing much of what millennials value in regard to teams. There is hope that through these images the reader might gain deeper insight into who the millennials are.

Permaculture, an invivo term, was a rich metaphor in the data that was used to illustrate an ideal team. This was described as a small ecosystem that was sustained by an organic farming technique where pesticides were not used. Onions and strawberries grew next to each other and there was an absence of straight rows that would normally consist of only green beans. The brain behind the operation was a farmer who had researched what the garden needed to grow. The farmer knew each plant and what it needed well.

This metaphor provided a strong framework for what this research study found to be of value to millennials in regard to teams. Results indicated that these students desired to be a part of a small ecosystem, a community. Participants in this research study wanted a place to belong, a place to be known, and desired deeper connections that could be built outside of the structured time together as a team. One participant said it "crushes his sprit" to not be able to have some fun during a meeting. Could it be that creating a space for millennials to connect and to build relationships with depth while having fun may help them stay committed to organizations and tasks?

This ecosystem or community creates a space for the participants to grow. This research study highlighted that this generation believes they can accomplish more as a team. Participants wanted to contribute well to their team and be a member who was not only growing in self-awareness but also drawing out the best in others. Growing in and exhibiting emotional intelligence including understanding self, awareness of others, and ability to build and navigate relationships was a recurring theme throughout the interviews. As adaptive leadership continues to take root in the globalized economy, emotional intelligence is essential to building strong leaders (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).
It was significant in the findings that the team environment was psychologically safe. Participants wanted to feel loved and cared for as well as contribute to establishing an environment where others felt love and care. Both the giving and the receiving of encouragement and support seemed to be expectations for these students when they were a part of a team. There was also a strong emphasis placed on trust.

Permaculture is an organic farming technique where pesticides are not used. It is a natural process with nothing artificial added. This was highlighted through the desire for authenticity that came across in participants' responses. Many respondents either wanted to grow in humility themselves or they wanted to be around others who were humble. Those who lead millennials need to understand that they are not interested in big claims that do not have a foundation on which to stand.

In the permaculture metaphor, onions and strawberries grow next to each other. The pungency of the onions keeps away the insects that would normally eat the strawberries. The majority of participants shared that they wanted to be empowered to do what they needed to do. One participant stated that not being empowered made her feel like she was being "oppressed."

Just as onions brought different strengths to the garden than strawberries, this research indicated that the uniqueness of each individual on a team needs to be understood and appreciated. While current literature suggests that millennials are used to being "special," this theme seemed to reach beyond that idea (Elmore 2010, 116). This research conveyed that participants wanted to

be known and understood for who they were and what they uniquely brought to the team. They acknowledged that each one of them is different and has a different story that needs to be taken into consideration not only by the leader but also by other team members. As one participant explained through his metaphor, he does not consider an ideal team a melting pot. This would mean that as people "melted" into the pot, each person lost a part of themselves. He believed that an ideal team is more like a salad bowl where ingredients are mixed together but each maintained their unique identity.

This research also supports that millennials believe each individual voice has value on a team and should be heard (Dorsey, 2010). All but one of the participants mentioned this had worth. For many it was simply expected. The value of this should not be underestimated. While there is a time and place for all voices to be heard, new and creative ways to help millennials feel heard need to be explored. Granting these individuals a space to be heard could potentially be key to their short -term passion and their long-term commitment to an organization.

As the pungency of the onions protects the strawberries from insects, the findings also highlight that these students want to be on teams where they can operate out of their strengths. By allowing for this, each team member can cancel out each other's weaknesses. Participants wanted to understand well what each team member brought to the collective whole. It was indicated that these students are not interested in being planted in a row like green beans. It appears significant that they seem to not only expect diversity but find it necessary to gain the best outcome from the team. Participants also understood how each person has their own story and the individual needs that come from those stories should be valued and respected. The team and leader should accordingly.

This research attested to the fact that communication between team members is important, especially being able to listen to what other members are saying. It was also indicated that taking initiative, being proactive, accountability, and commitment were strong traits to have in a team member. Given a compelling vision, they may be more likely to jump in and make things happen.

The permaculture farmer had researched the garden and understood what it needed to grow. This research indicated a strong desire from participants to be known by their leader. The leader should be aware of what the team needs and adjust accordingly. It was also indicated that these students value the support of their supervisor. Heifetz and Linsky would support this way forward through adaptive leadership. A competent leader in this economy must be able to diagnose the situation and the dynamics of the people and then be able to take action (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009).

In regards to team leadership, this research indicated that there may be some new trends developing. As leadership has often been viewed from an authoritative lens (Northouse, 2012), the trend seems to be shifting to a leader who comes alongside their followers and considers herself as having no more value than the rest of the team. All but four of the participants were clear that they did not want to be seen as authoritarian and even the two who supported hierarchy said that it needed to be balanced with the leader coming alongside of the team members.

As Mattison explained, millennials do not seem to understand the "unwritten rules of hierarchy" (Mattison, 2014). This research affirmed that these students want a leader who is collaborative, not authoritative. Some even went as far to say that leadership is not really necessary on a team but did convey that this meant that the individuals on the team all had to be highly self-motivated. Almost half of the participants expressed that they saw leadership as something that was fluid or shared. This implied that team leadership was not something assigned to one person throughout the duration of a team. It was described as a role that moved around based on strengths, passions, and responsibilities.
According to this research, another possible shift in thinking in regards to leadership and millennials is that the position of the leader is simply a role that is held on a team. It does not imply greater value to that role or to the person in that role. Each member and each role was seen as equal. The leader may have extra responsibilities.

This study indicated that the main responsibility of a team leader is to facilitate. This implies setting an agenda, keeping people on task, and holding people accountable. One person described this role through her metaphor of an ideal leader. As a leader, she saw her role as being a hallway. The role of the hallway was to facilitate connections. It did not begin or end with her as the leader but it was her job to create a space where other members felt safe and could be creative and innovative.

Participants also indicated that these students desire a leader who not only keeps the team on task but also understands the needs and strengths they bring to the team. It was also expressed that the leader should know the needs and strengths of the individual team members and be able to cast a compelling vision. It appears that there is a shift from teams where members conform to set expectations to teams that are unique in both their needs and their strengths and expect to be noticed for them. Adaptive leadership may serve these views well.

In summary, this research affirms that this generation has strengths to offer. They also bring with them some values that are more difficult to either understand or actually implement. With all of this in mind, it is important to remember that the university is a place that can begin to further equip the millennials for the global economy that awaits them as well as to better understand the world they are entering that has been built by those who came before them with a different mindset.

Implications

In light of these findings, there are many things the university can do in order to equip the millennials for the postgraduate environment that awaits them. Universities can innovate both inside and outside of the classroom. New ways of thinking and doing can be implemented through curriculum, classroom structure, and campus community.

As curriculum is developed, it is important in higher education to remember, EPIC, the acronym coined by Sweet (Sweet, 2000). This research study affirms that these students want to be connected and participate. Participation through sharing perspective is expected but they are willing and capable of so much more. This generation also wants to be empowered through experiences and is open to reflecting on these experiences with others. This causes somewhat of

a shift from the typical lecture style that many professors are used to in the formal classroom. A transition to a new way forward may not be easy.

Higher education would benefit by building bridges between the curricular and the co-curricular, allowing for the formal classroom education to be put into practice in the co-curricular as well as undergirding the co-curricular with the knowledge and critical thinking that can be obtained in the formal classroom setting. A fluid and comprehensive curriculum that ties the curricular with the co-curricular could create incredible opportunity for higher education to shape their graduates into people ready to make a difference in the global economy. Based on what is known about millennials, it would also resonate with how they want to learn. If a university's leaders are all in agreement of the type of graduate they are working together to form, this process could be feasible.

Accessible opportunity for students to engage in teamwork and collaboration while in an environment where feedback and mentoring is potentially more accessible can begin to enhance and build on the skills they learned as a generation before they arrived at the academy. Higher education has a chance to teach students to "get comfortable with a new way of working rather than with a new set of colleagues" (Edmondson, 2012b). Millennials would benefit from learning the value of collective learning, adaptive leadership, and teaming. They already think that it is a positive to connect. It would be advantageous for them to learn how to do this better.

Students could engage in teams that carry over both inside and outside the formal classroom. These teams could either be based on academic majors, student leadership opportunities, or affinity groups in which students want to get involved. Tracks that develop the teams with different interests and goals could be developed and students could remain in the teams for the extent of their time at the university. Edmondson's book, Teaming, offers a great starting point on how this could take shape.

Students could be assigned projects that extend beyond a grade, ones that will potentially make a difference on their campus, in their community, or around the world. This research supports that a compelling vision and the opportunity to be creative is important to this generation and it seems likely it would motivate this generation to work hard to make a difference for themselves and others if they were able to contribute to a greater cause together.

Teams could have a supervisor/mentor/professor who oversees the team project, dynamics, and leadership. This mentor could be the person who "knows" the student well. This is not only what the millennials are longing for but it also would likely contribute to student retention, a win for both sides.

This research supports that millennials value supervisor support and reflection as well as desire a safe environment in order to learn and grow. The millennials could be empowered to lead a team, establish collective efficacy, and complete goals that are relevant and meaningful. The mentor would encourage them, cause them to reflect, and establish a psychologically safe environment where students could feel freedom to take risks and grow interpersonally. Reflection would be a regular occurrence as this is a skill that will help them become lifelong learners.

The mentor could also provide an opportunity for each team member to understand more about themselves, the others on their team, and their emotional intelligence. They could assist in developing their delayed interpersonal skills and modeling how to do conflict well on a team. This provides a space for Vygotsky's zone of proximal development to occur as new students enter an established culture and learn from those who came before them. Mentors could also help the team discover their strengths while encouraging them to take risks and try something new. This research supports that millennials like to do the things they are good at and will gladly let others do the things in which they excel. It is important to instill in them that challenging themselves in a new area can be a positive thing that can contribute to their growth both personally and as a future professional.

Conclusion

The desired outcome of this research was that it would help organizations, the academy and those who have a heart to mature leaders develop a deeper understanding of who the millennials are, what they bring to the table, and how they can best integrate their bend toward collaboration and teams into what the establishment is already doing. If we have ears to hear, we will pay attention to what the voices represented through this research are saying. The metaphor of permaculture should be given merit as well as the shifting tide in regards to leadership. Knowing all these things, it is important that the university and the workplace take seriously the heart of this generation. It is important for the university to equip their students for the global economy that awaits them, guiding them in learning to work collaboratively with others as well as empowering them to learn in a safe space. The workplace should consider how their leaders are leading, how much and in what ways they are offering a voice to the millennials, and creating spaces where they can feel as if they belong and have purpose.

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Appendix 1

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR KATHERINE JEFFERY'S RESEARCH STUDY:

The research in which you are about to participate is designed to investigate undergraduate student leaders', a subgroup of the Millennial population, perceptions of their team experiences and is being conducted by Katherine Jeffery. In this research you will be asked some demographic information and some information about group(s) you are participating in currently. Please be assured that any information you provide will be held in strict confidence. At no time will your name be reported along with your responses. Please understand that your participation in this research is totally voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time during this study. By your completion of this questionnaire, you are giving informed consent for the use of your responses in this research project.

1. Please fill in the information below.

Name:

Address:

Address 2:

City/Town:

State:

ZIP:

Country:

Email Address:

Phone Number:

2. What is your age?
18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26
Other
3. In what year were you born? (enter 4-digit birth year; for example, 1976)
4. What is your gender? Female Male
5. What college or university do you attend?
6. In what month and year do you expect to graduate?
7. What group(s) are you currently involved in?
8. What is your role in this/these group(s)?

*Powered by SurveyMonkey

Appendix 2

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

(RQ1) How do student leaders describe their own participation in their self-selected life experiences in teams?
(RQ2) How do student leaders describe team process in their self-selected life experiences in teams?
(RQ3) How do student leaders describe team membership in their self-selected life experiences in teams?

Core Interview Questions

Think of a time when you were involved in a group experience.
Who was there?
What was the purpose of being part of this group?
Describe some of the characteristics of this group.
What happened?
What did you do? What was your role?
What were your interactions like with the others in the group?
What were others' interactions with you like?
How were decisions made in the group?
Was there any leadership in the group?
Describe what leadership looked like in the group.
How did it feel to be part of this experience?
What did you take away from the experience?
Is there anything you would change about this experience?
Next time you were in a group, did anything change for you?
How did the way you think about groups change?
How did the way you think about your participation in groups change?
What advice would you give someone who came behind you in regards to being in a group?
What advice would you give the leader?
If you could go back in time would you do anything differently?
Describe your ideal group experience.
What metaphor would you use to describe this experience?
Describe the ways in which group members/yourself/leader would interact in this ideal experience.
How would it feel to be a part of this ideal group experience?
Describe your picture of an ideal group member.
Suppose I was in a group with you. How would I describe you? What behaviors/attitudes would I notice?
Some people would say that leadership in a group is not necessary. How would you respond to that?
What do you think quality leadership looks like in a group?
What metaphor would you use to describe leadership for a group?
What has been your most significant contribution to a group?

Closing Question

Is there anything else you would like to say about the topic of group experience?

Appendix 3

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The research you are about to engage in is designed to investigate the perceptions undergraduate student leaders, a subgroup of the Millennial population, have in regard to their team experiences. It is conducted by Katherine Jeffery as part of her doctoral (PhD) dissertation at Trinity International University. Please be assured that any information you provide will be held with confidentiality. At no time will your name be reported along with your responses. Please understand that your participation in this research is totally voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time during this study. By signing, you agree to have your interview recorded.

"I acknowledge that I have been informed of, and understand, the nature and purpose of this study, and I freely consent to participate."

Name: Date:

Signed:

A Comparison of Critical Thinking Skills of Students Enrolled In a College Level Global Seminar Course

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University of Georgia

Rainer Haas
BOKU University - Vienna, Austria

John C. Ricketts
Tennessee State University

Abstract

In recent years, the discussion concerning critical thinking and problem solving among college graduates and new industry hires has increased dramatically. A plethora of research has discovered that college graduates entering the workforce are lacking in their ability to problem solve and think critically. These attributes have been called some of the most necessary for an individuals' success in the 21st century. The purpose of this study was to identify the variance in critical thinking skills of students (undergraduate and graduate) enrolled in an International course (Global Seminar) using the UF-EMI Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment. Students representing the US, Italy, and Austria participated in this study (N=45). Results indicate that the entire population fell within the typical ranges for EMI scores for all three constructs (Engagement, Cognitive Maturity, and Innovativeness) but would be classified as weak overall. There was however a slight difference in mean scores when comparing the US and European students. American students scored higher than the Italian students for all three constructs and higher than the Austrian students for the Engagement and Innovativeness constructs. These results warrant further research to determine which factors (courses completed, majors, experiential learning opportunities, internships, etc.) enhance one's critical thinking dispositions during their tenure in college and to what extent culture impacts college student's critical thinking dispositions.

Introduction

In recent years, the discussion concerning critical thinking, a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems, (Bisdorf-Rhoades et al., 2005) and agricultural education has increased dramatically. Although a recent topic of discussion, the formal educational philosophy of critical thinking in the United States stems from work that John Dewey performed in 1933. Dewey believed that there were attributes necessary for an individual to experience reflective actions (critical thinking); open mindedness, responsibility, and whole heartedness. These attributes of critical thinking have been called some of the most necessary for an individuals' success in the 21st century (Huitt, 1998).

New industry hires are expected to have polished leadership and teamwork skills, initiative, interpersonal and social networking skills, and problem solving skills (Employers, 2010). These skills are often referred to in the literature as "soft skills". "Employers, colleges and universities

have become more cognizant of the role that such so-called "soft" or non-cognitive skills play in successful performance in both academic and nonacademic arenas" (Dwyer, Millett & Payne, 2006, p. 18). According to Brungardt (2011), numerous studies between 1986 and 2006 provided evidence that soft skills would be critical to future workplace effectiveness. Therefore, it is critical that leadership education faculty present a cadre of opportunities to assist students in identifying and strengthening their leadership, communication, and critical thinking attributes before entering the job market.

A study completed in 2008 by the Center for Agribusiness and Economic Development at the University of Georgia showed that job candidates (undergraduates seeking positions) were overly focused on technical skills and not soft skills such as communication and leadership. They found that job candidates needed more emphasis on critical thinking, problem solving, and analytical skills. A National Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU) study of seven soft-skill clusters consisting of communication, decision-making/problem solving, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, experiences, and leadership skills was conducted to determine which soft skills employers seek in new college graduates (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz 2011). Of these seven clusters, the top two ranked by employers were decision-making/problem solving and communication (Crawford et al., 2011). The decision-making/problem solving cluster included recognizing and analyzing problems, taking effective and appropriate actions, and realizing the effects of those actions (Crawford et al., 2011). As evidenced in the 2011 APLU study, there are a cadre of items related to "soft-skills" that new hires should be capable of performing in the work place.

In 1988 the Committee on Agricultural Education and Secondary Schools (National Research Council, 1988) reported that reconfiguring the agricultural education program was necessary if graduates were to be effective in further schooling for the workforce. Additionally, a key point of the committee's report concerned their conclusion that adequate opportunities should be presented to students for practicing critical thinking with increasing variety and regularity, both in and outside of the classroom. Little research has been performed concerning critical thinking skills of higher education students, both domestic and international (Ricketts, Williams, & Priest, 2009). This study looks to predict and analyze the critical thinking skills of students enrolled in a higher education course in a cohort with international universities.

Based on these conclusions, we look to further define critical thinking as it pertains both to agricultural education within the classroom and the objectives of this research. Critical thinking usually involves the student's ability to do a few or most of the following:
"identify central issues and assumptions in an argument, recognize important relationships, make correct inferences from data, deduce conclusions from information or data provided, interpret whether conclusions are warranted on the basis of the data given, and evaluate evidence or authority" (Pascarella & Terenzni, 1991, p.118).

Additionally, Glaser (1941) believed critical thinking to be the "attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experiences; knowledge of the methods of logical inquiry and reasoning; and some skill in applying these methods" (p 5-6). Halpern (1989) delineated this subject as 'thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed" (p. 5). Richard Paul (1995) defined critical thinking as

"a unique and purposeful thinking in which the thinker systematically and habitually imposes criteria and intellectual standards upon the thinking, taking charge of the construction of thinking, guiding the construction of the thinking according to [critical thinking] standards, and assessing the effectiveness of the thinking according to the purpose, criteria, and the standards [of thinking]" (p. 21).

Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) determined that "critical thinking is a reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information and for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely" (p. 5). Additionally, Paul & Scriven (2003) described critical thinking as the "intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication as a guide to belief and action" (p. 1).

Although several critical thinking studies (Ricketts, Williams, & Priest, 2009; Cano, 1993; Rollins, 1990; Rudd, Baker, & Hoover, 2000) have been conducted in previous years, limited research related regarding critical thinking and agriculture students in higher education have been identified, especially in the fields of agricultural education and leadership development. This study seeks to identify and further explain critical thinking and its related skills in students attending higher education institutions, participating in an International Agriculture Global Seminar course.

The Global Seminar was developed in 1997 out of the idea that global sustainability in agriculture needs an inter-disciplinary, inter-cultural and innovative approach. Soon the idea was to form a Global classroom by using videoconferences; to bring students from different parts of the world together as the main actors, not as passive recipients of lectures but as stakeholders of a future, which will rely on their decisions. To simulate reality it was decided to use case studies and not theoretical disciplines.

One key element of the practical implementation of the Global Seminar is to understand its specific learning cycle which has its theoretical foundation in Kolb's experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984). Figure 1 gives a practical example how the experiential learning cycle is implemented in the Global Seminar. The videoconferences are embedded into a three to four week "learning cycle". The learning cycle starts when each teacher in the consortium presents the case study to their local students by conventional face-to-face lecture.

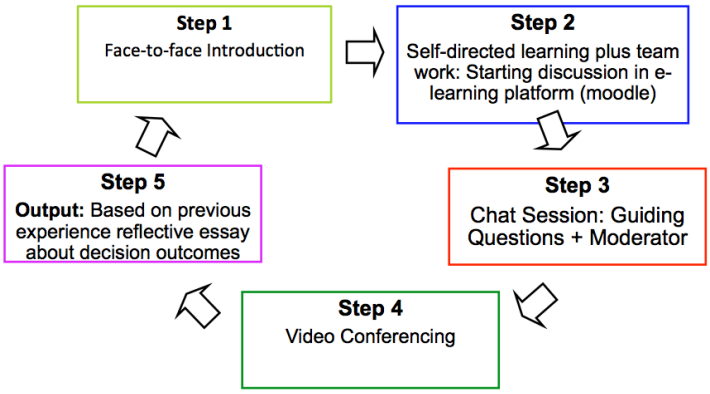

Figure 1: The blended e-learning cycle of the Global Seminar

In Step 1 a responsible team of students for the specific case study is defined. The team is informed about their specific roles and tasks and over the next weeks they have to do self-directed learning. For example, in the Golden Rice case study one team gets the role to represent the Indian state minister's council on food and agriculture. They have to listen to all presentations and discuss the issues behind Golden Rice and food fortification and may ask for further clarification from any of the groups.

In Step 2 all students are engaged in self-directed learning; they gather information and share it with their local classmates in the respective e-learning platform. Additionally, there is an opportunity for students to engage in small empirical fieldwork such as qualitative interviews with decision makers from the private sector; and develop questionnaires and/or make quantitative interviews.

In Step 3 students from all universities in the Global Seminar cluster discuss various aspects of the actual case study via virtual chat sessions. Due to the high number of students several chat rooms are formed with a maximum of six students per room. The discussion is moderated by providing guiding questions related to the case study. In Step 4 the synchronous videoconference takes place bringing together all students from the university cluster. Each videoconference follows a specific protocol that includes time for debriefing and reflection. Finally, Step 5 requires students to write a reflective essay about their learning experience.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study originates from Peter Facione (1990) and his results from conducting a national Delphi study of experts to define critical thinking. His definition concludes that "we understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgment, which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based" (p. 2). From this study, the critical thinking skills identified was Interpretation, Explanation, Analysis, Evaluation, Inference, and Self-regulation. In addition, Facione (1990) refers to his identification of critical thinking dispositions, or approaches to life that increase an individual's likelihood to participate in critical thinking. These dispositions

include analyticity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness, maturity, open mindedness, systematicity, and truth-seeking. Further characteristics are described by Facione in 1998:
'Inquisitiveness with regard to a wide range of ideas, concern to become and remain well-informed, alertness to opportunities to use critical thinking, trust in the process of reasoned inquiry, self-confidence in one's own abilities to reason, open-mindedness regarding divergent world views, flexibility in considering alternatives and opinions, understanding the opinions of other people, fair-mindedness in appraising reasoning, honesty in facing one's own biases, prejudices, stereotypes, or egocentric tendencies, prudence in suspending, making, or altering judgments, willingness to reconsider and revise views where hones reflection suggests that change is warranted" (p.8).

Dispositions develop over time and are influenced by an individual's surrounding environment. They are strong precursors of critical thinking and even though they can be changed, they often change slowly and over an extended period of time (Irani, T., Rudd, R., Gallo, M., Ricketts, J., Friedel, C., & Rhoades, E., 2007).

A conceptual behavior model regarding critical thinking skill development was created from the theoretical framework of Facione (Ricketts, 2003). This model is centered around and derived from the Triandis (1980) Model of Human Behavior. This study focuses on the critical thinking skill, the behavior that is influenced by critical thinking attitudes, and the facilitating factors and critical thinking disposition that combine to create the critical thinking skill, within the context of leadership and agriculture in higher education students. The behavioral model below, adapted from Triandis (1980) will ground this research. Age, gender, GPA, and leadership experience and training are categorized as facilitating factors, and when added with critical thinking dispositions a behavior/critical thinking skill is created (see Figure 2).

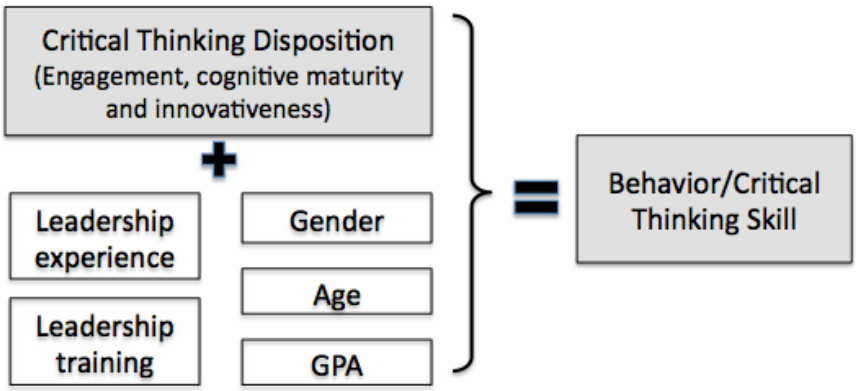

Figure 2: Conceptual Model of Critical Thinking Skills (Behavior) Development (Ricketts and Rudd, 2005)

Following factor analyses of Facione's dispositions, a critical thinking research group from four universities determined that the aforementioned three factors of cognitive maturity, engagement, and innovativeness were more comprehensive and explanatory of critical thinking dispositions (Irani, et al., 2007). Thus, faculty at the University of Florida set out to develop an instrument

that more accurately measured critical thinking disposition. The resulting instrument, the EMI, was developed and submitted to pilot testing in 2003 (Irani, et al., 2007).

Engagement, cognitive maturity, and innovativeness are usually measured via an instrument referred to as the University of Florida Engagement, Cognitive Maturity, Innovativeness (UF-EMI): Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment (Ricketts, Williams, & Priest, 2009). According to Ricketts and Rudd (2005):

> "The Engagement disposition measured students' predisposition to look for opportunities to use reasoning; anticipating situations that require reasoning; and confidence in reasoning ability. The Innovativeness disposition measured students' predisposition to be intellectually curious and wanting to know the truth. The Cognitive Maturity (Maturity) disposition measured students' awareness of the complexity of real problems; being open to other points of view; and being aware of their own and others' biases and predispositions" (p. 33).

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to identify the variance in critical thinking skills of students (undergraduate and graduate) enrolled in an International course (Global Seminar). The specific objectives guided this research project:

1. Identify specific demographic characteristics of the students enrolled in the Global Seminar;
2. Identify critical thinking dispositions of students enrolled in the Global Seminar using the UF-EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment; and
3. Compare critical thinking dispositions between US and European students enrolled in the Global Seminar using the UF-EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment; and
4. Compare critical thinking dispositions between undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in the Global Seminar using the UF-EMI: Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment.

Methods

This descriptive post-test only study was conducted with all students (N=47) enrolled in the Global Seminar Cohort 6. Students from four institutions (two USA; one Italian; one Austrian) participated in the 15 week long course that focused on four case studies that were linked to agriculture and the environment.

Each student voluntarily completed the UF-EMI that utilizes the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory CCTDI cutoff points developed by Facione and colleagues (1996, p.13) to determine a strong, medium, and weak disposition to critical thinking along with related demographic (age, gender, area of residents, current degree program and major, and country of residency) questions on their respective campuses. Participants were contacted via email at the end of the semester and asked to fill out the on-line UF-EMI instrument. Follow-up email

notifications were used following Dillman's (2007) *Tailored Design Method*. A total of 45 students completed the instrument resulting in a 95% response rate.

The post-test only version of the UF-EMI contains 26 items, each relating to one of the three constructs: engagement, cognitive maturity, and innovativeness. Reliability has been calculated on each of the constructs and ranges from: ($\alpha = 0.79$ to 0.93). The instrument asks the participant to select a level of agreement with the statement after completing the course. Level of agreement responses are as follows: SD = strongly disagree, D = disagree, U = uncertain, A = agree, SA = strongly agree.

Data was analyzed with Excel and SPSS. Analysis and findings will involve aggregate data which does not allow the researcher or any consumer of the research to be able to identify participants responses to any of the questions or survey items.

Results

Objective one: Demographic Characteristics.

Students represented the following majors: agricultural education, agricultural leadership, agronomy, food science, environmental resource sciences, environmental health science, agrarian sciences and technologies, International agriculture and business, agrarian biotechnology, agricultural economics, and forestry. As evidenced in Table 1, 80% of the respondents fall between the ages of 21-25. Gender is nearly equally represented and 47% of the respondents reported being from rural residency. Lastly, nearly 1/3 of the respondents are from the US and another 1/3 are from Italy.

Table 1.
Demographic Characteristics of Student Participants

Characteristic	*F*	*%*
Age		
21-25	36	80
26-30	5	11
31+	4	8
Gender		
Female	21	47
Male	24	53
Academic Level		
Undergraduate	27	60
Graduate	18	40
Area of Residence		
Urban	13	29
Suburban	11	24
Rural	21	47
Country of Residency		
USA	16	36
Italy	14	31

Austria	10	22

Note. Total *N*=45.

Objective two: Critical Thinking Disposition of All Students Enrolled in the Global Seminar.

For all respondents (*N*=45), the mean total score of the UF-EMI was calculated as 103. Mean scores ranged from a low of 56 to a high score of 124 (Table 2). The UF-EMI utilizes the CCTDI cutoff points developed by Facione, et al., (1996, p.13) to determine a strong, medium, and weak disposition to Critical Thinking. A reported score of 136.95 or higher on the UF-EMI is considered a strong disposition while a 135.30 to a 110.55 score is moderate, and a score of 108.90 or less constitutes a weak disposition to critical thinking.

Table 2.
Critical Think Disposition of All Students

Construct	*N*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Mean*	*SD*
Total	45	56	124	103.00	12.95
Engage	45	22	53	42.33	6.21
Maturity	45	18	40	31.07	4.05
Innovate	45	13	35	28.69	4.16

Objective three: A comparison of critical thinking dispositions between US and European students.

As presented in Table 3, the US students' critical thinking dispositions are higher than their European counterparts for the engagement and innovative constructs. More specifically, the largest gap is between US and Italian students for the engagement construct.

Table 3.
Critical Thinking Dispositions of US and European Students

Country		ESum	MSum	ISum	TSum
United States	Mean	46.00	31.73	30.93	108.20
	N	16	15	16	15
	SD	3.88	2.31	2.48	7.63
Italy	Mean	39.85	29.61	26.38	94.83
	N	14	13	13	12
	SD	5.31	3.04	2.90	9.77
Austria	Mean	43.16	32.08	28.33	103.58
	N	12	12	12	12
	SD	7.70	6.02	5.36	18.40

Note. ESum = engage; MSum = maturity; ISum = innovative; and TSum = total of all respondents.

Objective four: Compare critical thinking dispositions between undergraduate and graduate students.

Regarding differences in the critical thinking dispositions of undergraduate and graduate students, the graduate students scored higher but the variance wasn't significant (Table 4).

Table 4.
Critical Thinking Dispositions of Undergraduate and Graduate Students

Degree		ESum	MSum	ISum	TSum
Undergraduate	Mean	42.62	30.74	28.03	101.46
	N	27	27	26	26
	SD	6.95	3.79	4.35	14.31
Graduate	Mean	44.27	32.18	29.55	105.25
	N	18	16	18	16
	SD	4.34	4.246	3.64	11.56

Note. ESum = engage; MSum = maturity; ISum = innovative; and TSum = total of all respondents.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The students in this study represented a cadre of college majors ranging from agricultural education, food science, environmental resource sciences, and environmental health science, to agrarian biotechnology and forestry. Eighty-percent of the respondents fell between the ages of 21-25, 60% reported being an undergraduate; gender was nearly equal and nearly 1/3 of the respondents were from the US and another 1/3 from Italy. As previously mentioned, a UF-EMI score of 136.95 or higher is considered a strong disposition while a score ranging from 135.30 – 110.55 is moderate. A score less than 108.9 constitutes a weak disposition to critical thinking.

With that said, the entire group (N=45) of college students in this study would be classified as weak overall. Previous studies discovered similar results when students' critical thinking dispositions were determined by one or more of the following assessments: California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) and the Cornell Critical Thinking Test (Bataineh & Zghoul, 2006; Baker, Hoover & Rudd, 2000). It must be noted though that a researcher in this study who has extensive experience with critical thinking research at both secondary and post-secondary levels has never witnessed critical thinking disposition values at this low a level. This concern warrants further research to determine which factors (courses completed, majors, experiential learning opportunities, internships, etc.) enhance one's critical thinking dispositions during their tenure in college.

United States students (both undergraduate and graduate) scored higher on all three critical thinking dispositions when compared to the Italian students, and scored above the Austrian students on the Engagement and Innovativeness dispositions. According to Irani, et al., (2007), typical ranges for EMI scores fall between 28-55 (Engagement), 16-40 (Cognitive Maturity), and 15-35 (Innovativeness). Therefore, all students in this study fell within the typical EMI mean score ranges for all three dispositions, but the maximum mean scores for each population group were below the "typical" maximum score for each disposition. This is especially evident with the Italian students' Cognitive Maturity mean score of 29.61. According to Ricketts and Rudd (2005), "The Cognitive Maturity (Maturity) disposition measures students' awareness of the

complexity of real problems; being open to other points of view; and being aware of their own and others' biases and predispositions" (p. 33).

The nature of this Global Seminar course challenges students to consider and understand differing positions and points of view regarding controversial topics in agriculture and the environment. Due to the size of this study, the results can't be generalized beyond the population. However, further inquiry is needed to determine if culture has an impact on the Cognitive Maturity disposition. Additionally, the researchers need to identify the extent to which each stages two through four of Figure 1 is impacting the students' critical thinking dispositions. Finally, the fact that the European students are not native English speakers must be considered. There could be a bias in answers to the UF-EMI statements due to the possible challenges in understanding the questions correctly. It is not possible at this stage of research to indicate how strong the influence of "language bias" could be, but based on the researchers' observations during the videoconference discussions the level of English from the Austrian students was better in general compared to the Italian students. The Austrian students were more fluent in expressing their thoughts in comparison to the Italian students and conducted their presentations without reading directly from their notes; Italian students follow their notes closely during video conferences and don't freely share their thoughts and observations.

In addition to the "language bias" the lower levels of critical thinking dispositions may be due to cultural differences and/or differences in the education systems between the US and Europe. One of the European researchers in this study taught courses at an American university and experienced first-hand active and vivid engagement of the US students during classroom discussions. The US students seemed to be more at ease to express their opinions freely in a classroom situation. The US students classroom engagement may be due to the way children in the US are raised, being encouraged early on by their parents to talk in front of adults or it reflects the positive environment of education system in the US; which uses less conventional one-way teaching, and more didactic formats which encourage discussion and free exchange of ideas compared to the European Union. Further investigation about the dominant didactic forms of teaching at the participating universities would be necessary to clarify these assumptions.

The Engagement disposition measures students' predisposition to look for opportunities to use reasoning; anticipating situations that require reasoning; and confidence in reasoning ability. As previously mentioned, all three groups scored with the acceptable range, but the Italian students mean scores was below that of the US and Austrian students. One might conclude that all students in this study lack the confidence in their reasoning ability. Therefore, they may not look for opportunities to challenge or reason with students from other cultures that think differently and hold differing opinions of controversial issues such as those presented in this course.

Finally, when comparing differences between undergraduate (N=27) and graduate (N=18) students, the graduate students mean scores were slightly higher for all three dispositions (Engagement, Cognitive Maturity and Innovativeness), but the variance wasn't significant. Hassan and Madhum (2007) found similar results with students enrolled at a private institution in Lebanon with one exception, business students. King, Mines and Wood (1990) studied 40 college seniors and 40 graduate students; they found significant main effects for educational level - graduate students scored higher than undergraduates (p. 178).

If university faculty is to truly train future leaders they must determine the extent at which our pedagogical processes and university experiences are preparing students to think more critically; be intellectually curious, aware of the complexity of real problems, and open to others' biases and predispositions. Research has proven that industry leaders are expecting institutions of higher education to better prepare new hires to face the many challenges of a global economy that brings forth uncertainty and change (Crawford et al., 2011).

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Leadership Competencies of [State] Extension Agents: Implications for Professional Development

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine [state] Extension agents' (n= 111) perceived level of importance, knowledge, and training needs for leadership skills. Eighty-six participants completed an online instrument following the Borich Needs Assessment Model. Means and standard deviations were calculated for perceived importance and knowledge. Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores were calculated to determine training needs. The participants' perceived responses were average to above average importance for all skills; however, the participants' perceived responses were varied concerning knowledge for most skills. Based on the Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores, the five highest rated training needs were resolve conflict, efficiently manage time, assess community needs, effectively lead a team, and prioritize tasks.

However, based on the Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores by roles, the only common training need by Agriculture & Natural Resources (ANR), Family & Consumer Sciences (FCS), and 4-H Youth Development (4-H YD) agents was resolve conflict. One training need for FCS not mentioned by the other roles was create vision. The 4-H YD role needs were handle emotions and handle criticism. The other two roles did not have a high need for those two skills.

Introduction/Literature Review

The role of an extension agent has been examined for decades (Boyd, 2004; Gallaher & Santopolo, 1967; George, 1968; Patton & Blaine, 2001; Robinson, 1964; Trent & Donohue, 1971). The focus of such studies ranges from program content to which audiences should be served. According to Moore and Rudd (2005), most employers would agree that leadership skills are desirable in employees regardless of the specific job roles they must perform. From state to state and county to county, program content details and the audiences served may vary; however, one role that all agents have in common is teacher/leader. Cooper and Graham (2001) stated, "The first county agents were itinerant teachers" (para.1). Townsend (1999) said "Teaching is an enormous responsibility where teachers are leaders" (p. 4). And John F. Kennedy believed "leadership and learning are indispensable to each other" (John F. Kennedy Presidential Library & Museum, n.d. para.3). The content and audiences served by Extension agents may vary, but the need and expectation to teach/lead is evident in every community.

Skills Needed to Effectively Lead

Numerous studies examining competencies needed for extension agents to be successful have been conducted (Boyd, 2004; Cooper & Graham, 2001; Gonzalez, Howell, & Lindley, 1984; Lakai, 2010; McClure, Fuhrman, & Morgan, 2012; McKim, Lawver, Enns, Smith, & Aschenbrener, 2013). However, research examining the leadership needs and abilities of extension personnel is limited. Moore and Rudd (2004 & 2005) studied the leadership skill areas

of extension administrators, but there is not a single study focusing specifically on the leadership needs and abilities of extension agents.

A case for the inextricable connection between agents and the need to teach and lead has been identified. Therefore, examining the question "What leadership skills can agents develop to become more effective leaders?" is appropriate. No matter how many different roles a county agent plays, leading is always at the core of what they do. People come to agents seeking answers to the problems and challenges they face. In order to be an effective extension agent, one must also have the necessary leadership skills that enable him/her to carry out the various aspects of the job. A conceptual framework to understand what is meant by "skill" is important. In a Harvard Business Review article, Katz (1955) defined skill as "an ability which can be developed, not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely in potential" (pp. 33-34).

Katz (1955) suggested that leadership is dependent upon three basic skills: technical, human, and conceptual. Technical skills would be considered those needed to perform in a specialized area that requires specific tools and techniques. Human skills are those needed to effectively work with people. Conceptual skills are needed to generate and articulate ideas in an organization related to visioning and strategic planning.

The Leadership Context

In addition to examining important leadership skills needed by Extension agents, it is also important to note the context(s) in which the agents lead. The researchers will provide insight into the Cooperative Extension Service to highlight the vital role that Extension plays at the national, state, and local levels. Failure to recognize the culture and climate of Extension would create a disconnect between leadership theory and practice. Andenoro et al. (2013) state, "it is critical to consider the content and the leaner within the Leadership Education context" (p.12).

The structure of the Cooperative Extension Service provides trained professionals and resources to help reach the desired outcome set by Andenoro et al. (2013) for the "Development of Vibrant & Resilient Communities" (p.22). A primary function of the Extension Service is to provide knowledge and resources generated by the teaching and research experts at land-grant universities to individuals in communities across the state and country. According to Woodrum and Safrit (2003), it is important "to attract Extension agents who are leaders and can create and share a vision of community based educational programming into the 21st century" (para. 3). To ensure agents have the leadership skills to positively impact their communities, "it will be critical for leadership scholars and educators to create research lines that will address the development of these communities" (Andenoro et al., 2013 p.22).

State Cooperative Extension budgets are tight and Extension administrators are looking for ways to compensate for reductions in funding (McClure, Fuhrman, & Morgan, 2012); therefore, efficiently utilizing resources (specialists' and agents' time, travel expenses, training materials, etc.) for professional development activities is imperative. Extension agents are responsible for the day-to-day activities aimed at increasing knowledge of agriculture among the general public. The professional development opportunities available to agents should equip them to best serve

these needs. Information collected from Extension agents through a needs assessment will allow Extension specialists to create timely and relevant in-service trainings.
According to Adenoro et al., "Communities are facing considerable challenges and complexity" (2013 p.22). Extension agents are in an ideal position to address the "complex problems and challenges faced by local communities today" (Doerfert, 2011 p. 28). However, in order to adequately handle such issues, "we must be able to better understand the models, strategies, and tactics needed to best prepare, promote, and retain new professionals who demonstrate the requisite content knowledge, technical competence, and cultural awareness, coupled with communication and interpersonal skills" (Doerfert, 2011 p.20). Studies examining the needs of extension agents can help inform the profession and allow for tailored professional development opportunities that support the agents' needs.

Research that identifies the leadership needs and abilities of Extension agents is a critical tool that will assist agents in developing the leadership skills they need to effectively perform their various roles. This research study will help fill a void in the literature and provide valuable information that will be used to create relevant and practical professional leadership development curricula and trainings for extension agents. This study aligns with the National Leadership Education Research Agenda. Andenoro et al. (2013) identify several key priority areas that should be addressed to advance the profession. Through this study the researchers seek to contribute by examining aspects of "Priority Two: Programmatic Assessment and Evaluation" (p. 9) and "Priority Six: Social Change and Community Development" (p. 22).

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership-related competencies of extension agents in [state] according to the essential competencies identified in the literature. Borich's (1980) needs assessment model was used to prioritize the competencies by importance to the agents' knowledge of each competency. The following objectives guided the study:

1. Describe the demographic characteristics of participants.
2. Describe the importance and knowledge of activities within seven leadership categories as perceived by [state] Extension agents.
3. Determine the leadership competency areas that have the greatest need for professional development (high priority areas).
4. Determine whether the high priority leadership competency areas vary with Extension agents' program area.

Procedures

The researchers performed a comprehensive review of the literature on leadership-related competencies within the context of Extension (Boyd, 2004; Cooper & Graham, 2001; Moore & Rudd, 2004). Forty-seven (47) were found to be most critical as agreed upon by an expert panel. Competencies were grouped into the following seven categories/constructs with the associated number of items/skills comprising each construct in parentheses: communication (4 skills), developing leaders (6 skills), management (8 skills), personal development (10 skills), strategic/planning (8 skills) teamwork (6 skills), and volunteer (5 skills).

The questionnaire was created using Qualtrics and shared with an expert panel to examine the instrument for face and content validity. The expert panel suggestions included clarifying the wording of a few competencies and adding two additional questions about the agents' previous leadership experience. The suggestions of the expert panel were taken into account and the instrument was revised. The revised instrument was electronically sent to the randomly selected Extension agents in [state] (n=111) via Qualtrics. The randomly selected Extension professionals were asked to respond to basic demographic and descriptive questions. The Tailored Design Method was followed (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Eighty-six (86) agents responded (77% response rate). There were 69 completed instruments in entirety and no significant differences were found between early and late responders (Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001).

The researchers investigated the level of importance for selected leadership skills. The Likert scale used for importance of the skill was 1=No Importance, 2=Below Average Importance, 3=Average Importance, 4=Above Average Importance, 5=Utmost Importance. Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.96$) was calculated for the importance scale. In addition to the importance scale, the researchers investigated the level of knowledge for selected leadership skills. The Likert scale used for knowledge of the skill was 1= No Knowledge, 2=Below Average, 3=Average Knowledge, 4=Above Average, 5=Exceptional Knowledge. Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.96$) was calculated for the knowledge scale.

The data were collected using Qualtrics and imported into PASW Statistics 18.0™. Means and standard deviations were calculated for participants' perceived importance and knowledge of the leadership skills. In addition, Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores were calculated to determine training needs. Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores were calculated first by determining the Discrepancy Score (DS). The DS score was calculated by subtracting the knowledge score from the importance score. The next calculation was to determine the Weighted Discrepancy Score (WDS). The WDS was calculated by multiplying the DS by the mean of the importance rating for each skill. The last step was to calculate the Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score (MWDS). Summing the WDS and dividing by the number of responses for each skill calculated the MWDS (see Figure 1).

DS = Importance Rating – Knowledge Rating WDS = DS x Mean Importance Rating MWDS = Σ WDS / n

Figure 1. Formulas used to calculate MWDS.

Findings

The participants in the research were predominantly female (59.4%) and mostly 4-H Youth Development agents (see Table 1). There was even representation of early and mid-career agents and a heavier emphasis on veteran agents (47.8%) with over 16 years of experience. Seventy-two percent of the participants had a Master's degree.

Table1

Participant Demographics

Characteristics		*f*	%
Gender	Male	28	40.6
	Female	41	59.4
Role	ANRa	24	34.8
	FCSb	17	24.6
	4-H YDc	28	40.6
Years of Experience	1 to 5 years	18	26.1
	6 to 10 years	7	10.1
	11 to15 years	11	15.9
	16 to 20 years	14	20.3
	21to 25 years	5	7.2
	26 to 30 years	7	10.1
	More than 30 years	7	10.1
Highest Degrees Earned	Bachelor's	18	26.1
	Master's	50	72.5
	Doctorate	1	1.4

Notes. aAgriculture and Natural Resources. bFamily and Consumer Sciences. c4-H Youth Development.

The participants' perceived responses were average to above average importance for all skills. According to Table 2, the participants responded that the five most important skills were *demonstrate appropriate behavior* (M = 4.68, SD = 0.52), *exhibit honesty* (M = 4.66, SD = 0.56, *exhibit positive attitude* (M = 4.59, SD = 0.50), *model integrity* (M = 4.59, SD = 0.60), and *build relationships with community* (M = 4.58, SD = 0.58). The five least important skills were *show empathy* (M = 3.94, SD = 0.71), *plan strategically* (M = 3.87, SD = 0.77), *negotiate* (M = 3.81, SD = 0.75), *show courage* (M = 3.81, SD = 0.81), and *serve as a coach* (M = 3.80, SD = 0.75).

Table 2

Extension Agents' Perceived Level of Importance of Leadership Skills.

Statement	*M*	*SD*
Demonstrate Appropriate Behavior	4.68	.52
Exhibit Honesty	4.66	.56
Exhibit a Positive Attitude	4.59	.50
Model Integrity	4.59	.60
Build Relationships with Community	4.58	.58

Resolve Conflict	4.54	.58
Prioritize Tasks	4.51	.58
Efficiently Manage Time	4.51	.63
Exhibit Accountability	4.49	.65
Model Respectful Behavior	4.49	.68
Employ Listening Skills	4.43	.65
Assess Community Needs	4.41	.69
Effectively Lead a Team	4.39	.62
Communicate through Public Speaking	4.38	.77
Effectively Contribute to the Team	4.37	.64
Set Goals	4.36	.68
Desire to Learn New Knowledge	4.36	.70
Achieve Goals	4.34	.74
Employ Problem Solving Skills	4.30	.65
Build Relationships with Peers	4.30	.71
Handle Emotions	4.27	.79
Develop Managerial Skills	4.26	.62
Display Enthusiasm	4.25	.65
Reading Skills	4.24	.79
Delegate Tasks	4.23	.64
Demonstrate Creative Thinking	4.19	.69
Handle Criticism	4.18	.68
Exhibit a Sense of Humor	4.17	.68
Create Stability	4.15	.68
Produce professional written documents	4.13	.73
Create Vision	4.13	.66
Openness to Organizational Change	4.13	.74
Recognize Volunteers	4.12	.76
Develop Volunteers	4.09	.72
Recruit Volunteers	4.08	.66
Engage in Critical Thinking	4.07	.71
Serve as a Mentor	4.06	.78
Manage Volunteers	4.04	.79
Promote Cultural Awareness/Diversity	4.04	.85

(Table Continues)

Evaluate People	4.01	.75
Train Volunteers	3.97	.77
Identify Talent	3.97	.80
Show Empathy	3.94	.71
Plan Strategically	3.87	.77
Negotiate	3.81	.75
Show Courage	3.81	.81
Serve as a Coach	3.80	.75

Note. Importance Scale: 1=No Importance, 2=Below Average Importance, 3=Average Importance, 4=Above Average Importance, 5=Utmost Importance.

The participants' perceived responses were varied concerning knowledge for most skills. According to Table 3, the participants responded that the five most knowledgeable skills were *exhibit honesty* (M = 4.21, SD = 0.75), *demonstrate appropriate behavior* (M = 4.18, SD = 0.67, *model integrity* (M = 4.07, SD = 0.70), *model respectful behavior* (M = 4.06, SD = 0.68), and *reading skill* (M = 4.01, SD = 0.81). The five least knowledgeable skills were *develop volunteers* (M = 3.28, SD = 0.80), *recruit volunteers* (M = 3.26, SD = 0.83), *train volunteers* (M = 3.23, SD = 0.83), *manage volunteers* (M = 3.22, SD = 0.80), and *plan strategically* (M = 3.20, SD = 0.76).

Table 3

Extension Agents' Perceived Level of Knowledge of Leadership Skills.

Statement	*M*	*SD*
Exhibit Honesty	4.21	.75
Demonstrate Appropriate Behavior	4.18	.67
Model Integrity	4.07	.70
Model Respectful Behavior	4.06	.68
Exhibit a Positive Attitude	4.04	.59
Reading Skills	4.01	.81
Exhibit Accountability	3.97	.70
Display Enthusiasm	3.93	.76
Desire to Learn New Knowledge	3.92	.80
Exhibit a Sense of Humor	3.92	.71
Build Relationships with Peers	3.86	.75
Effectively Contribute to the Team	3.82	.68
Build Relationships with Community	3.80	.78
Employ Listening Skills	3.78	.76
Communicate through Public Speaking	3.78	.82
Achieve Goals	3.73	.78
Set Goals	3.71	.73
Employ Problem Solving Skills	3.69	.84
Prioritize Tasks	3.68	.81

(Table Continues)

Serve as a Mentor	3.63	.77
Produce professional written documents	3.61	.91
Show Empathy	3.57	.72
Openness to Organizational Change	3.57	.73
Efficiently Manage Time	3.54	.74
Promote Cultural Awareness/Diversity	3.54	.79
Engage in Critical Thinking	3.54	.78
Demonstrate Creative Thinking	3.53	.85
Handle Emotions	3.52	.67
Show Courage	3.49	.75
Develop Managerial Skills	3.48	.77
Effectively Lead a Team	3.48	.73

Create Stability	3.47	.71
Recognize Volunteers	3.44	.82
Assess Community Needs	3.44	.85
Identify Talent	3.41	.81
Evaluate People	3.40	.81
Delegate Tasks	3.38	.83
Create Vision	3.38	.88
Negotiate	3.37	.78
Handle Criticism	3.35	.66
Serve as a Coach	3.33	.74
Resolve Conflict	3.32	.71
Develop Volunteers	3.28	.80
Recruit Volunteers	3.26	.83
Train Volunteers	3.23	.83
Manage Volunteers	3.22	.80
Plan Strategically	3.20	.76

Note. Scale: 1= No Knowledge, 2=Below Average, 3=Average Knowledge, 4=Above Average, 5=Exceptional Knowledge.

Training needs are represented by the Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score (MWDS) (Borich, 1980). According to Table 4, the five highest rated training needs were *resolve conflict*, *efficiently manage time*, *assess community needs*, *effectively lead a team*, and *prioritize tasks*. The five lowest rated training needs were *show empathy*, *display enthusiasm*, *show courage*, *exhibit a sense of humor*, and *reading skills*.

Table 4

Training Needs of Extension Agents

Statement	MWDSa
Resolve Conflict	5.49
Efficiently Manage Time	4.38
Assess Community Needs	4.29
Effectively Lead a Team	4.02
Prioritize Tasks	3.70
Delegate Tasks	3.60
Build Relationships with Community	3.58
Handle Criticism	3.48
Recruit Volunteers	3.36
Develop Managerial Skills	3.33
Manage Volunteers	3.32
Develop Volunteers	3.32
Handle Emotions	3.19
Create Vision	3.11
Train Volunteers	2.96
Employ Listening Skills	2.89

Create Stability	2.84
Recognize Volunteers	2.82
Set Goals	2.80
Demonstrate Creative Thinking	2.75
Achieve Goals	2.67
Employ Problem Solving Skills	2.64
Communicate through Public Speaking	2.60
Plan Strategically	2.58
Exhibit a Positive Attitude	2.51
Evaluate People	2.47
Effectively Contribute to the Team	2.40
Model Integrity	2.39
Demonstrate Appropriate Behavior	2.37
Exhibit Accountability	2.31
Openness to Organizational Change	2.30
Identify Talent	2.21
Engage in Critical Thinking	2.18
Produce professional written documents	2.16
Exhibit Honesty	2.10
Promote Cultural Awareness / Diversity	2.05

Statement	MWDSa
Model Respectful Behavior	1.95
Build Relationships with Peers	1.93
Desire to Learn New Knowledge	1.91
Serve as a Coach	1.79
Serve as a Mentor	1.74
Negotiate	1.69
Show Empathy	1.49
Display Enthusiasm	1.38
Show Courage	1.20
Exhibit a Sense of Humor	1.06
Reading Skills	0.97

Notes. aMean Weighted Discrepancy Score.

Lastly, the researchers determined the training needs by roles using the MWDS. According to Table 5, the only common training need by all three roles was *resolve conflict*. One training need for FCS not mentioned by the other roles was *create vision*. The 4-H YD role needs were *handle emotions* and *handle criticism*. The other two roles did not have a high need for those two skills.

Table 5

Training Needs of Extension Agents by Roles

Characteristics		*N*	*MWDS*
ANRa	Resolve Conflict	24.00	5.06
	Efficiently Manage Time	24.00	4.51
	Prioritize Tasks	24.00	4.23
	Delegate Tasks	24.00	3.58
	Effectively Lead a Team	24.00	3.40
	Assess Community Needs	24.00	3.40
FCSb	Effectively Lead a Team	17.00	4.59
	Build Relationships with Community	17.00	3.78
	Delegate Tasks	17.00	3.74
	Resolve Conflict	17.00	3.58
	Create Vision	17.00	3.34
4-H YDc	Resolve Conflict	28.00	6.96
	Assess Community Needs	28.00	5.55
	Efficiently Manage Time	28.00	5.43
	Handle Emotions	28.00	5.22
	Handle Criticism	28.00	4.98

Notes. aAgriculture and Natural Resources. bFamily and Consumer Sciences. c4-H Youth Development.

Conclusions

The participants randomly selected for this study were primarily female with a larger representation of 4-H Youth Development agents. In addition, nearly half of the participants had over 16 years of experience. The participants perceived all of the leadership skills presented as important. The participants perceived to their knowledge for all leadership skills to be average or greater, with the highest knowledge in the areas of *exhibit honesty*, *demonstrate appropriate behavior*, *model integrity*, *model respectful behavior*, and *exhibit positive attitude*. The participants perceived their knowledge of *develop volunteers*, *recruit volunteers*, *train volunteers*, *manage volunteers*, and *plan strategically* to be average.

Based on the findings of this study, the most important training needs were *resolve conflict, efficiently manage time*, *assess community needs*, *effectively lead a team*, and *prioritize tasks.* As stated earlier, research examining the leadership needs of Extension agents is non- existent; hence, there are no prior studies to compare. However, the aforementioned skills do align with Katz's (1955) model and could be considered either human skills or conceptual skills. When the data were further examined to determine training needs by roles, only *resolve conflict* was indicated by all three roles. There were training needs identified which did not make the top five lists—for FCS, the agents perceived training needs in *building relationship with community* and *create vision*; for 4-H Youth Development agents, perceived training needs were in *handle emotions* and *handle criticisms*.

Implications and Recommendations

With the possibility of declining or stagnant budgets, Extension organizations are looking for ways to compensate monetary shortfalls (McClure, Fuhrman, & Morgan, 2012). Conducting professional development activities to increase efficiency or impart skills to be shared with stakeholders is crucial. The following implications and recommendations are specific to the context of the research in [state], but other Extension organizations may benefit as well.

The results indicated that all 47 of the leadership skills presented in this study were important to Extension agents; furthermore, certain leadership skills and knowledge of those skills were more important. These data will assist Extension administrators and specialists in [state] as they develop the most appropriate and relevant professional development opportunities for Extension agents. Knowing what leadership skills the agents need and seek to further develop is vital to creating quality in-service in an efficient manner. With the tight budgets and high accountability/impact reporting/evaluation measures of the Cooperative Extension Service, more effective utilization of time, money, training materials/curricula, and other resources for the development and implementation of in-service trainings is necessary.

In addition, Bennett (1975) discussed how people might change their knowledge, attitudes, skills, and aspirations (KASA) as a result of Extension programming. Since knowledge is the lowest form of evaluation, trainings must be developed to address not only knowledge of the skills but also attitudes, skills, aspirations. Now that the researchers have a baseline for knowledge, further investigation is needed in the areas of Extension agents to perform leadership skills and the ability to educate others concerning leadership skills.

In conclusion, the results of this study provide a good starting point for creating and implementing leadership development in-service trainings for agents. However, the researchers recognize that this study is limited by having one sample of Extension agents in [state]; therefore replicating the study with Extension agents in other states within the southern region and states across the nation would be beneficial. In addition to replicating this quantitative study, the researchers suggest conducting qualitative studies that will examine the leadership needs, knowledge, and abilities of extension agents. The qualitative studies could also provide greater insight into the context in which agents lead through extension and their relationship with the communities they seek to develop.

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Getting the inside out: A case study describing the experiences of adolescent girls during an authentic leadership curriculum

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Abstract

The purpose of this case study was to describe the experiences of adolescent girls participating in an authentic leadership curriculum. Methods included interviews, journals, and observation. Six primary findings are reported including connecting external voice to internal self and creating margin in young lives. Implications and recommendations are discussed.

Introduction

During Women's History Month, President Barack Obama (2011) said, "to win the future, we must equip the young women of today with the knowledge, skills, and equal access to reach for the promise of tomorrow…and ensure our daughters have no limits on their dreams, no obstacles to their achievements, and no remaining ceilings to shatter" (para. 5 & 6). In 2013, women led only 14.6% of Fortune 500 companies (Molla, 2014). Women held a mere 91 of the 535 seats in the 112th United States Congress (Manning, 2012). These statistics have indicated gender inequality in leadership roles and have supported Sandberg's (2013) implication that leadership comes at a price—one that most women do not want to pay. The fight for gender equity has led to a negative trickle-down effect on female leadership. The gender gap has resulted in fewer female leaders, which has resulted in fewer examples for young girls to admire, resulting in fewer young females being inspired to lead. "For girls ages 8-12, aspirations after high school are largely educational and professional: 93% for college education; 76% for a career; 67% for marriage; and, 63% for children" (Conn, 2008). This realization left researchers looking for other solutions to address the leadership gender gap.

One solution has been the development of leadership skills at a younger age; more specifically, adolescence (Hoyt & Kennedy, 2008). Adolescence is a crucial development period where identity and perception are formed (Crain, 2001). During adolescence, youth need interventions to enhance self-efficacy, provide community, and offer opportunities for identity exploration because "self-esteem, confidence, and independence suffer in young girls in early adolescence" (Hoyt & Kennedy, 2008, p. 2008). Research has shown:

- Girls' levels of self-esteem decline 3.5 times more than their male counterparts between elementary and high school. (American Association of University Women, 2014)
- "92% of girls believe that can learn the skills required to lead—yet only 21% believe they already possess them." (Conn, 2008, p. 14).
- The risk of teenage motherhood is raised—by up to 50 percent—among teenage girls with lower self-esteem. (Dennison, 2004)

Gender specific youth development programs with a leadership emphasis have been suggested as an appropriate means to address negative self-esteem patterns (Taylor, 2014). By addressing the

confidence and self-worth levels of adolescent girls, authentic youth leadership programs have focused on strengthening self-awareness and focusing on key values and motivations. "Through the process of developing leadership skills and leading others, young people can develop the competencies needed to meet the challenges of adolescence and adulthood, while also creating and supporting opportunities for other young people to develop" (Taylor, 2014, p. 62). First, such programs may positively impact levels of self-esteem in youth. Secondly, these programs may enhance the communities and environments in which the youth live. And thirdly, such programs may potentially lead to more girls becoming women leaders.

The purpose of this case study was to describe the experiences of adolescent girls participating in an authentic leadership curriculum. The objectives of the study were:

1. To examine the intersection of authentic leadership development, positive youth development, and perception of self,
2. To describe the experiences of adolescent girls throughout a leadership development curriculum, and
3. To develop a 12-week authentic leadership development curriculum for adolescent girls.

The Association of Leadership Educator's (ALE) National Research Agenda (2011) called for "the psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners" because "although [psychological roots] are a foundational element of the Leadership Education landscape, the intricacies of personality and self-awareness, along with other variables, require continue development and additional research that will provide perspective for leadership educators tasked with preparing the next generation of leaders" (para. 9). This study specifically addressed this research priority by applying an adult leadership theory to the development of youth leaders in hopes of giving educators new and different teaching strategies for the future. Another priority of ALE (2011) was to "prepare future leaders to positively impact national and international communities" (para. 20). Using authentic leadership in youth to address perceptions of self was a new practice to respond to that call by creating meaningful learning and producing more self-aware citizens in communities.

Literature Review

The researcher created a conceptual model (Appendix A) to show the relationship between George's (2007) True North Authentic Leadership Compass, Benson's (2006) Positive Youth Developmental Assets, Lerner, Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, Phelps, Gestsdottir, and Ma's (2005) Attributes of Positive Youth Development, and Ricketts and Rudd's (2002) youth leadership model. This model was created through a review of the literature on authentic leadership, perceptions of self, and positive youth development. Authentic leadership theory and positive youth development theory both address the importance of self-awareness in its subjects. Elements of awareness, interaction, and integration from Ricketts and Rudd (2002) were the teaching methods used for the curriculum. The following literature review was conducted with special attention to studies performed with adolescent girls and/or youth development programs because limited research was found to address authentic leadership in youth (Adams, 2013).

Authentic leadership has been tied to self-esteem in the literature. In 2002, Goldman and Kernis conceptualized the term authenticity using their own measure, the Authenticity Inventory (AI).

Goldman and Kernis' (2002) findings included that individuals with higher scores on the assessment also reported high levels of self-esteem and life satisfaction. Kernis (2003) then proposed the construct of authenticity could be "characterized as the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily enterprise" and includes four components: self-awareness, action, relational, and unbiased processing (p. 1). Optimal self-esteem is satisfactory notions of self-worth that result from dealing with life in a favorable manner. Kernis (2003) believed optimal self-esteem as a product of authenticity; therefore, connecting the two and placing emphasis on the importance of authenticity.

As previously stated, very little empirical research has been done regarding authentic leadership and youth. Adams (2013) conducted a study using equine-assisted activities to teach authentic leadership to at-risk youth boys. The mixed methods study used George's 2003 model of relationships, self-discipline, purpose, values, and heart (Adams, 2013). The findings included an increase in relationships and heart, decrease in values and purpose, and no change in self-discipline. Adams (2013) encouraged future researchers to include a variety of teaching techniques and objectives, to experiment with the length of instructional sessions, and use other populations. This study builds upon the work of Adams and includes a day of equine assisted activities in the curriculum; however, as suggested by Adams (2013), it differs by using George's (2007) model of the True North Compass.

Perceptions of self were examined through the constructs of self-esteem and self-efficacy. Self-esteem has been held as a crucial element in female adolescent development (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997). Zimmerman, Copeland, Shope, and Dielman (1997), in a study of sixth to tenth graders, found that female adolescents tended to fall into a category of decreasing self-esteem whereas male adolescents fell in a group of moderate and rising self-esteem. Self-esteem is a stable construct that changes and develops over time, which makes it difficult for one particular experience to fully and completely alter self-esteem (Fox, 2000). The factors and impact of low self-esteem in adolescent girls have primarily focused on personal attributes and relational experiences (Phinney et al., 1997). Self-esteem has been connected to suicide, depression, and substance abuse, low academic performance, teen pregnancy, and peer pressure (Harter, 1990; Emler, 2001). Zimmerman et al. (1997) found that although levels of self-esteem declined overall, high levels of self-esteem corresponded with youth's resistance to peer pressure, high academic performance, and abstinence from illegal substances.

Research has shown that youth development positively impacts youth self-esteem; however, less is known on youth leadership development's connection to youth self-esteem (Taylor, 2014). Previous research has indicated little significance in the change of self-esteem through youth leadership interventions (Bandura, Millard, Peluso, & Ortman, 2000; Casiday, Kinsman, Fisher, & Bambra, 2008; Taylor, 2014). Factors contributing to this finding have been a possible ceiling effect of participants, previously established high levels of self-esteem, and the use of college students as the population of the studies (Sawyer, Pinciaro, & Bedwell, 1997; Taylor, 2014). Richer and more detailed descriptions of the process and results of youth leadership interventions were needed to better report findings in this area (Taylor, 2014). Actual hands-on leadership experiences increased levels of self-esteem in young girls, whereas those who merely attended leadership activities but did not lead and were not engaged stayed the same (Taylor, 2014). Girls

who engaged in both the training and real-life leadership activities had higher improvements (Taylor, 2014).

Studies on self-esteem in adolescent girls have been measured in a variety of ways based on the different factors effecting self-esteem. For example, statistics are broken down by substance abuse, body image, criminal activity, academic success, depression, eating disorders, and teen pregnancy (Reasoner, 2000). Some earlier researchers found studies on the perception of self frustrating and inconsistent. "After a thorough review of self-esteem studies in various areas of psychology, and keep in mind that there have been over 10,000 such studies to date, scholars at the University of California concluded that the association between self-esteem and its expected consequences were mixed, insignificant, or absent" (Pajares & Schunk, 2002, p. 15). An older report from Kohn (1994), found that studies on self-esteem interventions lacked hard data. "A few unpublished doctoral dissertations have tested children's self-esteem in the fall, introduced some sort of program intended to raise those levels, and then tested again in the spring, revealing some gains" (Kohn, 1994, p. 5).

One singular way to promote positive youth development has not been found (Jones, 2005). Because positive youth development itself was a fairly new theory in youth development, extensive research on the subject or its impact in different areas does not exist (Smith, 2007). The research that does exist has focused primarily on outcomes of positive youth development programs (Larson, 2000). Another challenge in the research was in dealing with an array of activities, rather than one specific type of activity or program making it difficult to compare similarities across programs (Larson, 2000). On the other hand, positive youth development programs were stated to be competency promoting, holistic, and observe individuality (Durlak, Taylor, Kawashima, Pachan, DuPre, Celio, Berger, Dymnicki, & Weissberg, 2007). The research surrounding positive youth development has changed the questions, the perceptions, and applied implications in youth development (Damon, 2004). By fostering positive youth development, youth educators and instructors have shifted to more ethical language to positively impact youth identity (Damon, 2004).

Methods

The current study was a qualitative case study with one issue (self-esteem) and one setting (Girls Place) (Stake, 1995; Creswell, 2006) within a particular time period (Merriam, 1998; Berg & Lune, 2004; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). The population for this study was sixth to eighth grade adolescent girls. The Girls Place clients promised a case that showed different viewpoints on the problem and process involved in this study (Creswell, 2006). The number of participants was determined by the number of girls registered for the 2014-2015 after school program at Girls Place, which were seventeen adolescent girls.

From these seventeen, one could not participant due to a chromosomal birth defect. The remaining sixteen participated in the curriculum, but only fourteen were included in the study's data collection. One was not included in the data collection due to age and then, two weeks into the study, one participant opted out of the program. Therefore, the final number of participants in the study was thirteen adolescent girls. Of the thirteen adolescents (Appendix B), only three reported previous leadership experiences through Girl Scouts, babysitting, and a middle school

leadership program. Extracurricular activities reported were swimming, dance, lacrosse, band, choir, church, volleyball, basketball, drawing club, drama, gymnastics, cheer, and track.

The current study used three data collection methods, including interviews, journals, and unobtrusive observation. Individual interviews were conducted prior to the curriculum being implemented, at the midpoint of the curriculum, and then again at the conclusion of the curriculum. All interviews were semi-structured and ranged from 5 minutes to 40 minutes. A group interview was conducted at the conclusion of the curriculum for member checking purposes. The participants used journals throughout the 12-week curriculum to document reflection on the material in the curriculum (Creswell, 2013).

The interview protocol was constructed based on two assessments: the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale. At the conclusion of interviews, an external company, Rev.com, transcribed audio data into written form. Journals were reviewed on a weekly basis and the research journal was used to chronologically document observations and the researcher's reflections. Data analysis occurred simultaneously with data collection. The researcher analyzed the data using the constant comparative method. The coding process for this study occurred in three stages: open, axial, and selective. All data analysis was performed by hand. Trustworthiness and rigor were established using member checking, triangulation, and an audit trail (Appendix C).

The First Place Leadership Program was the curriculum designed for this study. The program was conducted over a 12-week time span and met three days a week for one hour a day. The topics and activities of the curriculum were based on the components of George's (2007) authentic leadership model (self-awareness, values and principles, motivation, relationships, and integrated life), Lerner's (2000) positive youth development attributes (confidence), and Benson's (2006) positive youth development asset-building approach (self-esteem, sense of purpose) (Appendix D). The researcher was the primary instructor for the program.

Results

As will be discussed, none of these themes were mutually exclusive and involve a significant amount of overlap regarding the adolescent girls' experiences with authentic leadership. Themes that emerged fell into six broad categories including:

- When I Look in the Mirror (Perceptions of Self)
- My Happy Place (Values and Principles)
- I Want You To Want Me (Motivation)
- Family First (Support Team)
- The Future is Now (Integrated Life)
- Leadership is Good and Good is Leadership (Authentic Leadership)

Several thematic categories were discovered regarding the adolescent girls' perceptions of self. These included four sub-themes*: uncertain self, conflicted self, knowing self,* and *not myself*. Each of these themes connected to a respective aspect of authentic leadership and positive youth development theory as described below. As with each of the six overarching themes, each one of

the sub-themes included significant overlap among the participants. Two primary trends were found in the sub-themes throughout the curriculum: perception of self improved while uncertainty of self remained consistent. For the majority of participants, there was little to no knowledge of self and the terms associated with it. This was quickly realized when the researcher transitioned from asking for an explanation of self-awareness, to deconstructing the word with participants, to then asking what each participant saw when they looked in the mirror. The mirror concept opened the door for analogies and conversations regarding what were being seen and what was being looked for in the reflection. Reese (age 13) summed it up best when she added:

It doesn't matter what anybody else says or thinks about you. It's about what you think and what you ought to take in, so if you take in negative thoughts, then you're going to lower your self esteem regardless, no matter what, because they're negative thoughts, and if somebody's giving you positive comments here and there, positive thoughts and you're thinking about it, and then you're letting the negative thoughts out and putting the positive thoughts into your head, and you're thinking about it and you're gaining your self esteem back. It's about how you feel about yourself, how you look, how your attitude is, and how your grades are, and how you treat people.

Other participants had a firm understanding on the meaning of the term, yet needed assistance in the application and significance. The simplest shift that indicated a better understanding of perception of self was the length of the interviews as the study progressed. Initially, interviews were brief and consisted of one-word or one-sentence responses, but as the curriculum continued, participants were more willing and capable of sharing narratives and explanations about themselves. For example, in her first interview, Brie (age 11) was asked what influences her behavior. Her responses were “by my surroundings” and “my grades” with one sentence explanations when prompted. In her final interview, Brie (age 11) said her one of her favorite exercises from the program was *Enemies of the Heart*, because some of my emotions are not for everybody…I’m not, I don’t want to show my sensitive side to some people. Some people I do want to show my sensitive side to. I can’t show my anger side to some people, sometimes I can…I have a anger, I have a sad, I have a happy, I have a day where I’m going to listen or I’m not going to listen.

Values and principles are the root of self-awareness and the foundation for an authentic leader’s actions (George, 2007). Without a value system, the self-aware leader is without a navigation system for their life journey. Britt (age 11) defined values as “the most important to you in your life.” Common values identified by participants included success, trust, information, honesty, family, and control. The four subthemes that emerged were *future is bright, information as currency, and the great escape,* and *uniquely me.* In *the future is bright*, values that impact the participants ultimate life destinations are discussed. Communication and secrecy emphasized the importance of trust through *information as currency.* And in *the great escape,* adolescent girls discussed the necessary solace required to combat their stress-filled lives For example, Diamond (age 11) described her truest space was “when I run the air is on me. I can let myself out. I let myself out, I am me, I am Diamond, I am not trying to be nobody else.” U*niquely me* referenced the importance of individuality. Sapphire (age 12) said,

Because everyone has their own way of doing things. With basic handwriting, someone writes in cursive and someone writes normal, everyone has their own stuff, someone wears neon colors

and someone wears plain colors. A person, when they're born, they shape into the person they feel like they want to be and they choose to be. I guess when you're born and you grow up and you get older, your self decides what it wants to be because you don't really realize how you're changing, but others do. Everyone has their own style. Once a person has a way they're doing things, it's hard to change to a different way, so everyone has their own style.

George (2007) identified two types of motivation—intrinsic and extrinsic. Whereas authentic leaders tend to be more intrinsically motivated, adolescent girls tended to be more extrinsically motivated. For adolescent girls, there was a direct connection between values and motivations. The futuristic emphasis on values also existed when the participants discussed what motivated them. The need to feel wanted was dominant throughout the interviews. For example, Julia spoke about her two sets of parents both of whom she referred to as "mom" and "dad." There was a need to label relationships and individualize them to make them more personal and exclusive to Julia. Julia emphasized how much the people in her life needed her through quality time together and material gifts. Julia (age 13) commented, "My dad bought it for me and he always wants me riding it. He even wants pictures of me riding it." In this section, there were four subthemes regarding motivation: *I just want to fit in, outward appearance, best friends forever,* and *what about goals.* Each of these four categories discusses a different motive experienced by the participants. Zeke (age 13) noted,

So if I'm not enough, then I'll put more effort into being someone that someone else can accept. So if I'm not that interesting to someone, than I'll put more effort into their interests. So then…yeah, I'll just do whatever I can to be accepted by someone.

A support team is paramount for authentic leaders (George, 2007). Authentic leaders must have one person with whom they can completely be their true selves at all times (George, 2007). Support teams vary in size and structure, but the authentic leader must always be giving and vulnerable in those relationships (George, 2007). For adolescent girls, their family served as the primary support team with friends also receiving special recognition. Abigail (age 12) discussed the importance of family relationships when she commented, "I don't want to have a bad relationship with someone who's in my family." The subthemes under this theme included *mother knows best, there for me, in it together,* and *friends as family. Mother knows best* included special attention given to the role of the mother in an adolescent girl's life. *There for me* includes a girl's need for stability and *in it together* references the importance of camaraderie among the support team. *Friends as family* refer to the girls' tendencies to describe friends as actual family members. Angela (age 13) emphasized the importance of harmony at home when she commented, "Family life-If I'm not happy at home I'm not happy anywhere." And Brie (age 13) added, "The time when I am at my best is when I'm with my family." Positive youth development programs understand youth are influenced and cultivated by their school, community, and home life (Catalano et al., 2004; Benson et al., 2006; Lerner, 2006). In this study, home life was the clear foundation for participants.

For authentic leaders, leading an integrated life means combining every aspect of one's life and having the ability to be the same person throughout all dimensions of that life (George, 2007). This is the crossroads of personal life, social life, family life, and professional life. The life of an adolescent girl primarily exists between three domains: home, school, and community (Catalano

et al., 2004). As will be discussed, many participants recognized that these realms are connected through motivation, performance, and consequences. Carlie (age 11) even recognized that life did in fact exist beyond the daily routine of home and school,

Life isn't all about grades in school. It's also about your feelings, emotions and actions. I wrote that because I remember her (basketball player) saying that. Life isn't all about that; grades and stuff. It's also about your action and the way you're living and the way that you're handling your feelings.

Four subthemes were identified under this major theme: *education is key, suffer the consequences, no life plan, and beyond me. Education is key* emphasized the role of education in obtaining a well-balanced life. *Suffer the consequences* discusses the role of reward and punishment in decision-making. *No life plan* refers to the participants' disinterest in mapping out their lives. And *beyond me* discusses the participants to live for something or someone other than herself. Carlie (age 11) explained,

Because if I plan it, then it's basically saying I'm not going to live life the way it's supposed to. I'm going to make things happen. Things might happen in my life that's supposed to happen, and when I'm planning it, it could happen and everything could go wrong. If I don't plan it, if something bad happens, my life will just keep going, and I'll feel the way I need it.
Leadership is Good and Good is Leadership describes the girls' perceptions of leadership, the role leadership plays in their lives, and the impact leadership had on them as individuals. Three subthemes emerged: *Leaders are nice people who do the right thing, leadership is not for everyone,* and *self as Leader*. *Leaders are Nice People Who Do the Right Thing* refers to types of people viewed as leaders versus those who are not considered leaders and their behaviors. Abigail (age 12) noted,

I think a leader has to be someone who is confident about most things and they know what they're going to do but they have to be, you have to trust them and you have to know that they're going to do the right thing and I think that's it.
Leadership is not for everyone included discussion of leadership's exclusivity and the process of becoming a leader. *Self as Leader* includes the impact of leadership on the participants' lives and how adolescent girls view themselves as leaders. Zeke (age 13) reported,

Yeah. I'd say all of the stuff we did it brought me up to be confident and everything. When I first started I felt like I wasn't ready but once we got into more of this I started to feel more included and more cooperative and I felt full so I could help out with other people on my team and I could be accepted for a teammate.

Discussion and Recommendations

As the curriculum developed, the girls became less conflicted over the origination of authentic self and began recognizing they were solely responsible for creating and caring for their true self. The researcher discovered self-awareness was better discussed as a tool or weapon for the adolescent girl to utilize in her world rather than a destination to strive to achieve. This made self-awareness more attainable, desirable, and useful for the participants. The most effective

way adolescent girls can use self-awareness is to connect their internal true self with the external self they have allowed to form due to societal pressures. Throughout the interviews, participants emphasized the importance of external influences such as family, friends, and the future while also expressing a disconnect between their internal person and external person; which is in direct conflict of authentic leadership (Geroge, 2007). Participants valued success and mothers and good grades, but also valued the opportunity to be alone and exist in moments when they felt free to be themselves. Hoyt and Kennedy (2008) acknowledged a gap in the literature and practice regarding the personal reflection time and emotion felt by female participants during a previous intervention. Time to reflect was offered in everyday of the curriculum and often met with an uncertainty of what to do with the allotted time.

The researcher guided reflection and offered participants time to reflect on the day and/or the curriculum. The researcher interpreted frustration from the participants because many participants communicated much differently on paper than through verbal communication. Frustration that was not shared in classroom settings was shared in their journals. Adolescent girls did share themselves differently and in a more personal, intimate setting such as writing in a journal than they did in a large, public setting. Without the time to reflect in the curriculum, so much of the adolescent girls authentic selves would not have been shared. Down time and an opportunity to exhale allowed the girls to open up a bit more and reveal their true intentions.

The concept of creating margin in one's life is common for adults, especially leaders. Adults frequently discuss their busy lives and search for ways to cope. Participants communicated the same annoyances as adolescents. Girls spoke of busy schedules, a lack of options, and stress from school. The participants were seeking an outlet and were irritated with their inability to control or choose how their time was often spent. The lack of margin for adolescent girls resulted in frustration and an inability to fully express one's true self. For example, participants had profound respect for uniqueness but all of them used similar words to describe themselves. The factors of low self-esteem in adolescent girls have been well researched and have primarily focused on personal attributes and relational experiences (Phinney et al., 1997). Reflection and margin allowed the participants to dig deeper in their descriptions of themselves to separate one's personal attribute from another and to more fully examine their brief, but personal story. Margin and reflection enhanced self-awareness for adolescent girls.

Trust was the foundational value regarding relationships, success was valued in regards to motivation and decision-making, control and freedom were a duplicitous value system in regards to time, and individuality drove the participants in understanding their authentic selves. Each of these values protected the adolescent girl's self; and by protecting self, valued it as well. The most fascinating discussion regarding values was about the significance and role of secrets in the adolescent's life. Many of the participants talked about their families and important friendships in terms of trust, honestly, and loyalty. Open communication within those relationships is what separated them from other less meaningful relationships. The adolescent girl strived to guard or control her secrets because the secrets were precious, personal information about her and it was a privilege for someone other than her to know about them. The researcher concluded these secrets were representative of the adolescent girl's authentic self and the adolescent girl was not yet fully equipped to recognize or communicate them as such.

For adolescent girls, the extrinsic motivation greatly exceeded the intrinsic. Simply, adolescent girls want to fit in with their peers. Participants were motivated to fit in somewhere with someone or some group. Participants were concerned with how they presented themselves—their fashion, their body, their manners. The extrinsic tangibles dominated even in regards to goal setting. For adolescent girls, motivation is rooted in the approval of others—peers, family, and community. Intrinsic motivation existed for the participants; however, discussion surrounding purpose and selflessness occurred more in conversations about the future instead of present day. By emphasizing authentic leadership with adolescent girls, the participants were able to begin connecting their future self with their present self by incorporating values into their goal setting and allowing adolescent girls to achieve internal approval of self.

Building a support team was the fourth component of George's (2007) authentic leadership model. Authentic leaders were encouraged to identify a single individual with whom they could be completely forthcoming. For adolescent girls, this was their mother. Authentic leaders were also encouraged to compile an intimate group of individuals who could be relied upon for honesty. For adolescent girls, this was usually their families and most times their friends. The girls' sentiments on honesty and loyalty in relationships echoed Walumbwa et al.'s (2008) emphasis on relational transparency as a component of authentic leadership. Relational transparency happens when people appropriately relate their inner most emotions with those around them and this type of behavior promotes authenticity in relationship building through open communication (Kernis, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Adolescent girls readily identified the individuals in their lives who represented this type of relationship; however, their young lives limited the variety and consistency of people on their support teams.

For authentic leaders, George (2007) stressed that living an integrated life means existing as the same person in every sphere of life. For adolescents, Harter (1990) asserted that self-esteem should be addressed separately within each domain, because adolescents tend to have different senses of self in each area. Participants in this study confirmed Harter's suggested as they communicated disconnected versions of themselves at home, at school, and with friends. Consequences were the driving forces behind the immediacy of their lives. Towards the end of the curriculum, the girls did begin to communicate a different version of themselves as a result of the lessons and topics learned during the twelve weeks. Striving to be authentic took the pressure off being everything everyone else wanted them to be in the different areas of their lives.

Authentic leadership development is grounded in the concept that leaders discover their authentic self from their personal story and life experiences. The personal story approach to discovering authenticity is much more difficult for youth due to having lived a shorter time than adults and have fewer life experiences. This is not to say authenticity cannot be discovered by youth using the same techniques used for adults. However, this study explored other strategies based on the components of positive youth development and authentic leadership. Because youth are limited in experience, authentic leadership development for youth must be based on providing life experiences and real life opportunities for leadership application. Based on the findings in this study, a preliminary authentic leadership development model for youth is introduced (Appendix E).

Conclusions

The role of authentic leadership is to drive adolescents to identify their True North so they can shift their view of themselves and their worlds from outward in to inward out. Authentic leadership development should be used to create this shift because it promotes margin and personal voice. The significance of authentic leadership is it allows youth to look in the mirror and see the same person the rest of the world sees and also to be accountable for that person on a consistent basis. Authentic leadership development offers youth knowledge and experience in leadership and also knowledge and experience in self. Overall, the participants showed an increase in knowledge and application regarding self-awareness. Adolescent girls excitedly indicated desire to discover their authentic selves throughout the curriculum. For the majority of participants, there was little to no knowledge of self and the terms associated with it. Other participants had a firm understanding on the meaning of the term yet needed assistance in the application and significance. The participants' inability to full grasp self-awareness left them ill-equipped to handle their changing worlds at times. In turn, participants resorted to hiding their true selves from those around them and continued down a path of disguise and inauthenticity. The conclusions of this study are as follows:

To examine the intersection of authentic leadership development, positive youth development, and perception of self in adolescent girls

This study yielded the following conclusions regarding the use of authentic leadership development and positive youth development in adolescent girls:

Adolescent girls need room for margin in their daily life to connect with their authentic selves.

Authentic leadership development assists adolescent girls in discovering their personal voices.

Communication of secrets needs to be translated into communication of authentic self.

Values and motivation to yield a more balanced, confident, and purpose driven youth.

Self-awareness is best taught as a tool to use rather than knowledge to obtain.

Adolescent girls need assistance in identifying characteristics that separate themseleves from others and fully value their uniqueness.

Involving adults in the youth's life in the curriculum's activities and lessons would prove beneficial in developing a youth's support team.

Authentic leadership development can eliminate the stress of separating a youth's life into different domains, forcing the youth to exist in a segregated world rather than an integrated one.

To describe the experiences of adolescent girls throughout a leadership development curriculum

Six themes were identified based on the three rounds of interviews, participant journals, and researcher's observations. The themes and subthemes that have been identified are described below:

Perceptions of Self: Uncertain self, conflicted self, knowing self, not myself

Values and Principles: Information as currency, future is bright, the great escape, uniquely me

Motivation: I just want to fit in, outward appearance, best friends forever, what about goals?

Support Team: Mother knows best, there for me, in it together

Integrated Life: Face the consequences, no life plan, beyond me, education is key

Authentic Leadership Development: Leaders are nice people who do the right thing, leadership knowledge, self as leader

To develop a 12-week authentic leadership development curriculum for adolescent girls
The following are major conclusions regarding the curriculum from the study:
Leadership programs are beneficial for youth development. The more programs, the better so that more youth have access to participation.
Gender specific programming is unique and useful for youth organizations with a high female participation rate, such as 4-H
In future, curriculums should also introduce participants to additional components: transformation leaders, servant leadership, and emotional intelligence (as used by FFA)
The curriculum must provide real life leadership experience and application.
Repeat George's (2007) interview method with youth leaders to further develop an authentic leadership model for youth

The findings of this study lead to several recommendations for future programs grounded in youth development and authentic leadership. Even though this study's population was adolescent girls, the recommendations can be applied to similar programs with comparable purposes and objectives.

Homework was a huge obstacle to overcome in this setting because the population (middle school students) had a late release from school and did not arrive to the facility until 4 pm each weekday. This left only two hours to complete homework and leadership class on the three days that the curriculum was conducted each week. Homework took priority over leadership because of the pressures from home and school to complete assignments and succeed in school. This results in a recommendation to conduct leadership curriculums during the summer or to incorporate them into existing primary and secondary school schedules.

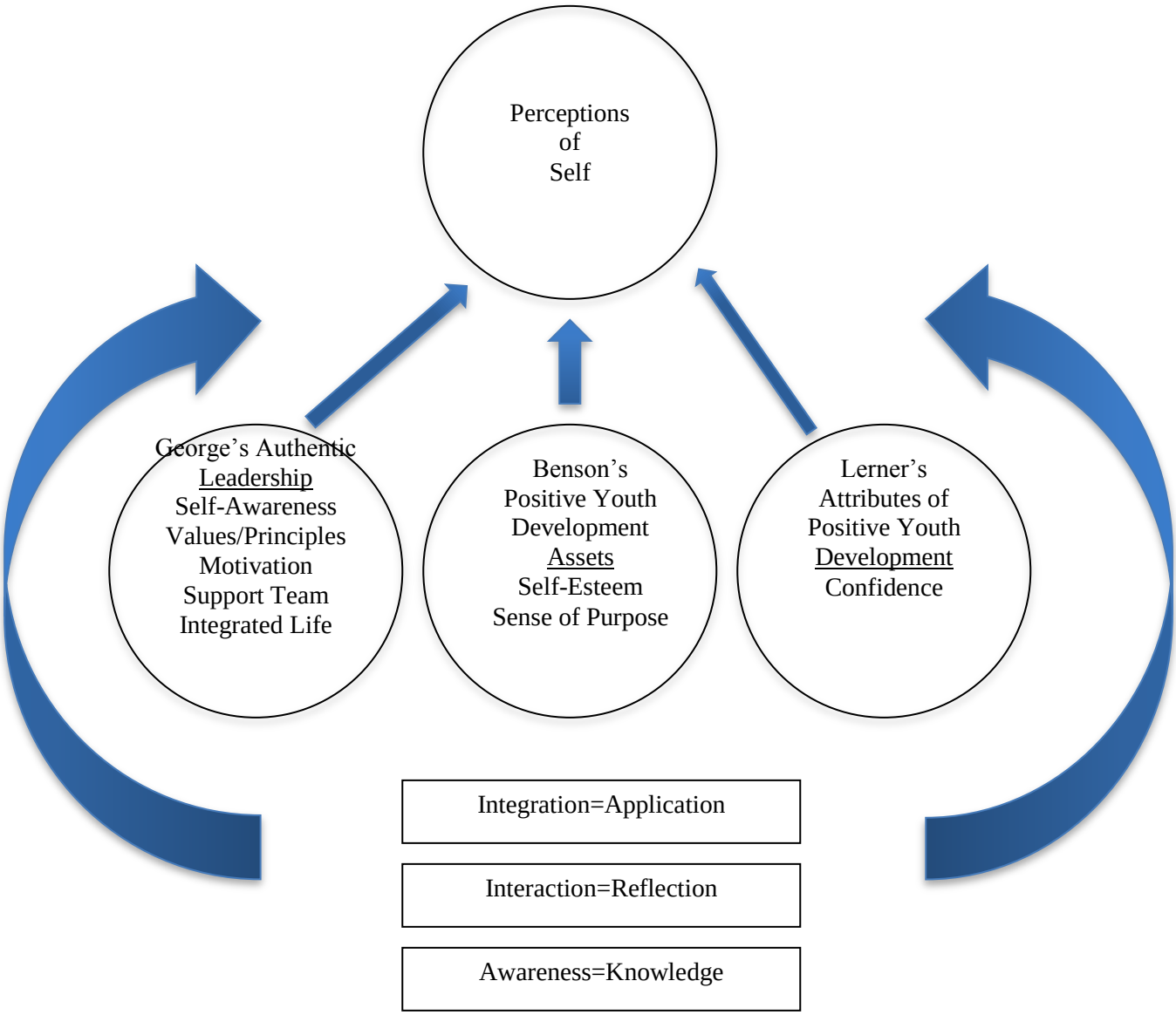
During one of the sessions (Overcoming Obstacles), younger girls from Girls Place were asked to participant in the session because there were not enough study participants present that day to conduct the session effectively. During that session, the younger girls outscored the older girls in leadership rankings and feedback. Based on the researcher's observations and the time constraints of middle school students, targeting a younger youth population would prove beneficial for leadership development.

Another area to improve upon is a youth's personal story. Programs must provide margin for youth to reflect upon their personal story and identify their unique voice. Furthermore, it would prove beneficial to incorporate other components from other leadership theories such as transformational leadership and servant leadership. Both of these theories heavily influenced the formation of authentic leadership and the participants in this study specifically emphasized the transformational power of leadership development (Self as Leader) and a strong desire to serve others (Beyond Me). These two theories should be given more time and attention within the curriculum in conjunction with the role of the follower and future leadership aspirations. Servant leadership could also be incorporated with a service project throughout the curriculum.

This study adhered to Adams (2013) suggestion to use the George Model (2007) in future research. This study also echoes Adams' (2013) suggestion to develop an instrument to measure the components of the model as well. Furthermore, this study suggests further research be conducted using George's (2007) method to design a True North Compass for Youth. An

authentic leadership model for youth based on this study was previously proposed; however, more research is needed based on a wider youth population to further develop the model.

Appendix A: Conceptual Model for Developing Perceptions of Self of Adolescent Girls through Authentic Leadership and Positive Youth Development



Appendix B: Participant Demographic Table

Category		Participants
Ethnicity		
	African American	7
	Asian	2
	Caucasian	4
Age		
	11 years old	3
	12 years old	4
	13 years old	5
	14 years old	1
Grade		
	6th Grade	5
	7th Grade	4
	8th Grade	4
Primary Caretaker		
	Single Biological Parent	5
	Biological Parent (2)	3
	Adoptive Parent(s)	4
	Joint Custody	1

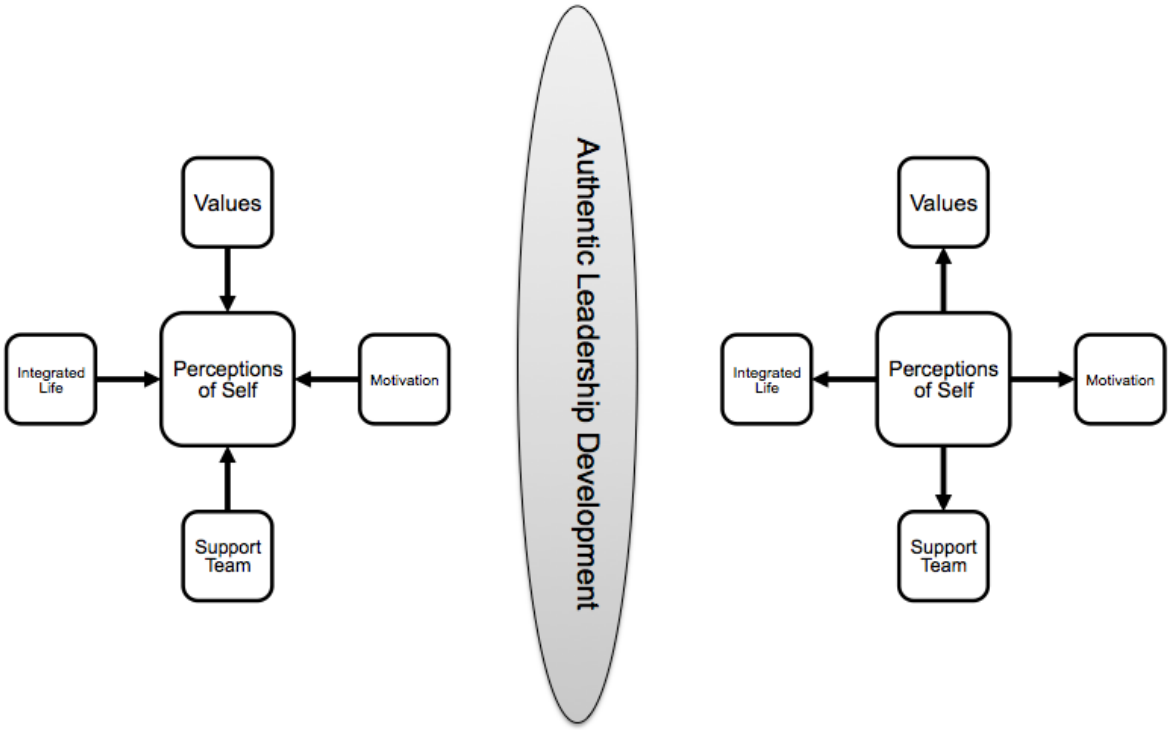
Appendix C: Issues of Validation

Issue	Strategy
Credibility	Member Checking
	Methods Triangulation
	Control of bias
	Prolonged engagement
Transferability	Rich, thick description
Dependability	Audit Trail
Confirmability	Audit Trail

Appendix D: Authentic Leadership Curriculum

Date	Topic	Activity
	Self-Esteem	
9-3	Introduction to Authenticity	Let's Decide What It Means
9-4	Introduction to Leadership	Harvard Business Review Article
9-5	Introduction to Self-Esteem	I'm Gonna Like Me by Jaime Lee Curtis
9-8	Introduction to Self-Awareness	Yoga
	Values/Principles	
9-9	NO CLASS	Take the Strengths Quest Assessment
9-10	Strengths Quest	Guest Speaker, Jaime Gresley
9-11	Strengths and Values	Get to know our strengths better
9-15	Personal Values	What's in your top 5?
9-16	Relational Values	Label Maker Video
9-18	Community Values	Bronfenbrenner's Model
	Emotions	
9-22	Introduction to Emotions	Navigating Personal Values Map
9-24	Emotion Modification	Heart vs. Behavior Modification (Emoticons)
9-25	Enemies of the Heart	Anger, Greed, Jealousy, Guilt
9-29	Vulnerability	Brene Brown TedTalk
10-1	Connectivity and Empathy	How's your heart? With Kristen Stone
	Know Your Story	
10-6	Introduction to Storytelling	Building your Story with Jaron Jones
10-16	Perception vs. Reality	Old Lady or Young Lady
	Support Team (Relationships)	
10-27	Groups and Teams	Guest Speakers, AEC Leadership Minors
10-29	School and Peers	Who is on your bus? Energy Bus Video
11-3	Family Share	Two Minute Family Share
	Motivation	
11-4	Goal Setting	Guest Speaker, Savannah Fissenden
11-6	Ideal Week	Rocks and Sand, Prioritize your Life
	Support Team (Teamwork)	
11-10	Cool Runnings	Five Dysfunctions of a Team
11-11	Cool Runnings	Five Dysfunctions of a Team
11-12	Cool Runnings	Five Dysfunctions of a Team
	Confidence	
11-18	Conflict Resolution	Fierce Conversations
11-19	Overcoming Obstacles	Obstacle Course with Body by Boris
11-21	Teamwork and Adversity	Girls Place Government and Assessments
	Sense of Purpose	
12-1	Followership	Videos and Follow the Leader
12-2	Servant Leadership	Pillow Train
12-5	Authentic Leadership	Honey Horse Farms (Equine Assisted)
	Integrated Life	
12-9	My Life Sentence	Women's Basketball Practice
12-10	Role Reversal	Leading another Girls Place group

Appendix E: Getting the Inside Out: A Youth Authentic Leadership Model



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In Extremis Leadership: Is Everyone the Same?

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Abstract

Under dangerous conditions, when lives are at stake, astutely reading a situation and belief in one's ability to manage it are crucial leader skills. We report on a survey of 514 military, firefighting, and law enforcement leaders and their similar and different experiences during *in extremis* conditions.

Introduction

Interest in critical incident leadership has escalated for more than a decade (Hannah, Campbell, & Matthews, 2010; Laurence & Matthews, 2012; Wong, Kolditz, Millen, & Potter, 2003). Nevertheless, critical incident research extends beyond military operations to fire fighters (Baran & Scott, 2010; Hytten & Hasle, 1989; Weick, 1993), law enforcement personnel (Bechky & Okhuysen, 2011; Johnson et al., 2011; Murphy, 1965) and other first responders (Graen & Graen, 2013; Kolditz, 2006, 2007; Sweeney, Matthews, & Lester, 2011). Previous research adds tremendous value and insight toward improving the effectiveness and efficiencies of many important organizations, yet many important issues remain unresolved.

Our study examines a subset of critical incident leadership situations, *in extremis* environments. Leadership *in extremis* warrants special attention due to psychological stresses and concerns inherent in these environments (Baran & Scott, 2010; Matthews, 2014; Sweeney et al., 2011)

Empirical research on people in these dangerous environments is challenging (Hannah & Lester, 2009), yet the potential for real life-saving returns from such research compels examination. In lieu of actually being present in these environments, phenomenological interviews with individuals leading *in extremis* environments as well as surveys can aid understanding of these dangerous situations.

This research involved three general stages. First, a grounded theory analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) was conducted to examine how and why leaders were successful in these *in extremis* environments. Second, those qualitative results led to development of a research model and survey to explore the findings. The resulting survey, phase three, was administered to military, fire fighters, and law enforcement personnel. This study reports our findings from the third phase of the research and includes military and non-military leaders. The focus of this study is on the association of personal characteristics with situation awareness and self-efficacy.

An important research question this research examines is, "How might individual characteristics affect this ability and belief for various *in extremis* occupations?" Surprising results show that although all *in extremis* groups are normally classified together, there are differences among the various groups examined in this study. Our research suggests that the *raison d'être* of the organization matters when examining *in extremis* environments.

Background

Our research journey first led us to explore individual characteristics as a means for understanding a leader's *in extremis* performance. Understanding that there were hundreds of potential characteristics associated with positive outcomes, we revisited our interview transcripts to analyze which factors were most salient in producing desirable outcomes. Desirable outcomes can include no loss of life, mission accomplishment, and improved morale. An examination of the resulting transcripts through open coding and frequency of response counts suggested four factors warranted supplemental analysis. The interviews strongly underscored the pivotal roles of situation awareness and self-efficacy as salient characteristics associated with surviving *in extremis* situations. The interviews also illustrated how leaders' behaviors were influenced by their flexibility, altruism, selfless service and self-esteem. This paper reports results of an effort to quantify the association of these four individual characteristics with the positive outcome features of situation awareness and self-efficacy.

Flexibility

Respondents discussed flexibility (or adaptability) during dangerous environments as a critical element of their mental agility to adjust to changing conditions. Sun Tzu, a Chinese General born in 430 BC, stated that this type of flexibility was important to the art of war (Tzu, 1963). Flexibility may also be vital to anyone faced with *in extremis* conditions in facilitating rapid adaption to quickly changing situations. Today's leaders, faced with dangerous and ambiguous environments, may be well served by increased capacities for flexibility, or fluidity, in thought.

Sense of Duty

Another characteristic our interviewees identified as paramount was an aspiration to "do their duty"—a factor military leaders deemed more important than a concern about one's own pending death. An example quotation from one interviewee clearly illustrates this: "More than coming home alive, which I obviously wanted to do, more than that, I wanted to do my duty, and I didn't want to be a coward. I used to pray, 'God, let me do my duty today, No. 1, and let me live through the day, No. 2. (I30)'" Doing one's duty consists of two dominant orientations: the

willingness to sacrifice oneself, and the willingness to help others. Willingness to incur personal sacrifice is clearly a part of doing one's duty. One must be willing to risk oneself, and not simply direct others into harm's way. Individuals motivated to do public service may be drawn to this type of honorableness—helping others through a sense of duty, or even, at the extreme, to self-sacrifice (Perry, 1996).

Altruism

Whereas self-sacrifice centers on the individual, altruism relates to how much someone is willing to help others (Truckenbrodt, 2000). Altruism means someone is "consistently more generous, helping and kind than others" (Philippe Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Cynthia Fekken, 1981, p. 296). In general, and individual drawn to serve the public through exposure to dangers associated with hazardous occupations, generally has a high sense of duty towards helping others (Sweeney et al., 2011). Morality research shows that assisting others is considered an honorable act (De Waal, 2009); it is part of doing your duty. In this way, doing one's duty incorporates both the traits of self-sacrifice and helping others.

Self-esteem

The final characteristic necessary for effective leadership in hazardous environments suggested from our interviews is self-confidence, or positive self-esteem. Self-esteem is defined as how one views oneself (Rosenberg 1965). Our interview respondents suggested that effective leaders had high confidence in their own abilities to lead and noted that such self-esteem was vital for survival.

In sum, these four characteristics—flexibility, altruism, self-sacrifice and self-esteem—were reported by our interview respondents as important to leading effectively during their *in extremis* situations. This research tests these self-reports from military leaders, while also extending the contexts to include other dangerous occupations, including firefighting and law enforcement.

Our paper investigates how differing individual and demographic characteristics can affect situation awareness and self-efficacy when a leader's life is in danger. Elaboration involves two fundamental research questions:

- How do characteristics associated from the literature on first responder performance (flexibility, altruism, self-sacrifice and self-esteem) relate to the two factors (situational awareness and self-efficacy) suggested as characteristics of leadership success during in extremis outcomes?
- Are there differences conditioned on the first-responder's occupational category?

Theoretical Framework

In Extremis Context

Leadership in dangerous environments requires exigencies and urgency not present in ordinary life (Campbell, Hannah, & Matthews, 2010; Hannah et al., 2010; Palmer, Hannah, & Sosnowik, 2011). The *in extremis* context refers to situations where leaders believe their lives are "at the

point of death" (Kolditz, 2006, p. 657). *In extremis* situations can occur across various organizations (Hannah & Lester, 2009), but hazardous occupations such as law enforcement, military service, and firefighting routinely involve *in extremis* situations.

Our premise for this research is that this *in extremis* context matters for leaders. We believe that the leadership in these extreme contexts may be different from other types of leadership but similar among *in extremis* occupations.

Situational Leadership

Context matters, yet the foundation of this research is about leadership. Theorists have moved beyond trait leadership theory—the idea that the possession of certain traits define effective leaders (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2002). Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) explains that there is no one appropriate style of leadership; leadership depends on the situation, and different situations require the leader to adapt with different types of leadership. The situation is also important; Vroom and Yetton (1973) found that the *nature* of the leadership situation caused three times the variance as individual trait differences. Effective leadership depends more upon the situational context than upon a leader's personality traits. Circumstances dictate behavior because the "situational forces have the larger effect when pitted against the person's inclinations or desires" (Vroom & Jago, 1995, p. 179). Our research explores factors that affect a leaders' performance in these unusual environments.

One of these factors is a leader's response to stress (Martin M Chemers & Ayman, 1993). Effective leader behaviors are linked to whether the leader's reaction suits environmental demands (Fiedler, 1993). When leaders are under stress, leadership requirements differ from more staid conditions (Bass & Bass, 2008). Thus, an *in extremis* context surely evokes stress, often attributed to the leader's lack of control over situational factors (previous study) and the leader's concern for his own survival. Respondents in this study reported experiencing elevated levels of stress under varying situations. Situational leadership theory suggests their decisions would be driven by the situation at hand (Miner, 2002).

Interdependency between the Leader and the Context

Our research posits that there is an interdependency between the *in extremis* context and various leader traits. We used the previous qualitative research to identify several traits for examination. Additionally, several conditions warranted consideration to improve the study's validity in isolating what was occurring. For model completion, common control variables for leadership research included age, education, and gender. The *in extremis* component accounts for different amounts of *in extremis* experience within our sample, attempting to standardize factors. These standard controls have been included since they may affect leadership performance.

After identifying several factors from our grounded examination of interview data, we sought to anchor our survey in the current literature. Consequently, this paper builds on prior literature which establishes that self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006; Feltz & Weiss, 1982; Laurence & Matthews, 2012; Sweeney et al., 2011) and situation awareness (Bandura, 1982; Endsley & Garland, 2000; Ericsson et al., 2006; Ericsson, Krampe, &

Tesch-Römer, 1993; Matthews, 2012; Sweeney et al., 2011) link positively to outcomes within *in extremis* environments.

Self-Efficacy

Much of the literature on self-efficacy—the central component of Bandura's social cognitive theory—has focused on relationships between environmental influences, self-precepts of efficacy and action. In this context, self-efficacy precepts are seen to affect "thought patterns, actions, emotional arousal" and performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Self-efficacy denotes a perceived capacity for learning or completing actions at certain levels (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura and Locke (2003), no mechanism of human agency "is more central or pervasive than beliefs of personal efficacy…rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce desired effects; otherwise one has little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties" (p. 1) (p. 1).

Bandura's (1982), seminal work on self-efficacy in human agency has been examined with a plethora of prior research in many fields. The research has shown a stable affirmative link between self-efficacy and various types of performance in areas such as sports (Moritz, Feltz, Fahrbach, & Mack, 2000), newcomers to a job (Saks, 1995), social workers (Holden, Meenaghan, Anastas, & Metrey, 2002), academics (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991) and work performance (Sadri & Robertson, 1993). As relates to our research, the study of leadership has also shown links from self-efficacy to outcomes or performance as a manager (M.M. Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000; Hannah, 2006; Lent et al., 2008; Paglis & Green, 2002; Sadri & Robertson, 1993).

A strong belief in one's performance efficacy is essential in mobilizing and sustaining the very effort necessary to succeed (Bandura, 1997). As such, self-efficacy can be developed and trained through experiences and role models, and it is not a trait-like characteristic (Bandura, 1982; Feltz & Weiss, 1982).

Situation Awareness

Situation awareness reflects information an individual surmises about a situation (Endsley, 1995a, 1995b; Strater et al., 2001) and how she or he uses that knowledge to envisage a future state (Jensen & Brehmer, 2005; Matthews, 2014). Situation awareness is "an intermediate state in the decision-making process of dynamic systems where one should be able to comprehend the situation in order to make an appropriate decision for future development" (Artman & Garbis, 1998). Because of the importance of appraising and interpreting an acute threat environment, occupations whose leaders encounter *in extremis* situations rely on situation awareness to decipher both what is occurring now and what may occur (Endsley & Garland, 2000; Matthews, 2012; Sweeney et al., 2011). All three hazardous occupations, military (Matthews, 2012; Strater et al., 2001), law enforcement (Salmon, Stanton, Walker, & Green, 2006) and firefighting (Dow, Garis, & Thomas, 2013; Salmon et al., 2006; Wellens, 1993) believe situation awareness is important for their leaders, with numerous researchers looking at two or more of the groups together.

Research Model and Hypotheses

The foundation that both situation awareness and general self-efficacy have been shown in various contexts to have a positive effect on outcomes form the basis for this study. Examining the antecedent characteristics of these two constructs may prove beneficial. We conjecture that these characteristics will positively influence both situation awareness and self-efficacy in all three of our *in extremis* groups.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. The traits of flexibility (H1), self-esteem (H2) and altruism (H3) will have a direct positive effect on situation awareness.

Self-efficacy has also proven to have consistent positive effect on performance through several meta-analysis reviews (Holden, 1992; Multon et al., 1991; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Bandura alone (1997) has reviewed well over 1000 studies showing self-efficacy does impact performance.

Self-efficacy and mental flexibility, or the ability of an individual to modify his emotions under varying circumstances has been well documented (Martin & Anderson, 1998; Martin & Rubin, 1995). This greater mental flexibility leads to heightened self-efficacy (Gecas, 1989).

Altruism, or one's propensity to help others, has also been linked positively to self-efficacy (Allen & Rushton, 1983) (Giles, McClenahan, Cairns, & Mallet, 2004). Our hypotheses propose altruism will have a positive effect on self-efficacy.

Leader self-sacrifice has been linked clearly with leadership effectiveness (Cremer & Knippenberg, 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005) and to self-efficacy, leading our hypothesis saying that self-sacrifice will have a positive effect on self-efficacy.

High self-esteem has long been associated positively with job performance (for meta anaylsis see Judge & Bono, 2001) and job satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003). Thus we hypothesize that self-esteem will have a positive effect on self-efficacy.

Hypotheses 4, 5 and 6. The traits of flexibility (H4), self-sacrifice (H5) self-esteem (H6) and altruism (H7), will have a direct positive effect on self-efficacy.

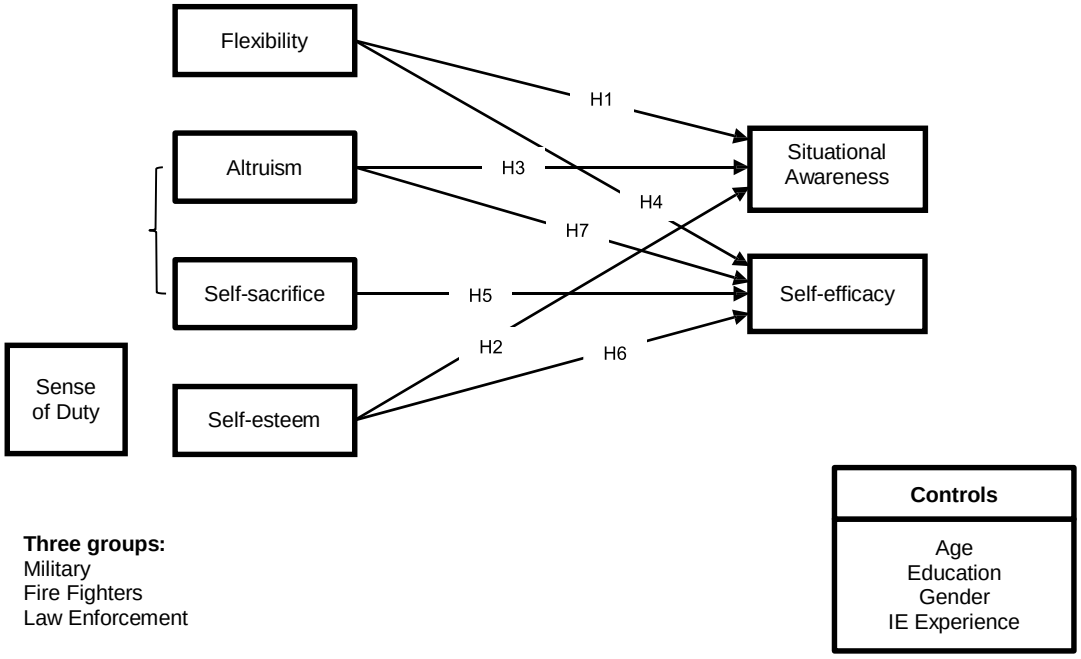


Figure 1. Model

Research Design and Methods

We employed a psychometric survey methodology (Guilford, 1954) that maps individual responses to the concepts in our model.

Measurement of Research Variables

Leveraging existing research, we used constructs operationalized from existent literature to test our research model. Each of our respondents was part of a team and their role was either the leader (92%) or the assistant leader (8%). Summary of each measure used is provided in Appendix A.

Construct operationalization. Our **Situation Awareness** variable was derived from the SART scale (Endsley & Garland, 2000), which has 10 generic constructs and three broad domains. We chose to focus on the three broad domains with the abbreviated scale, following Taylor's (1990) comment to use the shorter scale when it is more "advantageous" (Endsley & Garland, 2000, p. 118). Our focus was on the attention of the individual on the variables of the situation. This focus aligns with two of the three levels of situation awareness: Level 1, perception of the situation, and level 2, comprehension of the situation (Laurence & Matthews, 2012).

Our next dependent variable, **Self-Efficacy,** was operationalized with the New General Self Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001).

Our independent variables, the characteristics, all had existing scales. **Flexibility** came from Bar-On's (1996) Emotional Quotient Inventory. Individuals who score high on this scale have a heightened ability to amend their emotions, thoughts and behaviors to varying circumstances (Bar-On, 1996). **Altruism** is how willing you are to go above and beyond to help others. This

scale inquires individuals on their past and possible future behaviors and it was derived from Smith, Organ and Near's (1983) scale. **Self-Sacrifice** differs from altruism as it focuses on the willingness of an individual, not just to help the other person, but to sacrifice himself for others. Individuals with high scores on this scale have a concern about the good of society, or doing their duty, over their safety (Perry, 1996).

Finally, **Self-esteem**, developed from Rosenberg's (1965) scale on an individual's self-worth. Self-esteem levels are consistent over time within individuals, and it is a good "predictor" variable (Rosenberg, 1965, p. 117).

Controls- Additionally, our model recognizes fairly standard controls in leadership research, things that could possible influence the outcomes. **Age,** experience, and **education** have been normal validations of successful leadership, organizations tend to promote based in part on these attributes (Bass & Bass, 2008). **Experience** in this survey was based on the amount of times an individual had personally been in *in extremis* situations. Although research has generally failed to establish **gender** differences in leadership styles and effectiveness once the leader status has been achieved (Bass & Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2013), we chose to control for gender because of the male dominated domains that we were researching. Indeed, only seven percent of the respondents were woman leaders.

Where necessary, we adapted the existing measures to the military/*in extremis* vernacular and then validated these changes using Bolton's (1993) approach of listening to three pertinent respondents read the questions aloud to assess comprehensibility and ambiguity. If meanings were not clear, we made appropriate adjustments. As a consequence, we altered two of the items, deleting two questions. To standardize the similarity of the responses, a 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." Only demographic data deviated from this format. Items for each of the constructs are summarized in Appendix A.

Sample

Our respondents were sourced from Facebook and Linked-in posts and from links posted on 36 online group sites targeting Veterans (examples: Bronze Star Medal Recipients, 82nd Airborne Division Veterans, Connected Marines), Fire fighters (examples: fire fighter nation, fire house.com), and Law enforcement (examples: police connect, National Tactical Officers Association). The first author, a retired Army officer, also sent the survey link with a personal note to 175 military, 93 firefighters and 158 law enforcement associates in her network.

Any members of these groups who had been on a team during at least one *in extremis* situation during their careers were eligible to take the survey. Five hundred and fifty three responses yielded 494 useable military surveys. Most (426) were completed by members of the U.S. Army. Nineteen Marines, 22 Air Force, 22 Navy and five Coast Guard members also participated. Almost half (49%) of respondents were 48 years or older. These were then randomly sampled by Qualtrics to select 200 military responses.

Firefighters had 289 useable surveys and law enforcement personnel yielded 288 surveys. By nature of the chain of command, military units are always arranged in teams. Fire fighters also rarely go into a situation alone. Law enforcement personnel, however, can easily be faced with

life threatening situations by themselves. Due to this dichotomy, we wanted to focus on only leaders and assistant leaders of teams. Once we selected for this discriminator the final numbers were 191 fire fighters and 13 law enforcement personnel. The data was collected between June 2012 and February of 2013.

The demographics of our respondents in all occupations reveal that they are mainly older, well-educated males. Close to half (46%) of these seasoned leaders have been in *in extremis* environments over 6 times. See Table 1 below for a full report of demographics.

Table 1 *Sample Characteristics*

Construct	Value	#	%
Occupation	Military	200	39%
	Fire Fighter	191	37%
	Law Enforcement	123	24%
Gender	Male	476	93%
	Female	38	7%
	Total	514	100%
Education	GED/High School	48	9%
	Associates Degree	99	19%
	4 Year Degree	159	31%
	Master's Degree	183	36%
	Doctorate Degree	25	5%
Age	18-23	0	0%
	24-29	10	2%
	30-35	39	8%
	36-41	56	11%
	42-47	115	22%
	48 and over	294	57%
IE Experience	1 time in an extremis environment	28	5%
	2-3 times total in in extremis environment	98	19%
	4- 5 times total in in extremis environment	76	15%
	6 times total in in extremis environment	27	5%
	Over 6 times total in in extremis environment	235	46%
	I'd rather not say	50	10%

Statistical Analysis

The data were analyzed using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS, version 21) for windows and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS, version 21). The initial data set of 867 responses was screened to ensure statistical assumptions could be made with confidence (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Accordingly, we checked for missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity. The missing data for each variable was less than .2%, and there were no outliers. Since our data was derived from Likert-type scales, we had no reason to eliminate variables based on skewness unless they displayed no variance. Instead, we checked to ensure no standard deviations of less than 0.5 for any variable (which would indicate that the majority of responses fell right on the mean—i.e., displaying insufficient variance or kurtosis). Interval variables had standard deviations all above 0.8, with most over 1.0, indicating no univariate normality issues in our Likert-scale items that might affect results. The data showed sufficient quality to proceed to explore the measurement model.

Measurement Model

We performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a procedure that describes data by grouping variables that are associated (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005) using Principle Axis Factoring with

Promax rotation. An EFA is normally used to explore the underlying factor structure of data without presuming a structure to start (Suhr & Colorado, 2006). We examined the variable loadings, adequate correlations, and checked reliability and validity in our conceptual model as described next.

Adequacy. See Appendix F, Table 1 for adequacy details. Although low factor loadings are acceptable for so large a sample (514), values over ".5 are considered necessary for practical significance" (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010, p. 118). Table 2 includes Pattern Matrix.

Table 2 ***Pattern Matrix***

Pattern Matrixa

	Factor					
	SE	SS	Flex	SA	ALT	SEFF
SA1				.354		
SA2				.592		
SA7				.964		
A1					.563	
A2					.838	
A6					.621	
SE1	.713					
SE2	.720					
SE5	.799					
SE6	.925					
SEFF2						.577
SEFF5						.863
SEFF6						.741
SS1		.691				
SS4		.663				
SS6		.662				
SS7		.589				
SS8		.736				
F2			.698			
F4			.766			
F6			.693			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Reliability. Appendix C reports the Cronbach's alpha for the factors in our model—the lowest of which was above 0.68.

Validity. Factors demonstrate convergent validity with all loadings above the recommended minimum of 0.30 (lowest average was 0.632) for samples of over 300 (Hair et al., 2010). The factors also demonstrate sufficient discriminant validity, as the correlation matrix shows no correlation above 0.6. There were also no problematic cross-loadings. See Appendix C.

Having identified the six factor structure for our data, we proceeded to Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The model fit for the measurement model was sufficient. (See Appendix D, Table D1 for measurement model and SEM diagram).

Validity and Reliability of Latent Constructs

To test for *convergent validity* we calculated the AVE for all factors (should be greater than 0.500). Three of our constructs, altruism, self-sacrifice and situation awareness did not meet this criteria. However, because each of the constructs is a valuable part of our model, we elected to maintain them even with the slightly low AVE values of .476 for Altruism, .438 for Self-Sacrifice and .498 for Situation Awareness. As is evidenced by Table 3, our model fit is still good and all three of these constructs show sufficient discriminant validity, thus we felt justified in letting the borderline convergent validity measures pass.

To test for *discriminant validity* we compared the square root of the AVE (bold on the diagonal in table 4) to all inter-factor correlations. All factors demonstrated adequate discriminant validity because the diagonal values are greater than the correlations. We also computed the *composite reliability* for each factor. In all cases, the CR was above the minimum threshold. 0.7 (See Appendix E). Our discriminant validity leads us to believe that we do not have any illusionary relationships in our model (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006).

Common Method Bias (CMB). Because all of the variables were collected via a single method (online survey), we conducted a CMB test to determine if a common factor may have been influencing our results. We did not collect data on a social desirability scale, therefore the test we used—one specifically designed for studies that do not measure a common factor—was the common latent factor (CLF) method (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Even after adding the CLF we observed sufficiently strong composite reliability and AVE scores for each construct. When comparing indicator loadings before and after adding the CLF, there were no differences greater than 0.200; thus the measurement model is not significantly affected by common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Structural Model

Our structural model was built using composites imputed from latent factor scores obtained from our measurement model. (See Table 5). The fitted structural model demonstrates good model fit.

Table 3 *Model Fit for Structural Model*

Measure	**Our model tested**
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	18.462/6 3.077
P value for the model	.005
CFI	.992
GFI	.990
AGFI	.953
SRMR	.0313

RMSEA	.064
NFI	.988
PCLOSE	.212

Findings

The results of the hypotheses are presented in Table 4. There are clear paths supported from each of the independent variables to the dependent variables and they are all significant for entire group of 514. The final results are summarized in the Hypotheses Summary in Table 4.

Table 4 *Hypothesis Summary Table*

	Hypotheses	**Evidence Beta/P- value**	***Supported for whole***	***Occupations significant?***
H1	Flexibility will have a + effect on SA	-.102/**	Yes but negative	Military only
H2	Self-esteem will have a + effect on SA	.139/***	Yes	Military only
H3	Altruism will have a + effect on SA	.583/***	Yes	All three
H4	Flexibility will have a + effect on SEFF	.139/***	Yes	All three
H5	Self-sacrifice will have a + effect on SEFF	.146/***	Yes	Only fire fighters and law enforcement
H6	Self-esteem will have a + effect on SEFF	.578/***	Yes	All three
H7	Altruism will have a + effect on SEFF	.236/***	Yes	All three

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Discussion

Our research indicates that while *in extremis* contexts share many similarities, *why* an individual is in a hazardous condition is crucial. We began this paper looking at the *in extremis* context as a whole, and we examined all our hypotheses looking at our respondents as one *in extremis* group. This was in keeping with most research on *in extremis* leadership, which focuses on the similarities (Kolditz, 2007; Sweeney et al., 2011); but our findings suggest that *in extremis* context is critical. Military, firefighters and law enforcement personnel all may routinely enter dangerous environments, but their jobs differ and the reasons they are in the *in extremis* situation make different leadership demands and may require distinct leadership skills.

There are contextual differences among the various occupations; lives are at stake in different ways. Although these occupations are often grouped together when classified by similarities

(Kolditz, 2007; Sweeney et al., 2011), variances in roles in *in extremis* conditions may cause confusion or ambiguity (Cowper, 2000; Lewis, 2013). The Bureau of Labor lists both law enforcement and firefighters as "protection services" (Pratt, 2013). Fire fighters' jobs are to protect the public through emergencies; police protect lives and property (Statistics, 2013). We will adopt the Bureau of Labor terminology and refer to first responders as "protectors." While police officers may use deadly force, it is a last resort. The military role in many operations is distinctly different; killing the enemy may be a viable objective. Consequently, we will refer to this group as "vanquishers."

Mission accomplishment is paramount in the vanquishing group, where as in the protector group, loss of life has to be more closely weighed with mission accomplishment. A fire fighter faced with entering an empty burning building must assess whether saving part of the building is worth a life. Saving or protecting property is not as essential as saving and protecting lives. Law enforcement personnel face similar thought. Pursuing an armed felon who has stolen property may not be deemed to be an acceptable risk if there is no imminent danger to the civilian population. On the other hand, military leaders usually have an understanding of the risk of an operation, yet the loss of life may be deemed an acceptable outcome to accomplish the mission. Hence, the reason why a leader is acting and what they are trying to accomplish, as a protector or as a vanquisher, is significant.

Unexpectedly in our results, flexibility negatively affects situation awareness; the *inverse* of what we expected. We believed that flexibility would lead to more situation awareness for all occupations during *in extremis* conditions, but our data reveals the opposite. For the whole group, it was negative and when we separated out the specific jobs, only military was significant. Our supposition is that balance is the key. An individual needs some flexibility to be able to adjust from a plan, but too much flexibility may make it easy to explore too many alternatives. Military leaders may be more overtly trained specifically on situation awareness to make it more effective than for either the firefighters or law enforcement groups.

Our second hypothesis was that self-esteem has a positive effect on situation awareness. Again, although the effect was significant for the group as a whole, when tested with the careers as moderators, the effect held up only for military. Individuals who join the military understand that there is a high probability that they will be entering into *in extremis* situations. Soldiers come to believe the risk is manageable and the cause is worthy; they are taught that situation awareness is vital to their existence. Firefighters and police are usually in the protection mode and therefore may believe that they will not have to depend so strongly on situational awareness to survive. The final hypothesis, self-sacrifice had a positive effect on self-efficacy was not supported for military, but it was significant for both the law enforcement and fire fighters. Individuals who are drawn to the idea of protecting people and property, and the willingness to sacrifice themselves through public service, may feel that they are better able to accomplish tasks set before them. Although military are compelled to do their duty, they may not feel as though they will have to sacrifice themselves to accomplish the mission.

Our work emphasizes that leaders facing serious personal danger are alike in some ways; however, examining the differences as to why an individual is in the *in extremis* situation is crucial. Is the leader there to protect or to vanquish? Situational leadership implies there are no

consistent factors in any leadership situation and even if you have similarity among *in extremis* categories, the leadership will still be different because, to be effective, the leader has to adapt his/her style to each situation (Bass & Bass, 2008).

It is beyond the scope of this paper to postulate how training or hiring may be changed due to these differences among these occupations, but our results do suggest that the four characteristics of flexibility, altruism, self-sacrifice and self-esteem may lead to increases in both situation awareness and self-efficacy. It is, therefore, logical to assume that during *in extremis* situations these factors may help increase positive outcomes for all three groups. More research needs to be done on all three of these groups, focusing on their similarities and their differences.

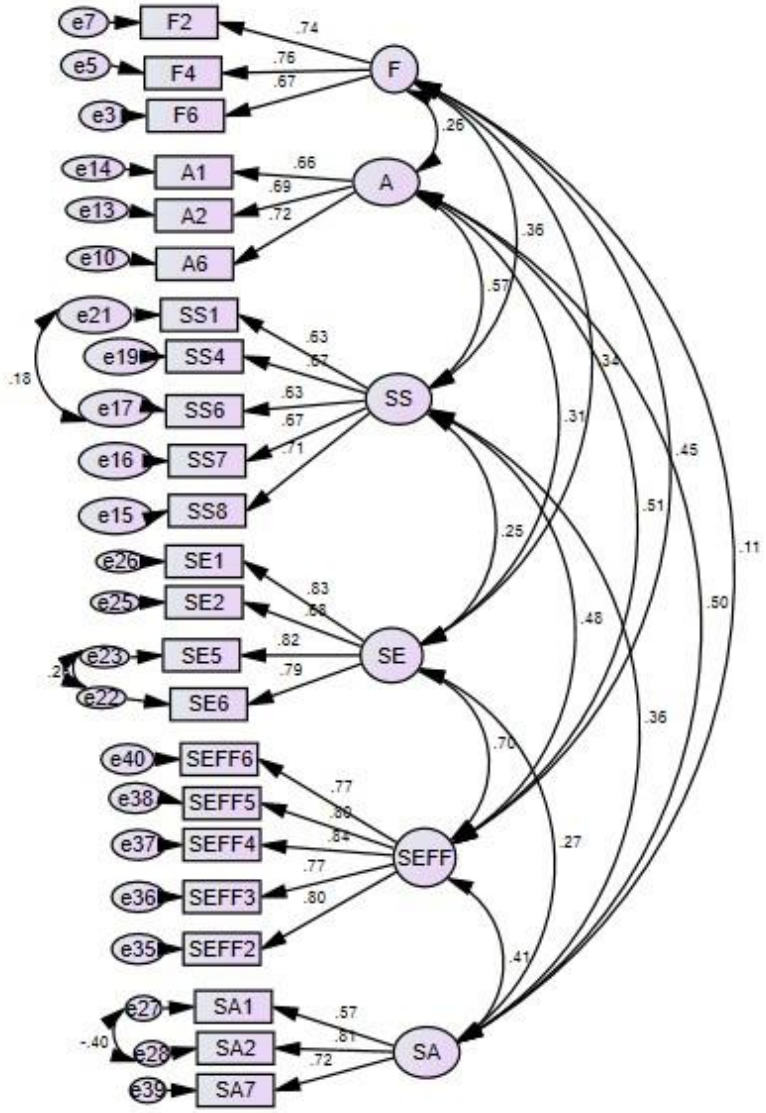
APPENDIX A
SUMMARY OF ORIGINAL MEASURES

Construct	Definition	Items	Source
Self-Efficacy	Belief in personal capabilities to mobilize the motivation, resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situation.	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree 1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.** 2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.* 3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.** 4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind. 5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges. 6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks** 7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well* 8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	adapted from the New General Self Efficacy Scale by Chen, Gully and Eden 2001
Situation Awareness	Being aware of what is happening in the vicinity to understand how information, events, and one's own actions will impact goals and objectives.	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree 1. It was likely that the situation could change suddenly** 2. There were many variables that required my attention. 3. The situation at the time was complex.** 4. I was ready for the activity.* 5. I was overwhelmed by all the new things I had to think about.* 6. I was very focused on what was going on.** 7. There were several different things I had to focus on during this situation.	These questions were developed from the SART definition of SA (Endsley & Garland, 2000, p. 118)
Flexibility	Ability of respondents to adjust their emotions, thoughts and behaviors to changing situations and conditions	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree 1. It's easy for me to begin new things.** 2. It's easy for me to make adjustments in general. 3. It's easy for me to change my opinion about things.** 4. It's easy for me to adjust to new conditions easily. 5. I'm able to change old habits.** 6. It's generally easy for me to make changes in my daily life. 7. It's easy for me to change my ways.** 8. It would be easy for me to adjust if I were forced to leave my home.**	Adapted from Bar-on EQI 1997
Altruism	Willingness to be helpful to others	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree It's just like me to: 1. Help push a stranger's car out of the snow. 2. Give directions to a stranger. 3. Donate goods or clothes to a charity.** 4. Do volunteer work for a charity. ** 5. Point out a clerk's error when the error was in my favor.** 6. Help someone (not a friend) with a task when my ability/knowledge was great than his/hers. 7. Give up my seat to a stranger who was standing.** 8. Help an acquaintance to move households. **	Adapted from Smith, Organ and Near 1983
Self-Sacrifice	Focuses on your willingness to sacrifice yourself for public service	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree 1. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements. 2. I believe in putting duty before self. 3. Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds.** 4. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself. 5. Serving citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it. ** 6. I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it. ** 7. I am one of those people who would risk personal loss to help someone else. 8. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.	Adapted from Altruism scale Perry 1996
Self Esteem	Original scale: Response 0 = No Answer Response 1 = not true Response 2 = Seldom true Response 3=Sometimes true Response 4 = Often true Response 5 = Very Often true	Five point Likert scale: Strongly disagree to strongly agree 1. I feel like I am a person of worth. 2. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.** 3. I am able to do things as well as most people.** 4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. ** 5. I take a positive attitude toward myself. 6. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	Adapted from Self-Esteem Scale Rosenberg, 1965

Frequency of IE Experience	Experience of being deployed in a dangerous situation.	Prior to your last dangerous environment, how many times had you been deployed to a combat zone or been placed in a dangerous environment? This was my first deployment; 1 or two others; 3 or 4 deployments; 5 deployments; Over six deployments	2012

*Deleted based on pretest respondents ** Deleted for model fit

APPENDIX B
CFA



APPENDIX C
Cronbach's Alpha and Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	Cronbach's	Number of Items	Specification
SA	68	3	Reflective
SEFF	83	3	Reflective
FLEX	76	3	Reflective
SE	87	3	Reflective
SS	80	5	Reflective
ALT	73	3	Reflective

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	SE	SS	Flex	SA	ALT	SEFF
SE	1.000	.228	.332	.233	.297	.597
SS	.228	1.000	.322	.313	.535	.467
Flex	.332	.322	1.000	.107	.229	.402
SA	.233	.313	.107	1.000	.467	.373
ALT	.297	.535	.229	.467	1.000	.505
SEFF	.597	.467	.402	.373	.505	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX D: Model Fit and Occupation SEM

TABLE D1
Measurement Model Fit

Measure	Our model tested
Chi-square/df	323.501 /212
P value for the	.000
CFI	.977
GFI	.948
AGFI	.932
SRMR	.0372
RMSEA	.032
NFI	.937
PCLOSE	1

FIGURE D1
Military SEM

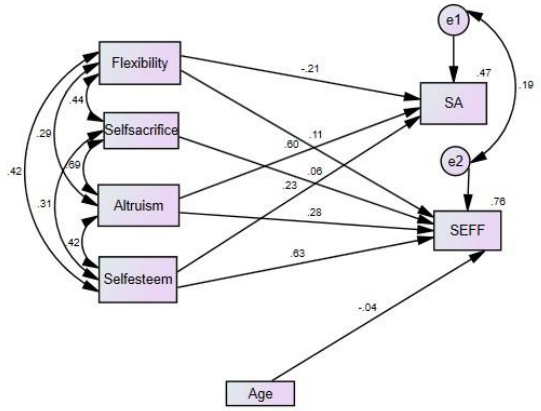


FIGURE D2
Fire Fighter SEM

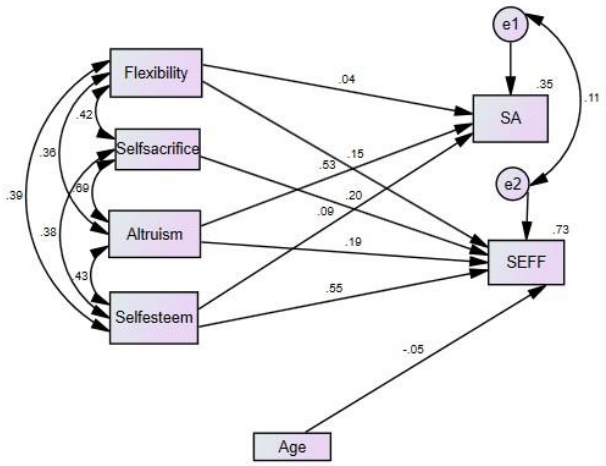
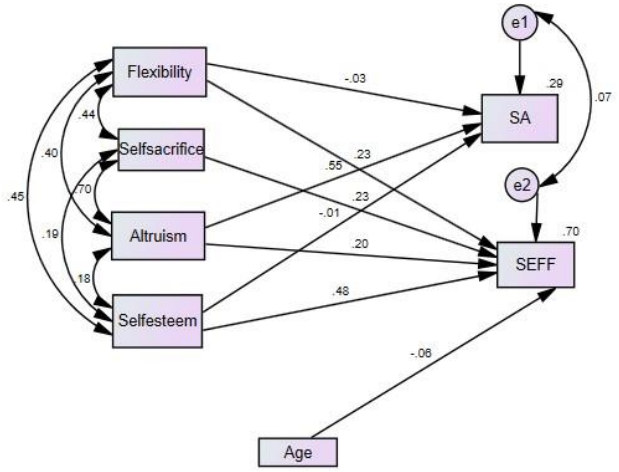


FIGURE D3
Law Enforcement SEM



APPENDIX E
Validity and Reliability of Latent Constructs

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	SEFF	F	A	SS	SA	SE
SEFF	0.896	0.632	0.484	0.270	**0.795**					
F	0.767	0.524	0.202	0.105	0.449	**0.724**				
A	0.732	0.476	0.327	0.201	0.514	0.256	**0.690**			
SS	0.796	0.438	0.327	0.176	0.482	0.360	0.572	**0.662**		
SA	0.745	0.498	0.255	0.128	0.411	0.112	0.505	0.360	**0.706**	
SE	0.861	0.608	0.484	0.166	0.696	0.342	0.307	0.252	0.270	**0.780**

APPENDIX F: Adequacy Statistics

TABLE F1
Adequacy Statistics

Name	Value
KMO	.874
Bartlett's test of Sphericity	0.0
Communalities	Average value .58
Non-Redundant Residuals	4 or 1%
Total Variance Explained	54%

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Service-Learning in the Leadership Classroom: The Instructor Perspective

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Abstract

This phenomenological study explores the experiences of educators who use service-learning in undergraduate leadership classes. The session will focus on common themes and sub-themes emerging from the research which describe the participants' experiences. Findings give rise to implications for pedagogical practice and our understanding of both service-learning and leadership education.

Introduction

Most of what is known about the experiences and outcomes of service-learning comes from the vantage point of the student. This makes a lot of sense with regard to determining whether service-learning is an effective pedagogy and deserving of the resources it requires. One of the frequent refrains in the service-learning literature is that faculty and instructors are important to the process. It is they who usually have the power to decide whether service-learning is used, what is expected of the students, how it is evaluated, and even the attitude with which it is approached.

While faculty may be acknowledged in the literature, they are not well represented in the literature. This phenomenological study sought to explore and better understand the instructor perspective for that reason. Service-learning has experienced resurgence on college campuses in recent years In particular, service-learning has been used increasingly as a pedagogical approach to leadership education. Therefore, this study focused specifically on leadership educators who instruct undergraduate leadership courses for academic credit on college campuses. This paper, and the session it proposes, will share the findings of the study—including themes that emerged from the research and describe the instructors' experiences, as well as additional observations made by the researcher and subsequent implications and recommendations for those who work in leadership education on college campuses.

It is important to distinguish service-learning from volunteerism or service strictly speaking. Service can be broadly defined to include service-learning, community service, volunteerism, and community outreach (Chesbrough, 2011). For purposes of this study, the distinction was that service-learning—in whatever form it may take—is a required part of an academic credit-bearing course (although the course itself may be a required or elective course, depending upon the student and the program). It is a form of experiential education that requires students to learn about social issues in connection with their class and/or through participation in a community setting. In the context of the course, the experience may be referred to as service-learning, or it may be referred to in other terms, such as "community-service learning", "problem-based learning", "collaborative learning", or "cooperative learning". These different names fall under an experiential learning umbrella that Eyler and Giles (1999) refer to as "civic education" (p. 155). In a recent issue of the *Journal of College Student Development* (2013), Ishitani and

McKitrick address service-learning as a form of civic education, alongside such experiential terms as community service, collective action, and political action. Using this umbrella, rather than focusing on experiences that are explicitly called service-learning, allowed for the inclusion of a variety of experiences which are consistent with the multiple definitions and objectives of service-learning as it is used in college and university settings.

In order to be mindful of the aforementioned variability, and also to capture a variety of service-learning strategies that may not use that specific term, Madsen's (2004) definition of academic service-learning was employed as the basis for identifying participants (and the service-learning projects they use) for this study. This definition refers academic service-learning as:
a multidimensional pedagogy (a form of experiential learning) that is integrated within a credit-bearing course in the form of an organized, thoughtful, and meaningful project.
Students are paired with agencies or organizations that have specific needs related to the content of a particular course. Students then perform the needed community service while, at the same time, using course content and reflecting on their experiences for enhanced learning. (p. 329)

This definition of service-learning allows for the inclusion of experiential projects that may not be referred to, by the instructor or students, as service-learning but which do fall under a broader umbrella that includes various forms of service-learning. It also helps to distinguish academic service-learning from other forms of experiential education.

In specifying that the instructors will be using service-learning as part of undergraduate leadership courses, it was also important to be clear about what "leadership course" is. Instructors were eligible to participate if they taught courses which were transcripted credit-bearing courses with leadership in the title, and/or in the explicitly stated learning outcomes of the course, or were connected to larger leadership programs like majors, minors, or certificates.

Finally, given the variation in instructor types, from graduate assistants to tenured professors, and many types in between, it was necessary to distinguish the type of instructors who were eligible to participate in this study. In an effort to include a variety of instructor types while also ensuring that those instructors had sufficient depth of experience upon which to draw, it was determined that eligibility for participation would be reserved for those instructors who

- teach transcripted courses for undergraduate students
- serve as the primary point of contact for students in the class
- have partial or full decision-making authority about aspects of the course such as learning outcomes, pace and method of content delivery, assignment expectations and grading
- work directly with students in the execution and/or reflection and processing of their service-learning experience
- and whose primary role at the institution is other than that of student

These specifications allowed for the potential inclusion of adjunct faculty members, lecturers, staff members, tenured faculty members, and also those faculty members pursuing tenure or in non-tenure seeking positions. Additionally, these specifications did not allow for the inclusion of faculty or staff members who oversee but are not directly involved with the instruction of the

course nor of full-time graduate students who were teaching as part of their assistantship responsibilities. While these individuals may have valuable perspectives, it is likely that their experiences and perspectives differ from those who are more directly and consistently involved with instruction in the ways described above.

Literature Review

In the same way that educators don't always agree on the definition of the term "service-learning", there is also not always agreement as to what the intellectual and personal aims of service-learning are or should be. This is not an issue of which outcomes are good outcomes, but rather an issue of which outcomes are most relevant and realistic given the characteristics of the students, the course, and the institution (Rama, Ravenscroft, Wolcott & Zlotkowski, 2000). For some service-learning experiences, the desired outcomes are more focused on personal development and changes in perspective (attitudes and beliefs). For others, the desired outcomes relate most to skill development; and for still others, the goal is behavioral change in both the short and long term (Zlotkowski, 1996; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Moore, Boyd, & Dooley, 2010; Reinke, 2003). Ultimately, educators acknowledge that there are both academic and personal outcomes desired through the use of service-learning. In addition to helping students understand theory in action, there is also a hope that students will become more socially responsible and civically engaged (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Godfrey, 1999; Mayhew & Engberg, 2011; Morgan & Streb, 2001; Morton, 1995; Myers-Lipton, 1998). The breadth and depth of outcomes that are anticipated and outcomes that are achieved is an indication that service-learning work has the potential to be highly complex (Einfeld & Collins, 2008).

In his research on the Social Change Model, Dugan (2006) included community service ("defined as volunteering time in the campus or local community", p. 337) as one type of involvement that he believed might assist the development of socially responsible leadership (HERI, 1996; Komives & Wagner, 2009) in college students. Other types of involvement addressed in his study were positional leadership roles, student organization membership, and participation in formal leadership programs. Of these four types of involvement, Dugan found community service to be the most influential in the development of socially responsible leadership among college students. Although Dugan did not limit his focus to service-learning, but rather looked at community service more broadly, his findings are important to an understanding of the relationship between service-learning and leadership development. Service-learning was not explicitly excluded from Dugan's concept of community service, and prior research into the connection between service and leadership development has indicated that students benefit equally from service and service-learning:

[In 2000, Astin and colleagues] concluded that service-learning does not add to the students' leadership abilities, but rather that leadership growth occurs at the same rate in both community service and academic service-learning. One explanation proposed by Astin and colleagues is that academic courses using service-learning tend to focus more on cognitive skills and their development rather than on the development of leadership skills. (Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009, p. 170-171)

Given the commonly-held view that leadership is an outcome of service-learning—whether primary or coincidental—it stands to reason that service-learning would be a common pedagogical choice in leadership classes. Zlotkowski (1996) observed that ". . . much of the momentum behind the service-learning movement. . . has been provided by academics—and concepts—tied to the social sciences and liberal arts" (p. 12). The interdisciplinary nature of leadership studies may result in it being viewed as a social science. However, the emergence of leadership classes on college campuses (as opposed to leaving leadership as an implicit outcome of academic and co-curricular learning) has been a fairly recent development (Greenwald, 2010)—which means that service-learning pre-dates leadership coursework, as such.

The bulk of literature available on service-learning in leadership classes is focused on its use in business schools, and the bulk of that is focused on graduate and professional courses (Bies, 1996; Collins, 1996; Friedman, 1996; (Goldstein, Calleson, Bearman, Steiner, Frasier, & Slatt, 2009; Graham, 1996; Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, & Colby, 1996; Mercer, 1996; Reinke, 2003). In the 1990s when the use of service-learning was on the rise, so too was the belief that business schools had an obligation to infuse social responsibility in their programs. This was done most often in leadership and ethics courses, and the most common strategy used toward this end was service-learning. In 1997, the Academy of Management developed several initiatives to promote service-learning as a pedagogical tool in business schools (Dipadova-Stocks, 2005). The previous year, the *Journal of Business Ethics* devoted an entire issue (vol. 15, no. 1, January, 1996) to articles from a symposium on the use of service-learning in business schools: "The innovations being undertaken by the business school are designed to develop leadership, creative problem-solving and teamwork. However, in addition to developing these skills the business school is striving to develop leaders with an understanding of the broader responsibilities of leadership" (Mercer, 1996, p. 112). Expected learning outcomes in the business school classroom grew to include enhancement of knowledge to help balance theory and practice, teamwork and communication skills, ability to adapt to changing conditions in the workplace, and emphasis on innovation (Govekar & Rishi, 2007). Additionally, professional associations across the country have highlighted their emphases on ethical practice and social responsibility in their fields. A shift began to occur from focus solely on technical skills and expertise to a demand for interpersonal and leadership skills (Rama et al., 2000).

The aforementioned issue of the *Journal of Business Ethics*, along with some subsequent research, has addressed leadership outcomes for graduate and professional students including medical students and those in MBA and MPA programs. The aim of service-learning with these students was to help them develop "a broad set of skills such as coalition building, policy advocacy, fundraising, program planning, motivation, and facilitation," which may not be part of their regular curriculum (Goldstein et al., 2009).

Generally speaking, there is a great deal of confidence in service-learning as a means for leadership development. The focus on graduate students in the existing literature might be a reflection of that confidence, signaling a belief that sufficient information about service-learning with undergraduate students has already been obtained. Another possibility is that service-learning experiences with graduate and professional students are believed to have a greater impact and that research is more prevalent with those students in order to examine that belief.

These two possibilities are not mutually exclusive, and either might help to explain the seeming lack of recent research on student outcomes with service-learning in the leadership classroom. It has been posited that upper-level courses could be more conducive to meaningful change when it comes to the benefits of service-learning, or at least that the question is worth asking (Morton, 1995; Kolenko et al., 1996).

Faculty are often the ones who decide whether or not to use service-learning in their courses and, if so, how it will be structured. Even in cases where faculty members may have inherited a service-learning course or are teaching with service-learning at the behest of a dean or department head, their perspectives matter. They will have influence, either directly or indirectly, on the perspectives of their students with regard to the service-learning project; and they will be facilitators of learning. The faculty member is the person with whom rests the responsibility and "burden of helping students take complex real world community service experiences and use these experiences to enhance the student intellectually, morally, and in some cases, spiritually" (Kolenko et al., 1996, p. 141-142).

Framing faculty involvement with service-learning in that way gives rise to several questions. Chief among them are:

- How do faculty and instructors make decisions about whether or not to use service-learning and on what do they base those decisions?
- How do faculty and instructors determine learning outcomes for service-learning?
- How do faculty and instructors know what students have learned as a result of service-learning?
- What have faculty and instructors learned as a result of incorporating service-learning into their courses?

Dicke, Dowden, & Torres (2004) emphasize that :

(F)aculty members often have strong and varied opinions about service learning and the outcomes that should be achieved; however, they do not always discuss these opinions with their colleagues. Faculty consensus is not a prerequisite for establishing effective service learning initiatives, but it helps to have the support of others when implementing the pedagogy. (p. 201)

Furthermore, understanding faculty experiences with service-learning can provide opportunities for the sharing of best practices, ensuring the intentionality of instruction, and advancing the effectiveness of service-learning—especially in the leadership classroom. Exploring faculty perspectives can lead to positive outcomes for both faculty members and students; and consequential improvements to service-learning can lead to positive outcomes for the community organizations that are recipients of and partners in service-learning.

Methods

This study has a broad central research question as well as sub-questions that were used to guide data collection. The central research question of this study is, "What meaning do instructors

make of their experiences with service-learning in the leadership classroom?" Connected to this central question are two sub-questions:

1. How do instructors of undergraduate leadership classes that utilize service-learning describe their experiences with service-learning?
2. What is the context in which those experiences occur?

Phenomenology is a qualitative approach to research that is designed to explore the lived experiences of several individuals in order to discover the essence of the experience that is common among those who share it (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009; Moustakas, 1994). This is consistent with the objective of the research. Therefore, the phenomenological approach was the one most suited to addressing the research questions.

Instructor experiences were explored through the collection of syllabi, course materials, and other artifacts (phase one), along with semi-structured individual interviews aimed at understanding the experiences, attitudes, and beliefs which contribute to the shaping of instructor perspectives (phase two). This strategy provided multiple points and types of data collection. Once the interviews were transcribed and themes were identified, peer de-briefing was used to verify themes. Additionally, themes were shared with participants as a means of member-checking (phase three). There were three phases to the data collection process, past and present experiences were discussed, and there was an opportunity for follow-up questions (common in phenomenology; Moustakas, 1994) if they were deemed necessary.

The interviews were semi-structured one-on-one interviews between the researcher and the participant that built on the basic prompt, "Tell me about your experiences with service-learning." Participants were asked to specifically recount experiences with service-learning that they deemed to be rewarding, challenging, exciting, and disappointing or frustrating. In order to obtain a diverse array of perspectives among participants, leadership educators from across the country were recruited for involvement in this study. Therefore, nine of the ten interviews took place over the telephone while one of the interviews was conducted face-to-face.

There were a total of ten participants. All of them came from public four-year institutions, and six of them came from land-grant institutions (notable because land-grant institutions have service as part of their institutional mission; APLU, 2012). Eight participants were women, and two participants were men. Five participants were in faculty roles (including tenured, tenure-seeking, and non-tenure-seeking), and five were in staff roles (including staff in both academic and student affairs). Most of the participants taught upper-level courses, meaning courses at the 300 and 400-level, although two of the participants were teaching lower-level courses or courses at the 100 and 200-level.

Departmental homes for the participants and their courses were varied. This was not surprising, given that leadership is a multi-disciplinary field. Two participants were based in hard science academic homes (biology and engineering), one participant was based in cultural studies (specifically Chicano Studies), three participants were housed in departments of agricultural education (departments varied in name but usually included some elements of education, communication, and/or leadership in the agricultural field), and four participants were in academic homes that were identified as being focused on leadership studies. Despite the variation in academic homes, the courses taught by these participants shared many common goals with regard to learning outcomes. The most prominent and common learning objectives these instructors had for their courses included involvement in the community, an understanding

of society and social issues, understanding of and experience with change, and the opportunity to apply theoretical concepts to real life practice. True to the criteria for participation in the study, each of them taught courses that were either focused on leadership, with leadership learning and development as an explicitly stated goal, and/or affiliated with a transcripted academic leadership program of some kind (major, minor, or certificate).

Results

Each of the participants was asked, at the end of their interviews, why they used service-learning in their leadership courses. Laura, a faculty member in leadership studies referred to service-learning as a way for leadership educators and students to live their discipline: "(W)e are living our discipline. You know, we tell young people if they see something wrong in their organizations or their communities or their whatever, they should do something about that. And we're gonna try to help them have the tools to know how to do that."

Claire, a faculty member in agricultural education, pointed out that service-learning was, in her estimation, the best way for students in her program to demonstrate their competence as students of leadership:

> (T) hese students who are in what we call Ag Leadership Education. Well, what does that mean? We're always tryin' to define what the heck that means. So, student teachers go out and do student teaching. It'd be crazy. You wouldn't think about hiring a teacher who hadn't taught before . . . So that's why… they're student teaching. So what, on our side, what are our Ag Leadership students doing to prove themselves?. . . I feel like we have to continue offering a service-learning approach in teaching leadership.

In most of the interviews, participants talked about the importance of students being able to apply their leadership learning in real life situations. They saw such an opportunity as the impetus for skill development, critical thinking, and a better understanding of how things work in the real world. But how did the instructors themselves experience service-learning?

It is clear, from the responses of participants, that service-learning is seen by these leadership educators as real life leadership—not just because it provides the chance to learn and practice leadership skills or see leadership being demonstrated by others, but also because it is (presumably) an opportunity to participate in working toward the common good and finding solutions to social problems in a way that may not happen as often in other experiential learning settings. Service-learning, like leadership itself, is messy, is about others, and pursues the common good. These core elements or themes that connect service-learning and leadership also shed light on the essence of the instructors' experiences with service-learning.

In addition to the three core elements or themes, the instructors indicated that service-learning experiences led to learning and change—for students and for instructors. In fact, it became clear during the data analysis phase of this project that the instructors' experiences with service-learning were interwoven with the experiences of their students and that the instructors may have undergone a progression very similar to their students when it comes to experiencing service-learning. This similarity is consistent with the findings of Clayton and Ash (2004), although the

current research uncovered different phases than the prior research. The four core elements or themes of instructors' service-learning experience were:

1. Service-Learning is Messy
2. Service-Learning is About Others
3. Service-Learning Pursues the Common Good
4. Service-Learning Leads to Learning and Change

As illustrated in Table 1, several sub-themes are connected to more than one main theme due to the over-lapping and interwoven nature of the themes.

Table 1

Overview of Themes

Primary Themes & Intersections	Sub-Themes
Service-Learning is Messy	Logistics & Management Issues Control / Lack of Control
(Intersection of Messy/About Others)	Challenging Ideas & Pushing Boundaries Being Prepared & Ready to Serve Others Partnerships
Service-Learning is About Others	Connection Between Instructor & Student Experiences The Importance of Engagement Responsibility to/for Others
(Intersection of About Others/Common Good)	Experiencing the Impact of S- L
Service-Learning Pursues the Common Good	How Instructors View Leadership What Instructors Value
Service-Learning Leads to Learning & Change	Application of Course Concepts to Real Life Settings Replacing Old Mental Models with New Ideas

A different way to visualize the major themes is illustrated in Figure 1:

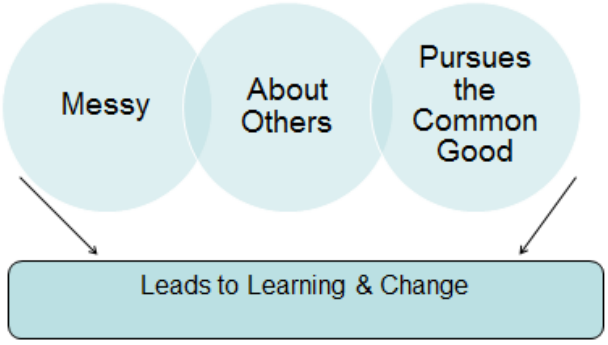

Figure 1

The instructors in this study experienced service-learning as a series of highs and lows that had the potential to impart significant learning for everyone involved and also had the potential to fail miserably or even cause harm to those it was intended to help. Instructors dealt with logistical obstacles and challenges, students with negative attitudes and an unwillingness to engage, and community partners whose needs and timelines did not match their own. Instructors also dealt with the disappointment that occurred when others in the partnership were let down as a result of inappropriate behavior, bad decisions, or miscommunication. They also watched as students embraced service-learning, understood its connections to their class and their lives, and exceeded the expectations instructors had for them in ways that the instructors themselves might never have imagined. They felt some degree of responsibility for all of it in one way or another—the good, the bad, the exciting, the confusing, the successes, and the failures.

Instructors also experienced an evolution in their own understanding of service-learning and their role in it. They were able, as a result their experiences, to articulate their ideas about what service-learning is, what it should be, and some of the factors that make or break it. All things considered, the instructors who participated in this study were proponents of service-learning (even if that wasn't the term they used for the work their students did). In spite of the struggles and disappointments that were evident in their experiences—and that they knew would continue—they focused on the growth and learning that they also believed would continue. For instructors, the ability to have meaningful work that allowed them to live their discipline, share their values and learn with students, grow as people and professionals, and have a positive social impact was worth going through the frustrations inherent in the messiness of service-learning.

Service-learning was experienced, by leadership instructors, in a variety of ways. Some of them experienced service-learning as participants before becoming instructors, and others experienced service-learning first as instructors, both in and out of their classrooms—with those experiences changing and evolving over time as they themselves developed skills and abilities or switched classes or institutions during the course of their careers.

Some instructors learned about service-learning through conference attendance, reading the literature around service-learning, networking with others when possible, and even taking classes. All of the instructors learned by doing—their own doing and their students' doing. They experienced service-learning with and through their students. In addition, some instructors had experience in the roles of community partners prior to coming to their current roles on college campuses. Some volunteered in their communities and outside of their professional capacities. They experienced service-learning as participants, coordinators, spectators, and equal partners. In all cases, these experiences were catalysts for reflection and critical thinking which caused instructors to make meaning of service-learning, learn from it, and use it to become better educators and better people.

In this study, the essence of instructors' experiences with service-learning was that service-learning was an opportunity to experience and express leadership consistent with their beliefs about what leadership is or should be. At its core, the experience of these instructors with service-learning was messy, about others, and focused on pursuit of the common good. The experience itself led to learning and change. In these ways, service-learning was a reflection of what the instructors believed leadership is or should be—and their experiences with service-learning were reflections of what they believed their students were also experiencing. Service-learning is a leadership education tool that allows instructors to provide students with exposure to the key elements of leadership as they understand it: complexity, a focus on others, and a goal for the common good. Service-learning allows instructors to learn and develop with and through their students in the process. As a result, the instructors aren't only the facilitators of skill development, relationship-building, values clarification, and social awareness, they are the learners as well.

The essence of the instructor experience is similar to what we might imagine that students experience: There is frustration and uncertainty which gives way to dissonance, struggle, and an evolution of how they understand themselves, their profession, and the world around them. It is messy, frustrating, invigorating, and enlightening, and it leads them on a constant quest for adaptation and improvement.

Discussion / Recommendations / Implications

The commonalities instructors have identified between leadership and service-learning, particularly with regard to the major themes that emerged, echo Heifetz's ideas about leadership and adaptive challenges (Heifetz, Grashow & Linsky, 2009). And also reflect elements of leadership frameworks from the post-industrial paradigm (Greenleaf, 1970; Komives & Wagner; Rost, 1991). According to Heifetz and his colleagues, "Adaptive leadership is the practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive" (2009, p. 14). On some level, service-learning provides adaptive challenges for the students and for the instructors. That is part of the motivation in choosing service-learning; but the instructors, while they anticipated that their students would be challenged, did not always anticipate the ways in which they themselves would be challenged. According to research on service-learning conducted by Clayton and Ash (2004), it is this messiness that ultimately leads to transformation.

It would be remiss, in a discussion about reflection and service-learning—or any form of experiential education—not to mention that many college-level instructors rely on the work of Kolb (1984) and his colleagues to inform their pedagogy. Bearing in mind that the students and instructors are both learners in the service-learning process and in experiential education overall, and that both sets of learners operate on what they have been taught from previous experiences, Kolb and Kolb (2005) noted that "Making space for students to take control of and responsibility for their learning can greatly enhance their ability to learn from the experience" (p. 209). This was a control issue frequently cited by the participants in my study. Instructors understood that it was important for students to take ownership, but they often struggled with how to provide the best guidance and with the responsibility they felt for making sure service-learning was successful. This conundrum is also consistent with literature on youth-adult partnerships (YAPs) which tells us that adults often mistakenly believe they must take an entirely hands-off role in order for young people to be able to demonstrate true leadership (Camino, 2005).

For the instructors in this study, the best way to determine an appropriate balance of involvement and to define their own roles in service-learning partnerships seemed to be through experience, reflection, and adjustment. Experience and reflection had the power not only to lead to skill development and improved practice, but also to be motivational and even transformational for instructors. It helped some of the instructors who participated in this research become more conscious of their own values and priorities.

Other scholars who have researched service-learning have made recommendations regarding faculty that this research supports and advances. There are two issues that stand out as potential avenues for improving the service-learning experience—for faculty and also for everyone else involved. The first is the preparation and readiness of instructors, and the second is the clear communication of expectations across the service-learning partnership.

Of course, saying that instructors should be prepared, have what they need to engage in truly reciprocal relationships, and be able to help their students navigate the complexity of service-learning is perhaps more easily said than done. Pribbenow (2005) advocated for "more comprehensive and reflective faculty preparation and development". He believed that "Faculty development. . . begins with preparation, continues through implementation, and includes evaluation that cycles around to further preparation" (p. 35). While that cycle of learning was evident in this research, not all instructors felt as prepared at the outset as they might have wished to be. Most instructors spoke of learning by doing.

One instructor sought out a service-learning experience for herself so that she could better understand what her students would be experiencing. It is not so hard to imagine that other instructors could have the same opportunity. Given that so much of instructors' learning in service-learning happens by doing service-learning, that instructors with little or no service-learning experience often do not feel like they know more about it than their students, and that the instructor experience seems to mirror that of the student, the research discussed here supports Pribbenow's call for comprehensive and reflective faculty development. What better way to do this than to have instructors experience service-learning first as students?

In institutions with a strong culture of service-learning and an expectation that faculty use the pedagogy more frequently, it should not be difficult for more experienced instructors to help design and facilitate a service-learning experience (perhaps over the summer or as a faculty/staff only alternative break experience) for newer and less experienced instructors. In institutions

where service-learning is not as prominent, there may be more challenges to creating service-learning experiences for instructors, but it is not impossible. If the experience cannot happen at one's home campus or in one's local community, perhaps it can happen at a nearby campus or as part of a professional conference. This experience should at minimum include preparation, the service itself, and guided reflection; and it should be implemented by educators who are familiar with service-learning and thus better able to help those with less familiarity.

Most of the instructors who participated in this study talked about the importance of relationships in service-learning. The building and sustaining of service-learning partnerships requires a great degree of intentionality, as with most any relationship. There are also many potential obstacles that could prevent instructors and other partners from being as intentional as they would like to be. Do the partners in service-learning—and especially the instructors—believe that they have the time necessary to devote to creating and maintaining a mutual and reciprocal relationship? How far removed are instructors from other service-learning partners? Are they across town from one another? Across the state? In different parts of the world? In addition to limitations on time and other resources, physical and geographic distance could also pose barriers to the development of a strong relationship. Differences in organizational, institutional, and community cultures (not to mention larger cultural considerations such as nationality, ethnicity, and religion) may also play a role. Also included in this mix are the students as partners. Do they understand what is expected of them—by their instructors and the community partners, beyond simply the number of hours required and the tasks assigned to them? To some extent, these challenges and considerations are part of the desirable complexity of service-learning. At the same time, they may also be barriers to ownership, effectiveness, and the maintenance of critical relationships. The idea that expectations should be clearly communicated is perhaps self-evident. But what is the extent to which this occurs, or should occur, in service-learning?

Finally, there is a philosophical implication to these findings that is important to note. While instructors who are not focusing on leadership learning my themselves experience service-learning in different ways than the instructors noted here, the idea that service-learning is about others and pursues the common good may be an idea that is shared across disciplines (even if those things don't describe the core themes of instructor experiences across disciplines). Therefore, it must be asked of the pedagogy more generally, is service-learning really about others? If so, which others are included—and which might not be included? Furthermore, does service-learning truly pursue the common good? The common good according to whom? These questions are not intended to challenge the experiences of the ten instructors who participated in this study. Rather, they are intended to challenge all of us who use service-learning to consider deeply our own assumptions, presumptions, and beliefs as educators about what service-learning should be and the extent to which we might tolerate deviations from that ideal.

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Fostering resilience through a leadership development program: examining perspectives from the gulf coast

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Abstract

The states bordering the Gulf of Mexico have endured a number of challenges to their economic, environmental, and social resilience over the last ten years. Issues such as the tri-state water wars, Hurricane Katrina, Deepwater Horizon oil spill, and the economic downturn have challenged these communities and their ability to move forward. Through application of a qualitative case study, using narrative interviews, the researcher seeks to investigate the effects of a leadership development program on participant's resilience and leadership skill development in a Gulf coast community. Working to enhance leadership through a leadership development program designed to meet specific group needs, is it possible to create resilient leaders in these communities? The implications for this research could guide the facilitation and development of resilience in communities impacted by environmental and economic challenges. This study fits within the National Leadership Educators research agenda priority six; *social change and community development* by fostering the "development of vibrant and resilient communities…" by addressing "the development of these communities, the cultures within them, and ultimately their sustainability and resiliency during adversity-filled times" (Andenoro, et al., 2013, p. 22).

Introduction

Gulf of Mexico bordering states, from Texas to Florida, suffered a number of natural and man-made disasters over the last ten years (Kwan, 2011). The disasters have impacted both the economies and natural environments of these communities. In response to these disasters, the Apalachicola community realized the need for a proactive approach to preparations. Disasters that affected the area included the decline in oyster production related to the lack of water in the Apalachicola River, federal and state management agency proposals were detrimental to the livelihood of those who relied on the bay for income, the U.S. economic recession, residual impacts from the Deepwater Horizon (DWH) oil spill, and damage from Hurricane Katrina. As a result, the Apalachicola Bay community collaborated with a large land grant in the south to create a new grassroots organization. This team was tasked with pulling together the various industries, which relied on seafood production for survival, and to "speak with one voice" (Nordlie, 2012, para. 4). With the goal of eventually creating a nonprofit entity, the Seafood Management Assistance Resource and Recovery Team (SMARRT) was created to protect the bay and provide an opportunity for citizens to engage lawmakers and regulatory agencies to effect change (J. Taylor, personal communication, April 24, 2013). The ability of the Apalachicola community to endure and thrive through these challenges has required the members of the community to find new ways to address problems.

Through application of a leadership development program (LDP), this study sought to determine if participants grew in resilient behaviors. If resilience was positively impacted through

participation in leadership training, future program development and curriculum planning activities could include resilient attributes to increase overall community resilience. This study fits within the National Leadership Educators research agenda priority six; *social change and community development* by fostering the "development of vibrant and resilient communities…" by addressing "the development of these communities, the cultures within them, and ultimately their sustainability and resiliency during adversity-filled times" (Andenoro, et al., 2013, p. 22). The research objectives for this study included:

1. Describe SMARRT member's perceptions of resilience six months after their participation in the LDP.
2. Describe the self-perceived change in leadership skills of SMARRT members after participation in a LDP.

Literature Review

This study focused on a LDP and the development of resilience within the group. The natural progression was to examine resilience and leadership development as a theoretical framework from which to investigate the phenomenon of concern.

Resilience

Originally grounded in psychology, resiliency and resilience inquiry sought to understand what characterized people who thrived while in adversity versus those who succumbed to destructive or negative behaviors (Richardson, 2002). Studies on stress management and risk factors contributing to diseases associated with stress led to the emergence of resilience as a concept (Shores, 2004). Beardslee (1989) noted that the variety of definitions have led to a lack of consensus in methodology for investigations, standards of the construct, and disagreement over how to effectively measure resilience in individuals. Common definitions of resiliency have focused on the ability to effectively cope with, adjust to, and respond to the problems, issues, and circumstances individuals faced throughout their lives (Allen, Stevens, Hurtes & Harwell, 1998).

Leadership Development

Leadership development is "a continuous systemic process designed to expand the capacities and awareness of individuals, groups, and organizations in an effort to meet shared goals and objectives" (Allen & Roberts, 2011, p. 67). Fostering leadership skills, knowledge and abilities through a leadership development program is key to increasing individual and group leadership capacities (George, 2003). George (2003), in identifying the core attributes of authentic leaders noted; they are passionate, have a genuine interest in what they are doing, truly care about their work, and have a real sense of purpose. When assessing leadership abilities, numerous leadership philosophies purport leaders are born, and the skills and abilities are inherit within their personality (Bass, 1990; Goldberg, 1990; Jago, 1982). In contrast, some have argued leadership is learned, and anyone could learn to be an effective leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2005; Greenleaf, 1970; George, 2003; Patterson, 2003).

Avolio and Gardner (2005), in describing the role of authentic leadership through stressful situations, noted the "unique stressors facing organizations throughout the world today call for a

renewed focus on what constitutes genuine leadership" (p. 316). The authors (2005) identified the critical need for authentic leadership in times of challenge as having:
precipitated a renewed focus on restoring confidence, hope, and optimism; being able to rapidly bounce back from catastrophic events and display resiliency; helping people in their search for meaning and connection by fostering a new self-awareness; and genuinely relating to all stakeholders (associates, customers, suppliers, owners, and communities) (p. 316).

Evidenced in the Avolio and Gardner (2005) statement, the focus on the development of resilient characteristics, and the role they played in the restoration of confidence, hope and optimism was related to the development of leadership skills. In order for nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) to be able to proactively address the needs of the communities they serve, they must be resilience oriented with a sense of purpose grounded in authentic leadership. SMARRT, which was a recently established group, had not benefitted from the opportunity to develop patterns of resilience or authentic leadership within the group. According to Hoopes (2013), preliminary investigations "suggest that resilience interventions have the potential to shift individual perspectives… and that long term practice can create deeper shifts in how individuals approach and respond to change" (p. 85).

Methods

Crotty (1998), in describing research design and methods, noted research typically starts with a real life issue that needs to be addressed, a problem that needs to be solved, or a question that needs an answer. The motivation of this study was to determine the effects of a LDP on the development of leadership skills and resilient attributes for members of a grassroots organization that was forming into a NGO. Utilizing the common constructs present in both leadership and resilience development programs, the study examined if the LDP would build resiliency within the group, which could, thereby, strengthen the community. The research objectives included:

1. Describe SMARRT member's perceptions of resilience six months after their participation in the LDP.
2. Describe the self-perceived change in leadership skills of SMARRT members after participation in a LDP.

The focus of the SMARRT study was to develop effective leadership skills and resilience within the leaders. This meant any study designed to understand the impact and relevance of leadership training on the development of an effective and resilient leader must be done in consideration of the social context. Therefore, the qualitative case study approach was selected. The data collection for this case included artifacts including the agenda and minutes from meetings, organizational bylaws, interview recordings and transcribed notes, video recordings of training sessions and meetings, direct researcher observations and field notes, the researcher's personal log, training materials and presentations, notes from research observers, moderator guides, and focus group videos and transcribed notes.

Through participation in the group under study, the researcher was able to triangulate data through a "flow with the social currents of the setting" and was able to "acquire perceptions from different points of view" (Dooley, 2008, p. 249). This form of continuous fact check and observation from different viewpoints and participant inputs or interviews allows for confirmation of observed behavior or phenomenon. Another distinctive advantage of the

participant observer role is the "ability to observe reality from the viewpoint of someone "inside" the case study rather than external to it" (Yin, 2009, p. 112). Because the social constructivism approach allowed for the participative creation of knowledge, the researcher as a participant and data collection instrument allowed for the guidance of, or influence on, the data. To ensure accurate representation of the final observations and interpretations, member checking was used to confirm select passages accurately represented the group.

The researcher used a social constructivism lens for the interpretive framework of this study. The social constructivist view finds individuals seek understanding of their world, and that they develop subjective meaning of their experience (Creswell, 2013). Within social constructivism, "society is actively and creatively produced by human beings," and social worlds are "interpretive nets woven by individuals and groups" (Marshall, 1994, p. 484). For this study, the researcher subscribed to the concept that reality is developed through community consensus, thus creating what was real within the community (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). Social phenomena and meaning-making activities were performed through groups or individuals, and this creation of 'reality' was of primary interest in this study.

Findings

The results from the analysis of the data were organized to follow the objectives of the study. The researcher used constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), which allowed the research themes of this study to emerge naturally, which were then coalesced around the research objectives. Throughout the analysis process, sections of coded data were grouped into themes and sub themes that sought to characterize the idea(s) present in segment of data. This resulted in sections where a single code represented the data, other sections included multiple codes in a single segment of data. In keeping with thick rich descriptions, the researcher preserved quotes using local vernacular and speech patterns, including the original inflection and phonetic spelling to the most realistic extent possible.

Objective One

The first objective was to describe SMARRT member's perceptions of resilience six months after their participation in the LDP. This objective was addressed using video and audio recording data from the six-month post-training focus group. The use of the focus group allowed the collaboration and expansion of ideas shared in a group setting. The result is additional storytelling and details that emerged from a group discussion versus the single respondent's perspective. In transcribing the audio recordings, responses from members present in the focus group were maintained consistently with one-on-one interview designations to distinguish between which member said each response.

The group's attitudes and opinions on resilience were more insightful at the six-month period when compared to the original interview sessions immediately following participation in the LDP. In general, at the six-month post participation period the members recognized an increase in resilience following participation in the LDP. During the focus group, multiple members spoke of the resilience and leadership skill development as something that they did not gain much value from at first. However, they realized that over the course of the last six months, they have had opportunity to apply their leadership and resilience skills. The result was a group that

felt they were more resilient and confident in their abilities. Evidence of this finding includes statements such as "I didn't know I was capable of doing some of this stuff before, but now I can see how we can make a difference" (11). That prompted another member to add "I was glad to be a part of the group, but I thought we would fail before; I'm thinking we can make a difference now, there are things we can do to make a change" (8).

Confidence. Confidence emerged as a theme that crossed a number of interactions. Some members spoke of increased confidence as they dealt with other seafood workers, community members, or legislative officials. Other members spoke in terms of improved planning skills or communication skills that allowed them to be clearly understood. Continuing discussion on the collective resilience of the group, members identified a general increase in confidence to engage and capitalize on the future and future opportunities, such as:

> This group has growed a lot. When we first started, we didn't have a clue what we was doing, first started. We just, we growed together, really, and figured it out and learned. We all learned, that's the thing, we learned. By us working together we've accomplished a lot (1).

Another participant, in speaking of the motivation and growth of the group following participation in the LDP, noted:

> Just keep on and keep on and I go out there and I look at the faces out there that's oystering and I'm like, you know what? I got to hold in there and I've got to do what I got to do. It's made me stronger being in the team group, where I used to be, I wouldn't have done it (3).

The researcher felt this increase in self-perceived resilience was the result of time and opportunity to apply newly developed skills following the LDP. The increase in confidence has resulted in members that are more willing to assume a leadership role. It is possible that the resilience inherent in these individuals was always there, and the confidence portion serves to motivate action more readily. Regardless of the motivation to act more resilient, the net impact is a more resilient SMARRT member.

Cooperation. The group continued the discussion focused on how the group has learned to work together. As the discussion continued, it was centered on how there were some strong personalities and others that while very knowledgeable and capable, were quiet and would not speak up in the meetings. These individuals just let the more vocal members dominate the discussions. Over the course of the training program, the trust building interactions with the group and learning how to relate to each other more effectively, the quiet members learned to speak up, and the vocal members learned how to listen. One participant statement that summarized it succinctly,

> One thing I saw about this group is that they learned to listen to each other. Before when we first started, there was only one or two that would say something, rest of them would have to sit back and didn't say a lot. They brought so much, they're speaking now and they're listening to each other. I think that's the biggest thing from the group (4).

The group equated commitment as an indication of resilience, and as a result spoke at length about the commitment to the bay and the community. This discussion about remaining committed lasted for a considerable portion of the focus group interview time. The stories told to illustrate the commitment were similar from each member. This is a community of multiple generations who have all relied on the bay and the seafood industry to survive. Members take great pride in discussing their commitment and heritage in the area. One member summarized the sentiment of the group in regards to a commitment to their work in saving the bay and the industry:

> I was born right here, raised right here, my children are here, my grandkids are here. My whole lifeline is here, right in Franklin County. Anything that I do here, I'm thinking my kids, my grandkids, my family. I'm not thinking me, I'm thinking family. Any decision that I make, anything that I come up with, has got to reflect good of what we do. Each of these people here, I know them, they think just like I do. [you] can't think of you. He got to think of his kids, his family, his daddy. He's got to think of those people. What am I doing that's going to be good for them? (12)

Objective Two

The second objective was to describe the self-perceived change in leadership skills of SMARRT members after participation in a LDP. With the central focus of the study being a leadership development program (LDP), the respondents freely spoke of their leadership skills, knowledge, and abilities following the participation in the program. Interview questions addressing leadership asked about prior leadership experience, opportunities, and feelings of development and growth following the program. This acknowledgement was present in one-on-one interviews immediately following the LDP, as well as in the focus group discussion conducted at six-months post training. Comments from one-on-one interviews included indicators of increased leadership awareness, such as "I've always felt I was a leader, but that thing showed I wadn't" (1), "myself, I gained a lot out of it…" (7), or "I learned a lot through this program, and I learned I don't know near what I thought I did" (10). Members noted an increase in their leadership skill, especially around the realm of effective communication.

Communication. Building a leadership development program that built precept upon precept, it appeared it was not a single training session that created the significant impact, but the cumulative effect of training and application, building throughout the program. The increase in communication skills was apparent in the way the group interacted, communicated, worked together, and even the issues they dealt with. One example of the improved communication and interactions was evident at the first SMARRT business meeting that the researcher attended where one of its members presented the group with a difficult interpersonal issue. This member felt the group was failing to consider the needs of his represented industry in the actions it was planning. Seeking to drive his point, he slammed his fist on the table and raised his voice in protest. The situation got very heated quickly. It became apparent that the group did not have an answer to this outburst, and the issue was quietly swept under the rug with no real discussion or resolution to the problem. Fast forward approximately one year later, and a similar outburst occurred with a community member challenging the decisions of the group. While this scenario

was slightly different in that it was not from within the group, their reaction this time was completely different. The group stopped other discussions and focused all their attention on the person having an outburst. They calmly asked questions and dealt with the issue at hand. Quick, timely, and without further incident, the group reached a solution where everyone was satisfied. It was a prime example of the group's maturity and growth, and their newfound comfort in dealing with conflict.

Leadership. In development and growth, sometimes learning something new illustrates that we didn't know something previously. As one member so succinctly stated, "I've always felt I was a leader, but that thing showed I wadn't" (1). Another member, reflecting on how some of the members missed a couple training sessions noted "the guys that did come, a lot of 'em did get something out of it; myself, I gained a lot out of it" (7).

The development of leadership skills and abilities showed up in the way the group spoke, how they conducted their meetings, reflected in comments by others who interacted with them, and even by partner organizational leaders. In a conversation with a key leader from Franklin's Promise Coalition that volunteered with SMARRT to help provide resources, he noted:

I think that for the most part, these guys are doers of things and not philosophers of things. For it to be more hands on and engaging, I think that was the important piece and I think that was, for me, a real good moment. To watch them work together and solve the issue and enjoy it, have a good time with it, to learn and grow from it (J. Taylor, 2014).

Each training session started with a period of reflection on the prior training session. During these reflective periods, members would share their insights from the prior week. These insights recur throughout the researcher's field notes, and provide a track record of growth and development of the group's members. One example is the training on conflict resolution, which meant the prior training session was on team development. The activities completed during the team development portion were perhaps the most impactful of the sessions, as the groups had to build something with their hands. During the reflection time, members commented about how the simple exercise led them to see ways they cause conflict, ways they sabotage their own efforts, and ways that they can work better with others. Other members noted their lack of trust so they had to always be in control, and how relinquishing control can free them up to do other things and also allow others to grow. Still others talked about how poor communication can make a team suffer, hinder progress and stop good things from happening. In his own words, "Some of us just couldn't click. I was trying to say, look, y'all had a hard time because somebody in that group wasn't being a full partner, wasn't communicating fully. Y'all was too much confusion" (7). These reflective statements served to illustrate that growth was happening in the group.

Discussion

Key findings, which emerged from the study, encompassed and spread across both objectives. To avoid redundancy of discussion when presenting each objective of the study, the emergent findings are presented by topic. This study looked at SMARRT member self perceptions of resilience at six-months post-participation, and member self perceptions of leadership following

participation in the LDP. The fifteen members who make up SMARRT represent the seafood workers union, oystermen, crabbers, guide fishermen, dealers, and shrimpers from the Apalachicola Bay area. Through use of one-on-one interviews and a focus group interview, the researcher sought to examine the effects of the LDP on SMARRT's leadership and resilience attributes.

The members of SMARRT represent a typical cross section of society in Apalachicola. Entering the study, each member had different experiences and life histories that helped shape who they are today (Shores, 2004). Reivich and Shatte (2002) noted that depending on the severity of the challenges, setbacks, and stressful events, the individual's normal coping techniques adjust accordingly. These varying life histories meant each member entered the LDP with a different background, different skills and weaknesses, and varying levels of resilience. Since this study was examining self-perceptions of resilience and leadership, there were no quantifiable measures of resilience or leadership headed into the LDP against which to compare. (This lack of quantifiable data was not due to a lack of effort, but rather a reluctance to participate in surveys and assessments on behalf of the sample group.)

For the training developed for SMARRT, the researcher designed a program to meet their specific leadership development goals. Using the needs assessment as a starting point, the LDP was designed to marry self-identified needs from the group that included communication skills, teamwork, conflict management, negotiating, arguing, compromise, leading, following, listening, and cooperation; with the stated goals and objectives of the team, and the reported education and skill level of the members. Gredler (1997) noted that any leadership development program must consider the audience, and the consideration must include the demographics, educational background, needs, current skills, and abilities in relation to those topics that are included in the training materials. This required a training program that could flex as the material was delivered. If the teaching appeared to basic, additional advanced ideas and concepts had to be ready. Using non-verbal feedback, interactive questioning, and reflective discussions, the researcher was able to assess the overall retention of new concepts and ideas with the group.

Trust. Following the emergent nature of a qualitative case study, which allowed the data to emerge as it developed, the researcher discovered the impact of trust during the LDP (Creswell, 2013; Hatch, 2002). Review of the video recordings taken during training sessions discovered the impact of nonverbal communication and the lack of trust early in the training process (Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1996). The first training session began with participants pushed back in their chairs, arms folded across their chests, emotionless faces, not much talking or feedback to questions or prompts by the researcher. This general defensive posture lasted through the majority of the first segment of the training session, and was nearly unanimous. The lone exception was one individual whom the researcher had met previously and talked with at length prior to proposing the project. The stark contrast of the second portion of the training session is what highlighted the behavioral differences from the first segment. During the initial training session where material was introduced and the overall LDP program was laid out, the group was in a defensive posture as noted previously. When the group broke to participate in the group activity, personalities began to show through and there was engagement from the group members. During the activity, it appeared the group grew more comfortable, both in working with each other as well as with the researcher. When the group reconvened into the training room

to complete the second portion of the training and reflect on the activity, there was laughter, talking, and engagement from participants. Body languages were different with participants sitting up, leaning forward, smiling faces, talking with each other and the researcher, joking and laughing. This display of comfort with each other and the researcher continued to develop throughout the training program, and culminated with the last training session where participants were asking if the researcher would continue to attend meetings after the study was complete. Interview sessions were conducted in participant's living rooms, around their kitchen tables, on front porches with their grandchildren on their lap, obvious signs of trust and friendship (Burgoon et al., 1996).

It is the researcher's belief that the overall effectiveness of the program, the lasting and meaningful impacts of the material presented, and the willingness to be open and honest was the direct result of the establishment of trust during the program.

Reflection. Assessing the resilience and leadership capabilities of the SMARRT members through self-perception questions relied upon the member's ability to reflect and assess their skills prior to and following the LDP. As Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1993) noted, reflection in training provides a link between theory and practice, allowing learners to digest and make sense of the experience. Dewey (1938) refers to these as conscious reflective activities, which were employed when conducting interviews. The reflection was subtle, but led by the researcher with a simple prompt such as: think back to when we did (activity). Following this reflective prompting, the questions could then lead the respondent to reflect on their experience level or capabilities at that point in time versus today. This helped to provide a context to compare against for many respondents.

The member's self-perceptions of resilience did not seem to change significantly immediately following the LDP. If a change was noted, it was more typically identified as a change in attitude due to awareness more than a change in behavior. The awareness of leadership skills, knowledge and abilities meant some individuals recognized their own potential or ability as a result. This changed their self-perception in that they recognized their abilities because they now knew a term to describe a set of behaviors.

The focus group reflection, where the members had opportunity to reflect on activities as a group, produced a different result. This difference in data collection method was important to highlight because unlike individual interviews, a focus group allowed them to build upon collectively developed knowledge and information (Merriam, 2009). This social construction of knowledge both refined and altered the final outcome of the focus group as each participant added perspective to the knowledge and ideas shared previously (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). This group reflection led the group to identify as more resilient and having developed greater leadership skill and capacity.

The LDP provided the foundational skill development and training necessary to increase resilience in the group members, however it was the benefit of time to reflect and apply those skills that facilitated a change in self-perceived resilience (Beard & Wilson, 2006; Kolb, 1984). This time allowed the members the opportunity to apply their own leadership skills and resilient behaviors in their personal contexts. This finding was consistent with Hoopes and Kelly (2004)

investigation, which "suggest that resilience interventions have the potential to shift individual perspectives… and that long term practice can create deeper shifts in how individuals approach and respond to change" (p. 85).

Confidence. Emerging as a theme in the interview data analysis, confidence also applied to the LDP and appeared to play a role in the participant success following the program. Building on a long history where the groups that compose SMARRT have not been capable of working together for any lasting success, developing and improving relationships between the various groups was essential. Indeed, "leadership involves persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the responsibilities and welfare of a group" (Hogan, Curby, & Hogan, 1994, p. 493). Hogan et al. (1994) go on to note, "it is important to distinguish between a person's short-term and long-term self-interest; actions that promote the group also serve an individual's long-term welfare" (p. 493). In the case of SMARRT, this statement succinctly sums up a potential motivation for their willingness to work together to save the seafood industry. Promoting of the group's objective of saving the bay also serves the individual's long-term goals of providing a sustainable source of income for themselves and for future generations.
Leadership success, or the effectiveness of specific leadership styles or behaviors, may be contingent on a host of personal, situational, and organizational characteristics (Bass, 1990). The display of self-confidence has been identified in a number of theoretical analyses as an important factor in leadership effectiveness (Cremer & Knippenberg, 2004). Within the SMARRT context, it is likely the display of self-confidence in pursuit of collective goals that communicates the likelihood or expectation of collective success, and therefore builds esprit-de-corps (Cremer & Knippenberg, 2004). In a sense, the role of confidence within SMARRT became a self-fulfilling prophesy in this sense. As members grew more confident, they displayed a sense of commitment to something larger than themselves, and invested themselves in success. That investment in success led others to be more committed to succeeding, which builds commitment and group trust and communication.

Personality Types. A portion of the leadership development program involved personality profile training where participants were able to learn their own personality type, as well as key differences in working and communicating with other personality types. This point in the training was very impactful for the members, and was the point at which a lot of the prior mistrust and strained relationships started to soften. Armed with the knowledge of different personalities, and how each personality type is motivated, engaged, and communicated, made for surprising revelations about each other. When members related to each other's personality differences and personal preferences, the group began to view each other differently, and understand the motivations of each other more clearly. The group activity built on the differences and started to create bridges, the overall tone and demeanor of the group began to change.

NGOs and Leadership Training. In a report on the nonprofit sector's leadership deficit, Tierney (2006) found that by 2016, NGOs would need almost 80,000 new senior managers per year. While SMARRT is not exactly the target demographic in the report, the staggering deficit of leadership in the NGO sector is still a pressing issue. Leveraging the Apalachicola Bay expertise and local credibility of those most directly impacted by the seafood industry's decline makes for a dedicated and passionate leadership team for SMARRT. Equipping that team with

core leadership skills and abilities empowers them to be ready and capable to lead and impact their community. Tierney (2006) suggested that "skilled management is the single most important determinant of organizational success, nonprofits must invest in building skilled management teams" (p. 3).

The NGO is typically the first to respond following natural or man-made disasters (Simo & Bies, 2007). Izumi and Shaw (2012) noted in their community-based approach the importance of using of local knowledge and preexisting capacities in the planning and disaster preparation process. Kumaran and Torris (2010) found that NGOs in India addressed the immediate needs of the people through leveraging substantial resources and expertise in the early phase of recovery, which allowed time for the governments and communities to identify more effective ways of meeting needs. NGOs have been vital to preparedness and recovery efforts, and as a permanent fixture in the community they "can also work on an on-going basis to increase population resilience by developing economic resources, reducing risk, ameliorating resource inequities, and attending to areas of social vulnerability" (Chandra & Acosta, 2009, p. 4). Recognizing this importance, the focus on NGO leadership is crucial to the effectiveness of these organizations (Chandra & Acosta, 2009). In this regard, the role that SMARRT plays could assist in developing critical response activities and community resilience in the event of a disaster from a leadership perspective. Serving as a central point of contact with state and local agencies, SMARRT's expertise can position them as the go to organization in the event of another oil spill, hurricane, or any other natural or man-made disasters.

Implications

The implications from this study were relevant to the study of leadership in the context of community (resilience) development and nonprofit leadership development, and fits within Research Priority VI, *Social Change & Community Development*. Generally, the study confirmed the current theories related to leadership development and the development of resilient behaviors. Specific findings that confirm prior research included:

Resilience development required some form of risk or threat to the development of the individuals (Masten, 2001). For SMARRT and Apalachicola Bay community, the threats included the shortage of water from the Apalachicola River into the bay, lingering impacts from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, and the economic downturn that impacted the majority of the world's economies during 2008- 2010.

Threats to the development of resilient behaviors were difficult to categorize, mostly because "specific or general problems in development often co-occur," and the "lack of specificity observed in studies of risk may reflect in part the tendency for measured and unmeasured risks to co-occur" (Masten, 2001, p. 228). As noted previously, the major threats to the bay area happened during the same period, and to measure or observe the impact of an isolated cause would be difficult to nearly impossible in a real-world situation.

The development of resilient behaviors was positively linked to a number of protective behaviors that included (a) adaptability, (b) good self-esteem, and (c) social responsibility (Werner, 1982; Werner & Smith, 1992; Werner, 1996); (a) positive outlook and (b) self-discipline (Garmezy, Masten, & Tellegen, 1984); and (a) self-mastery, (b) self-efficacy, (c) planning skills, and (d) positive outlook (Rutter, 1979, 1985, 1987, 1989).

The development of authentic leadership was evidenced through the development and evidence of self-awareness, balanced processing and relational transparency (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa 2005; Gardner, 2011; Northouse, 2013; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).

The development of resilience in communities to withstand 'livelihood shocks' has been at the forefront of NGO involvement (Christoplos, Mitchell, & Liljelund, 2001). Apalachicola's need to develop resilience in terms of food and livelihood sustainability was not unlike the research findings internationally.

Recommendations

The National Leadership Educators (NLE) 2013-2018 research agenda, finds this study aligning in national research priority areas three, four, and six. Leadership development, as defined by Allen and Roberts (2011) is "a continuous, systemic process designed to expand the capacities and awareness of individuals, groups, and organizations in an effort to meet shared goals and objectives" (p. 67). Couched within the leadership development of NLE, priority number three is focused on the psychological development of leaders, followers, and learners (Andenoro et al., 2013). This development agenda includes development in areas such as self-awareness, emotional intelligence, motivation, personality, personal hardiness or resilience, trust, and self-control to name a few areas. Continued research initiatives aimed at the understanding and development of these elements in learners equips our organizations and communities to address these complex challenges. Additional research efforts into the development of curriculum that can be tailored to the unique contexts and challenges coastal communities and nonprofit organizations face will provide real world hands on learning opportunities. These efforts can simultaneously work to resolve problems, equip new leaders with skills and abilities, and add depth to the leadership education research field.

NLE priority area number four is focused on the sociological development of leaders, followers, and learners (Andenoro et al., 2013). Similar to priority area number three, this priority area refocuses efforts on the individual within the group, team, and organization; it examines the relationships between leaders and followers, instructor and learners, the group and the individual (Andenoro et al., 2013). Just as this study identified trust as a critical component of successful development programs, additional research into the correlation between trust and program effectiveness is called for.

This priority area calls for research into the cultures in organizations and the diversity and motivations that drive them. Apalachicola is a very closed off community that is close knit, maintains strong ties to rich tradition and family heritages, and possesses a unique social culture. Future research into similarly rich environments to determine if there are common any threads that facilitates or hinders learning and development within those communities. Was the success of training in Apalachicola a fluke or can it be repeated in other communities?
Andenoro et al. (2013) note that "the complexities that impact the ability to be adaptive and manage the systemic nature of leadership within organizations requires more empirical research" (p. 16). This systems approach to leadership development acknowledges the interconnected

systems of the individual, group and organization with the larger social system. Evaluation and empirical research into the dynamics that influence and cause complexities in these relationships is needed. Apalachicola, as small of a community as it is (approximately 3,500 people) has multiple layers of societal complexity and social norms that might provide insight into coastal communities throughout Florida.

Testing of leadership development programs that impact learning objectives across diverse and multicultural audiences is needed. This diversity includes backgrounds, ethnicities, and cultures; reaching across the multiplicity of the global and local communities is essential. To accomplish this, complex adaptive systems thinking will need to be cultivated within learners. This can be accomplished through educational initiatives that elevate the learners' thinking to higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002).

Environments rich with political and social competition such as Apalachicola present the opportunity to research cause and effect relationships that can form the basis for the development of learning organizations. These adaptable learning organizations can foster and develop long term sustainability in these communities, building their resilience and ability to manage change without succumbing to negative actions. Social ethnography into the relationships and creation of local realities can preserve and prolong critical contextual knowledge for future development.

NGOs, as the first to respond to crisis or disasters (Simo & Bies, 2007) would benefit greatly from a risk management plan. Research into the number of NGOs without a risk management plan and the motivational reasons behind the lack of risk planning can provide educational objectives and knowledge to equip NGO leadership trainers. Follow-up studies into the fundraising habits of NGOs without risk management plan to quantify the number of firms operating without a plan. Connect the data to the fundraising and organizational bylaws of NGOs to determine the potential holes in their operations in an effort to bolster functionality and resilience.

Expansion or replication studies to include other NGOs in different contexts and communities. This replication would allow for comparative analysis between the contexts to identify commonalities and differences in the various settings. Subject areas can investigate leadership, resilience, roles and responsibility within the community, and value of training for leadership. Research into the core competencies of leaders who lead NGOs, both regionally and nationally, to compare programs and capacity building opportunities.

NGOs in potential crisis areas should have some level of resilience development or crisis leadership training, but what training is necessary? Examinations into the successful NGOs and what training and preparation they provide for their leadership and crisis team. This provides insight and best management practices to suggest for future training or replication. Identification of key partnerships, strategic alliances, crisis funding sources, crisis preparation / risk management preparations implemented in the successful organizations. These best management practices can guide the development of training programs for other NGOs.

Application of the study's findings into practice means leveraging the learned knowledge and outcomes for future growth and development. Key applications learned through the SMARRT

case study include leadership, resilience, and communication lessons. SMARRT members, following the LDP, expressed repeatedly how they learned leadership principles, but they also learned that they were unaware of what they did not know. This cognitive reflection translated to future development of NGOs to state that NGOs leaders and members should have some basic leadership development as part of their training. Because resources are always limited, a commitment to investing in the leadership of the organization should be prioritized.

Team building activities should be integral to the formation of new groups to foster and develop critical interpersonal relationships (Tannenbaum, Beard, & Salas, 1992). The members of SMARRT grew and developed closer relationships, trust, and the hands on experiential learning created context and meaning that fostered the learning. Experiential learning supports the notion of teaching and learning that encourages learners to create associations between educational activities and their personal experience to create new knowledge (Beard & Wilson, 2006; Kolb, 1984; Warren, Sakofs, & Hunt, 1995). As Kolb (1984) defined, experiential learning as a "process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38).

Communities should be included in planning group goals and objectives to create collaboration and buy-in with SMARRT members (Izumi & Shaw, 2012). Early interviews within the community identified a number of community members that had no understanding of what SMARRT was, what they were doing, or why they existed. Others had no idea SMARRT existed at all. Building relationships with the communities that the NGO serves should be paramount to ensuring the long term sustainability of the organization. It is hard to serve a population that does not know you exist. Communities that need the ability to bounce back quickly can benefit from awareness and development of strategic NGOs targeted that the community-based approach to disaster planning and recovery is possible (Izumi & Shaw, 2012).

NGOs in potential crisis areas should have some level of resilience development or crisis leadership training. Guleria and Edward (2012) looked at the coastal resilience of southern India after the tsunami and found "risk from many chronic and episodic coastal hazards which threaten the health and stability of coastal ecosystems and communities" (p. 1). Apalachicola and Franklin County fall within this coastal vulnerability designation, and judging by the results from this study have benefitted from the LDP. Group members report an increase in leadership skills, resilience, and greater trust and influence within the community. But many of the chronic and episodic coastal hazards which threaten the health and stability of coastal ecosystems still exist and are unaccounted for. Extension of the training programs to additional organizations, identification of training opportunities with their for-profit brethren, and collaboration with governmental agencies and neighboring counties to effect sustainability and resilience in the region will empower them to take control of their lives (Roseland, 2012).

Summary

The study sought to determine the impacts of a LDP on self perceived resilience and leadership abilities of members of the SMARRT in Apalachicola Bay. The LDP created a positive impact on SMARRT member's self perceptions of individual resilience and leadership. While designed to meet specific leadership needs as identified following a needs assessment, the LDP impacted resilience and leadership ability of members through the development of increased individual

confidence, trust within the group's members, identification of individual personality types and how those impact communications, and the use of reflection in group learning. Impacts of the study may be applicable to future LDP development, where resilience is a desired learning outcome.

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Comparing Instructional and Assessment Strategy Use in Graduate and Undergraduate-Level Leadership Studies: A Global Study

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Abstract

This study compares the differences in instructional and assessment strategy use between instructors who teach undergraduate- and graduate-level face-to-face, academic credit-bearing leadership studies courses. Findings suggest that discussion-based pedagogies, case studies, and self-assessments are the most frequently used instructional strategies, while instructors attach the most weight in their courses to Term Papers, Group Projects, and Class Participation/Attendance. Further, undergraduate-level instructors use Service Learning far more in their instruction, while graduate instructors attach much greater value to Term Papers.

Introduction

The first academic programs in leadership were founded in the late 1980's and early 1990's (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003) and yet, only a few studies have explored the instructional or assessment strategy use of leadership educators. The rare exceptions (e.g., Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012 & 2013; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999) investigated leadership pedagogy only through examining undergraduate-level leadership studies, while the literature is outdated and scant in scholarship of teaching and learning at the graduate-level (e.g., Crawford, Brungardt, Scott, & Gould, 2002; Koch, Townsend, & Dooley, 2005; Mellahi, 2000; Mitchell & Poutiatine, 2001). More routinely, studies have focused on the use of specific pedagogies in graduate leadership education (e.g., Stewart, Houghton, & Rogers, 2012). And with the exception of Jenkins's (2014) global study that compared the use of instructional and assessment strategies in online leadership education between undergraduate and graduate instructors, none of these studies included an international sample. Yet, according to the International Leadership Association (ILA) Directory of Leadership Programs, of the more than 1,500 leadership programs that exist today, more than 500 offer graduate-level leadership courses or degrees and over 100 are based outside the U.S.!

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the differences in instructional and assessment strategy use between instructors who teach graduate-level (GL) and undergraduate-level (UL) leadership studies courses. A quantitative research design was used. Specifically, an international web-based questionnaire was used to measure the frequency of use of a defined group of instructional and assessment strategies by instructors who teach academic, credit-bearing face-to-face leadership studies courses. To do so, the researcher explored the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequently employed instructional strategies used by instructors teaching academic, credit-bearing face-to-face GL and UL leadership studies courses?

2. With respect to frequency of instructional strategy use, what differences are there between instructors teaching GL and UL academic, credit-bearing face-to-face leadership studies courses?
3. What assessment strategies do instructors teaching academic, credit-bearing face-to-face GL and UL leadership studies course give the most weight in overall grading?
4. With respect to assessment strategy use, what differences are there between instructors teaching GL and UL academic, credit-bearing face-to-face leadership studies courses?

Literature Review

With the booming growth of leadership studies programs, the impetus for exploring the instructional and assessment strategy uses of leadership educators has never been greater. And while there is an abundance of literature exploring the use of specific pedagogies and best practices (e.g., case study, team-based learning) in both GL and UL leadership education, no research exists that explores instructional and assessment strategy use more generally and none that does so empirically, compares practices between academic levels, or explores the aforementioned on a global scale. To explore the abovementioned research questions within the framework of leadership education, lists of commonly utilized instructional and assessment strategies were created. The selection of instructional strategies was informed by the empirical studies of Jenkins (2012 & 2013) and Conger (1992), as well as Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2008b, & 2009), who created one of the first comprehensive lists of leadership development teaching methods found in the literature (see also Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000; Yukl, 2006) also informed extensively the list of instructional strategies surveyed (see Table A1). The selection of assessment strategies was informed by many of the aforementioned scholars and practitioners who included data or resources on assessment techniques in higher or leadership education (see Table A2). Final selection for inclusion in this study was based on a combination of recommendations from a panel of experts, tested in a pilot study, a review of the literature, and the researcher's expertise and experience. Admittedly, all instructional and assessment methods have their pros and cons. Indeed, because learning leadership and developing leadership skills may be different than learning other content in a traditional classroom setting, leadership education may need different strategies for facilitating learning (Eich, 2008; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007; Wren, 1994). Accordingly, leadership education requires its own examination to determine how effective teaching and learning of leadership is done.

Relatedly, while the quality or use of specific instructional strategies in leadership education has only very recently been explored empirically (see Jenkins, 2012 & 2013), the use of instructional strategies such as reflection (Densten & Gray, 2001; Guthrie & Jones, 2012), case study (Atkinson, 2014), service learning (Buschlen & Warner, 2014; Seemiller, 2006), teambuilding (Moorhead & Griffin, 2010), research leadership (Jones & Kilburn, 2005), self-assessments (Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011), role-play (Jenkins & Cutchens, 2012; Sogurno, 2003), simulation (Allen, 2008), and exams (Moore, 2010) have been marginally explored individually. At the UL, Jenkins (2012 & 2013) found that instructors who teach face-to-face academic, credit-bearing courses favor discussion-based pedagogies foremost, while group and individual projects and presentations, self-assessments and instruments, and reflective journaling were also used frequently. Accordingly, Jenkins argues that discussion is the "signature pedagogy" of undergraduate leadership education, referring to Shulman's (2005), former President of the

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, that signature pedagogies are distinctive ways of teaching that characterize the educational process in a specific profession (Shulman, 2005) or discipline (Gurung, Chick & Haynie, 2009). Similarly, Schmidt-Wilk's "Editor's Corner" in the *Journal of Management Education* suggested—though without any empirical bases or differentiation between GL and UL management education—that, "Since their introduction into management education almost a century ago, cases have become ubiquitous." (2010, p. 492). Additionally, Shmidt-Wilk includes Projects—both temporary and goal-directed—that, "typically involve students in design, problem solving, decision making and or investigative activities . . . and generally culminate in deliverables to some project client or sponsor" (DeFillippi & Milter, 2009, p. 351 as cited in Schmidt-Wilk, 2010, p. 493) in her article, "Signature Pedagogy: A Framework for Thinking about Management Education."

Comparing Instruction and Assessment Between Academic Levels

While age is the often the chief characteristic mentioned when describing adult learners, arguably, the difference goes far beyond age and years (Holmes & Abington-Cooper, 2000; Pew, 2007; Plemmons, 2006). Moreover, "best practices" are more about what the faculty do in the classroom, and how they engage with students through instruction and feedback, and the relevance they create between the subject matter and their students (Bain, 2004; Fink, 2013; Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Yet, research does infer that some pedagogical resources, provisions and orientations are more relevant for the outcome of mature students/graduates and that others are more so for the younger students (e.g., Yoshimoto, Inenaga, & Yamada, 2007). Moreover, as students develop cognitively—for example—from a dualistic (right versus wrong) view of the universe as they enter postsecondary education to a more relativistic view in their later studies (e.g., Perry, 1997), how students develop commitments and facilitate relationships, all place certain responsibilities on educators to develop frameworks and environments that facilitate learning at said stages (Plemmons, 2006). Arguably, similar decisions regarding relevancy and appropriateness of content and instruction may be made with respect to undergraduate students' progress across the stages of the Leadership Identity Development Model (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005), the developmental sequencing of leadership curricula (Dugan, 2013), and the degree of relationship between students' work experiences and study (Yoshimoto, 2002). However, with the exception of Yoshimoto et al. (2007), no research was found that compared instructional or assessment strategy use across academic levels and nations simultaneously.

Relatedly, just a few studies have explored the differences between teaching GL and UL courses generally (e.g., Pendse & Johnson, 1996) and only a few have compared specific instructional strategy uses such as Bruner, Gup, Nunnally, and Pettit's (1997) look at the differences that emerged when teaching with cases to graduate and undergraduate students in a Finance courses. Appropriately, Bruner et al. (1997), suggest that, "The professional attributes we want to foster in students should influence *how* we teach with case studies." The authors argue that the goal of case teaching is not mastery, but is instead, "…to prepare students for effective professional work." Arguably, the case studies included in *Exploring Leadership: For College Students Who Want to Make a Difference* (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013) and *A Day in the Life of a College Student Leader* (Marhsall & Hornak, 2008) are far more appropriate for undergraduate students leaders—even more so residential students—than cases filled with the conflicts

affecting CEO's of Fortune 100 companies (Jenkins & Allen, 2012). The instructor's ability to put relevance first to activate student learning perhaps trumps any significant differences between GL and UL pedagogy.

Methods

Participants

The participants were 836—390 GL and 446 UL—instructors who self-reported teaching an academic, credit-bearing face-to-face leadership studies course within the previous two years. This is the largest reported study of these populations to date. After participants eligibility was confirmed—they had taught a course within the previous two years—they were asked to identify one specific corresponding GL or UL academic credit-bearing course, to type the name of that course in a textbox, and to use that course as a reference point when completing the survey.

The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through an international study that targeted thousands of leadership studies instructors through three primary sources from March 31, 2013, through May 3, 2013. The first source was the organizational memberships or databases of the following professional associations/organizations or their respective member interest groups: (a) the ILA; (b) the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE); (c) NASPA (Student Affairs Professionals in Higher Education) Student Leadership Programs Knowledge Community (SLPKC); and (d) the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). The second source was the attendee list of the 2012 Leadership Educators Institute (LEI), an innovative bi-annual conference-like forum geared specifically towards new to mid-level student affairs professionals and leadership educators who coordinate, shape, and evaluate leadership courses and programs, create co-curricular leadership development opportunities and experiment with new technologies for doing so. The third source was a random sample of instructors drawn from the ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, a searchable directory of leadership programs available to all ILA members.

While the first and second sources were more so "shotgun approaches," they were also more likely to include ideal participants. While the ILA member database, ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, and LEI Attendee list provided access to members or attendees respectively, the researcher did not have access to the individual e-mails for the NASPA SLPKC, ALE, and NCLP groups. And, while the latter did send out invitation e-mails to participate in this study's survey to their respective listservs, return rates are not available due to the undisclosed number of recipients. Nonetheless, the return rates for the ILA member directory (12.57%), ILA Directory of Leadership programs (11.25%) and LEI (25.08%) were promising. Overall, these data collection procedures provided the researcher with the best possible sources to generalize the population.

Demographic information was collected from participants in the survey in order to better understand the educational and preparatory experiences of leadership educators. Additionally, questions related to participants' home institution, program, and department offerings were also included. Table 1 includes the most salient data from these questions. Of note, 41 countries were represented in the sample.

Table 1
Demographic and Educational Majority Survey Data

Question	Graduate Instructors	Undergraduate Instructors
Gender	56.5% "Male"	51.2% "Female"
Race/Ethnicity	79.1% "White/Caucasian"	83.9% "White/Caucasian"
Age	35.2% "55 to 64"	23.8% "55 to 64"
Location of Institution	77.1% "USA" (5.7% in both "Canada" and the "UK")	88.9% "USA" (4.4% "Canada")
Institution Type	54.6% "4-year Private University"	58.4% "4-year Public University"
College where Leadership course was located	32.3% "Business or Management" (25.0% "Education")	18.8% "Business or Management" (12.2% "Academic Affairs, College-wide, General Education, or no affiliated college")
Academic Department where Leadership course was located	27.5% "Leadership, Organizational Leadership, or Leadership Studies" (25.0% "Management")	19.6% "Leadership, Organizational Leadership, or Leadership Studies" (7.3% "Management")
Course Type	12.1 % "Special/Multiple Topics" (6.9% "Organizational/Groups/Teams")	14.8% "Introductory Leadership" (11.4% "Special/Multiple Topics")
Course Level		44.6% Intermediate, advanced, or upper level (35.7% Introductory)
Leadership Degree Offered	45.9% "Master's" (20.3% "M.B.A.")	36.8% "Minor" (33.2% "Baccalaureate")
Primary Activity at Institution	58.1% "Full-time faculty" (15.8% "Part-time faculty or adjunct")	45.5% "Full-time faculty" (23.2% "Full-time staff/administration)
Years in Current Position	32.4% "more than 10 years"	35.6% "1-3 years"
Years Working in Higher Education	37.9% "11 – 20 years"	30.6% "more than 20 years"
Experience Teaching the Leadership Course Indicated	61.6% "More than 5 years"	42.2% "More than 5 years"
Average Class Size of Course Indicated	58.5% "15 – 29 students"	59.5% "15 – 29 students"
Experience Teaching Leadership	46.5% "More than 5 years"	62.6% "More than 5 years"
Terminal Degree	84.2% "Doctorate"	60.7% "Doctorate"
Degree Area	12.7% "Leadership" (12.0% "Management")	10.5% "College Student Affairs, Development, or

Question	Graduate Instructors	Undergraduate Instructors
		Personnel" (9.0% "Higher Education")
Post-Baccalaureate focus on higher education, college teaching, college student development, or closely related field	39.5% "Yes"	56.5% "Yes"
Post-Baccalaureate focus on leadership	73.9% "Yes"	62.8% "Yes"
Completed Graduate-Level Leadership Coursework	49.0% "Yes"	47.5% "Yes"
Completed Undergraduate-Level Leadership Coursework	11.8% "Yes"	22.4% "Yes"

Type of Research Data

The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through an international study. The questionnaire format of the web-based survey in this study implemented as many principles from Andres (2012) and Evans and Mathur (2005) as possible. The questionnaire was modeled after the approach used by Jenkins (2012 & 2013) to collect data identifying the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching face-to-face leadership studies courses to undergraduates. In this study, the survey instrument was used to collect demographic information to profile the participants and identify the most frequently used instructional and assessment strategies for teaching GL leadership courses.

Data Analysis Techniques

Answering research questions one and three involved creating a frequency tabulation and percentage of responses for the items on the survey that looked at instructional and assessment strategy use. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the means and standard deviations of the item responses indicating frequency of instructional strategy use as well as the overall percentages of assessment strategy use. Participants were asked to describe their frequency of use of the list and associated definitions of instructional strategies listed in Table A1. Frequency of use of each strategy was ranked using the following scale:

- 1 – Never
- 2 – Rarely
- 3 – Occasionally
- 4 – Frequently
- 5 – Always Always/Always

The rating scale for assessment strategy use including the list and associated definitions listed in Table A2 was designed to capture the overall weight instructors placed on each strategy with

respect to students' overall grades in their courses. Accordingly, participants reported the level of toward a student's final grade each assessment strategy was given in their courses using the following rating scale:

- 1 – 0%, I do not use this type of assessment in my course
- 2 – 1-10%
- 3 – 11-20%
- 4 – 21-30%
- 5 – 31-40%
- 6 – 41-50%
- 51% or more

Answering research questions two and four—the comparison between the instructors who taught GL and UL courses—involved statistical analysis using independent *t*-tests using advanced statistical software. The analysis compared the means of responses of the frequency of use of the instructional and assessment strategies from the two groups of instructors. Additional discussion also includes Cohen's *d* statistics for the two group comparisons.

Table 2
Instructional Strategy Use Differences between Instructors Who Teach Face-to-Face Undergraduate- and Graduate-Level Leadership Studies Courses

	Graduate		Undergraduate					
Instructional Strategy	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*Cohen's d*
Class Discussion	4.75	0.46	4.72	0.50	620	0.70	.485	0.06
Interactive Lecture/Discussion	4.25	0.82	4.15	0.90	620	1.54	.124	0.12
Small Group Discussion	4.12	0.89	3.91	0.96	620	2.76	.006	0.22
Case Studies	3.67	0.99	3.23	0.99	620	5.41	.000	0.43
Self-Assessments & Instruments	3.46	1.22	3.54	1.06	539	-0.88	.389	-0.08
Problem-based Learning	3.38	1.11	3.15	1.06	620	2.60	.010	0.21
Media Clips	3.36	0.97	3.48	0.88	620	-1.59	.112	-0.13
Teambuilding	3.21	1.29	3.26	1.19	620	-0.57	.569	-0.05
Lecture	3.03	1.20	2.92	1.17	620	1.14	.253	0.09
Stories or Storytelling	2.94	1.27	2.64	1.18	620	3.06	.002	0.25

Guest Speaker	2.87	1.07	2.81	0.97	620	0.73	.467	0.06
Icebreakers	2.80	1.25	2.81	1.06	529	-0.18	.861	-0.02
Student Peer Teaching	2.73	1.33	2.78	1.35	620	-0.42	.675	-0.03
Role Play Activities	2.73	1.19	2.63	1.10	620	1.11	.267	0.09
Debates	2.67	1.24	2.47	1.04	528	2.17	.034	0.19
Simulation	2.36	1.24	2.41	1.12	553	-0.52	.610	-0.04
Games	2.35	1.15	2.67	1.06	558	-3.66	.000	-0.31
In-Class Short Writing	2.26	1.06	2.65	1.16	605	-4.27	.000	-0.35
Service Learning	1.88	1.13	2.69	1.48	620	-7.48	.000	-0.60

Note: Of the 836 participants who reported having taught a face-to-face, academic credit-bearing leadership studies course within the last two years, only n = 622 (Graduate: n = 272; Undergraduate: n = 350) progressed through the survey to the questions represented in Table 2.

Table 3
Assessment Strategy Use Differences between Instructors Who Teach Online Undergraduate- and Graduate-Level Leadership Studies Courses

Assessment Strategy	Graduate		Undergraduate					
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Major Writing Project/ Term Paper	3.79	2.03	2.83	1.76	518	6.25	.000	0.55
Group Projects/Presentations	3.26	1.75	3.37	1.63	604	-0.80	.422	-0.07
Research Projects/Presentations	3.00	2.00	2.44	1.72	517	3.72	.000	0.33
Class Participation/Attendance	2.97	1.70	2.92	1.46	515	0.35	.729	0.03
Short Papers	2.57	1.65	2.41	1.50	536	1.26	.213	0.11
Individual Leadership Development Plans	2.51	1.74	2.18	1.43	500	2.60	.012	0.23
Reflective Journals	2.20	1.63	2.47	1.68	604	-1.97	.049	-0.16
Exams	2.17	1.84	2.86	1.88	604	-4.54	.000	-0.37
Self-evaluation	2.14	1.59	2.01	1.41	525	1.03	.313	0.09
Observation/Interview of a Leader	1.86	1.42	1.85	1.25	604	0.11	.913	0.01
Student Peer Assessment	1.77	1.33	1.65	1.14	515	1.21	.235	0.11
Read and Respond	1.74	1.28	1.85	1.36	604	-0.99	.321	-0.08
Skill Demonstration	1.73	1.34	1.79	1.45	604	-0.56	.579	-0.05
Portfolio or evidence collection	1.57	1.30	1.73	1.41	604	-1.39	.166	-0.11
Video Creation	1.36	0.97	1.49	1.23	604	-1.36	.160	-0.11
Quizzes	1.32	0.87	1.66	1.08	603	-4.08	.000	-0.33

Note: Of the 836 participants who reported having taught a face-to-face, academic credit-bearing leadership studies course within the last two years, only n = 606 (Graduate: n = 263; Undergraduate: n = 343) progressed through the survey to the questions represented in Table 3.

Results

Instructional Strategy Use in Face-to-Face Leadership Education

Overall, the instructors who taught GL, face-to-face leadership studies courses used discussion-based pedagogies such as Class Discussion (M = 4.75, SD = 0.46), Interactive Lecture/Discussion (M = 4.25, SD = 0.82), and Small Group Discussion (M = 4.12, SD = 0.89), Case Studies (M = 3.67, SD = 0.99), and Self-Assessments & Instruments (M = 3.46, SD = 1.22) most frequently. Conversely, the same group used highly experiential skills-based instructional strategies such as Role Play Activities (M = 2.73, SD = 1.19), Debates (M = 2.67, SD = 1.24), Simulation (M = 2.36, SD = 1.24), and Games (M = 2.35, SD = 1.15) far less frequently, with In-Class Short Writing (M = 2.26, SD = 1.03) and Service Learning (M = 1.88, SD = 1.13) most infrequently. In comparison, instructors who taught UL, face-to-face leadership studies courses also used the same group of discussion-based pedagogies quite frequently (Class Discussion, M = 4.72, SD = 0.50; Interactive Lecture/Discussion, M = 4.15, SD = 0.90; and Small Group Discussion, M = 3.91, SD = 0.96), but used Self-Assessments & Instruments (M = 3.54, SD = 1.06) and Media Clips (M = 3.48, SD = 0.88) more often than Case Studies (M = 3.23, SD = 0.99). Equally, the UL instructors avoided the same highly experiential instructional strategies, but used Service Learning (M = 2.69, SD = 1.48) more often, with Debates (M = 2.47, SD = 1.04) and Simulation (M = 2.41, SD = 1.12) used most infrequently.

Comparing Instructional Strategy Use Between GL and UL Instructors

The two samples were identified as Group 1 and Group 2 for the purpose of means comparison using an independent t-test. Group 1 (n = 272) represented the instructors who taught UL face-to-face leadership studies courses and Group 2 (n = 350) represented the sample of graduate instructors. The independent t-test method was selected as the primary statistical analysis in order to compare the means of responses in both groups. Since the sample sizes in the two groups are different, a pooled variance was computed. With the results obtained from the independent-groups t-test analysis to compare the 19 instructional strategies used in the two instructor groups, the researcher produced the necessary statistics for comparison. The independent t-test statistics show that the p-values for all t statistics were insignificant ($p > .05$) with the exception of the following instructional strategies where, on average:

- GL instructors used Small Group Discussion (M = 4.12, SD = 0.89) more frequently than UL instructors (M = 3.91, SD = 0.96). This difference, 0.21, was significant $t(620) = 2.76$, $p = .006$, and represented a small effect, $d = 0.22$.
- GL instructors used Case Studies (M = 3.67, SD = 0.99) more frequently than UL instructors (M = 3.23, SD = 0.99). This difference, 0.43, was significant $t(620) = 5.41$, $p = .000$, and represented a medium effect, $d = 0.43$.
- GL instructors used Problem-Based Learning (M = 3.38, SD = 1.11) more frequently than UL instructors (M = 3.15, SD = 1.06). This difference, .23, was significant $t(620) = 2.60$, $p = .010$, and represented a small effect, $d = 0.21$.
- GL instructors used Stories or Storytelling (M = 2.94, SD = 1.27) more frequently than UL instructors (M = 2.64, SD = 1.18). This difference, .30, was significant $t(620) = 3.06$, $p = .002$, and represented a small effect, $d = 0.25$.

- GL instructors used Debates (*M* = 2.67, *SD* = 1.24) more frequently than UL instructors (*M* = 2.47, *SD* = 1.04). This difference, .20, was significant *t*(528) = 2.17, *p* = .034, and represented a small effect, *d* = 0.19.
- GL instructors used Games (*M* = 2.35, *SD* = 1.15) less frequently than UL instructors (*M* = 2.67, *SD* = 1.06). This difference, -0.33, was significant *t*(558) = -3.66, *p* = .000, and represented a medium effect, *d* = -0.31.
- GL instructors used In-Class Short Writing (*M* = 2.26, *SD* = 1.03) less frequently than UL instructors (*M* = 2.65, *SD* = 1.16). This difference, -0.39, was significant *t*(605) = -4.27, *p* = .000, and represented a medium effect, *d* = -0.35.
- GL instructors used Service Learning (M = 1.88, SD = 1.13) far less frequently than UL instructors (*M* = 2.69, *SD* = 1.48). This difference, -0.81, was significant *t*(620) = -7.48, *p* = .000, and represented a large effect, *d* = -0.60.

Assessment Strategy Use in Online Leadership Education

Overall, the instructors who taught GL, face-to-face leadership studies courses attached the most weight in their overall course grades to a Major Writing Project / Tem Paper (*M* = 3.79, *SD* = 2.03), Group Projects/Presentations (*M* = 3.26, *SD* = 1.75), Research Projects/Presentations (*M* = 3.00, *SD* = 2.00), and Class Participation/Attendance (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.70). Conversely, GL instructors gave little or no weight—often excluding completely from their courses—Portfolio or evidence collection (*M* = 1.57, *SD* = 1.30), Video Creation (*M* = 1.36, *SD* = 0.97), and Quizzes (*M* = 1.32, *SD* = 0.87). In comparison, instructors who taught UL, face-to-face leadership studies courses also valued Group Projects/Presentations (*M* = 3.37, *SD* = 1.63), but attached more weight to Class Participation/Attendance (*M* = 2.92, *SD* = 1.46), Exams (*M* = 2.86, *SD* = 1.88), Major Writing Project / Term Paper (*M* = 2.83, *SD* = 1.76), and Reflective Journals (*M* = 2.47, *SD* = 1.68), than Research Projects/Presentations (*M* = 2.44, *SD* = 1.72). Similarly, UL instructors avoided Video Creation (*M* = 1.49, *SD* = 1.23) and Quizzes (*M* = 1.66, *SD* = 1.08), adding Student Peer Assessment (*M* = 1.65, *SD* = 1.14) to round out the bottom three.

Comparing Assessment Strategy Use Between GL and UL Instructors

As in the previous analysis, the two samples were identified as Group 1 and Group 2 for the purpose of means comparison using an independent *t*-test. Group 1 (*n* = 263) represented the instructors who taught UL face-to-face leadership studies courses and Group 2 (*n* = 343) represented the sample of GL instructors. As noted in Table 2, there was a slight different in the sample size of each group as participants progressed to the questions represented by the data here. Again, a pooled variance was computed. With the results obtained from the independent-groups *t*-test analysis to compare the 16 assessment strategies used in the two instructor groups, the researcher produced the necessary statistics for comparison. The independent *t*-test statistics show the *p*-values for all *t* statistics were insignificant ($p > .05$) with the exception of the following assessment strategies where, on average:

- GL instructors attached more weight in their courses to Major Writing Project / Term Paper (*M* = 3.79, *SD* = 2.03) than UL instructors (*M* = 2.83, *SD* = 1.76). This difference, .96, was significant *t*(518) = 6.25, *p* = .000, and represented a large effect, *d* = 0.55.

- GL instructors attached more weight in their courses to Research Projects/Presentations (M = 3.00, SD = 2.00) than UL instructors (M = 2.44, SD = 1.72). This difference, 0.56, was significant $t(517) = 3.72$, $p = .000$, and represented a medium effect, $d = 0.33$.
- GL instructors attached more weight in their courses to Individual Leadership Development Plans (M = 2.51, SD = 1.74) than UL instructors (M = 2.18, SD = 1.43). This difference, 0.34, was significant $t(500) = 2.60$, $p = .012$, and represented a small effect, $d = 0.23$.
- GL instructors attached more weight in their courses to Quizzes (M = 1.32, SD = 0.87) than UL instructors (M = 1.66, SD = 1.08). This difference, -0.33, was significant $t(603) = -4.08$, $p = .000$, and represented a medium effect, $d = -0.33$.
- GL instructors attached less weight in their courses to Reflective Journals (M = 2.20, SD = 1.63) than UL instructors (M = 2.47, SD = 1.68). This difference, -0.27, was significant $t(604) = -1.97$, and represented a small effect, $d = -0.16$.
- GL instructors attached less weight in their courses to Exams (M = 2.17, SD = 1.84) than UL instructors (M = 2.86, SD = 1.88). This difference, -0.69, was significant $t(604) = -4.54$, $p = .000$, and represented a medium effect, $d = -0.37$.

Discussion

Until now, no research has investigated the instructional and assessment strategy use of GL and UL leadership educators on a global scale. The findings of this study suggest that discussion-based pedagogies such as Class Discussion, Interactive Lecture/Discussion, and Small Group Discussion, are used most frequently. Next, opportunities to analyze real-world issues through Case Studies and evaluate oneself through Self-Assessments & Instruments were used next most frequently. In comparison to the study completed by Jenkins (2012 & 2013) that reviewed on instructional strategy use by leadership educators in UL face-to-face classrooms, similarities abound. In particular, discussion-based pedagogies were used so frequently, Jenkins coined them as the "signature pedagogy" (see Shulman, 2005) in undergraduate leadership education (Jenkins, 2012). Additionally, Jenkins (2012) found that the use of Self-Assessments & Instruments and Case Studies was also quite frequent. Arguably, discussion-based pedagogies are also the signature pedagogy for graduate-level leadership studies.

This study was also the first to report on the assessment strategy uses of instructors who teach face-to-face leadership studies courses. However, Jenkins (2012 & 2013) did include a few "Instructional Strategies" such as Group Projects/Presentations and Research Projects/Presentations that were identified here as "Assessment Strategies." Correspondingly, Jenkins (2012 & 2013) found Group Projects/Presentations and Research Projects/Presentations to be the fourth and fifth most, respectively, used instructional strategies. In comparison, here, Group Projects/Presentations was the heaviest weighted assessment strategy for UL instructors, but Research Projects/Presentations was the sixth heaviest.

Furthermore, this was the first study to report on the differences between the instructional and assessment practices GL and UL leadership educators. According to the statistical analysis, GL instructors used Small Group Discussion, Case Studies, Problem-Based Learning, Stories or Storytelling, and Debates significantly more frequently in their teaching than UL instructors. In comparison, GL used Games, In-Class Short Writing, and Service Learning far less. Likewise,

GL instructors attached significantly more weight in their courses to Major Writing Project / Term Paper, Research Projects/Presentations, Individual Leadership Development Plans, and Quizzes, than UL instructors. In comparison, GL instructors attached significantly less weight in their courses to Reflective Journals and Exams than UL instructors.

Implications for Practice

This study was undertaken with the vision that leadership educators in GL and UL academic paradigms who teach face-to-face courses as well as academic and student affairs administrators seeking to further understand the types of teaching and learning present in the leadership classroom would find it pragmatic. Moreover, this exploratory study of instructional and assessment strategy use has implications for practice for a variety of stakeholders who seek to advance teaching and learning in GL and UL leadership education globally. Moreover, these findings have implications for the discipline. For example, the findings could provide a foundation for the curriculum of leadership-focused workshops and professional conference sessions. Further, findings from this study may catalyze ideas for innovations to the way leadership is taught or promote focused research on the use and best practices of the most frequently used instructional and assessment strategies.

Instructional Strategy Use

While this study provided a first look at GL and UL instructional strategy use in leadership education, the findings are not far different than Jenkins (2012 & 2013) study. According to Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, and Osteen (2013), "Leadership Education is the pedagogical practice of facilitating leadership learning in an effort to build human capacity and is informed by leadership theory and research. It values and is inclusive of both curricular and co-curricular educational contexts" (p. 6). Hence, leadership educators facilitate discussion in the classroom to provide an inclusive environment and draw from the perspectives of students. Further, the use of Case Studies to provide real-world context and relevance as well as Self-Assessments & Instruments to allow for more personalized exploration are abundant. And while the middle-of-the-road use of Lecture is encouraging, the infrequent use of highly experiential activities such as Role Play Activities, Debates, Simulation, and Games is concerning. Moreover, what are the justifications GL leadership educators might provide for their lack of In-Class Short Writing or the significant absence of Service Learning?

Assessment Strategy Use

Prior to this study, little was known beyond anecdotal evidence about the value leadership educators place on graded assignments in their courses. The findings from this study suggest the heavy emphasis on the Major Writing Projects / Term Papers often associated with GL work also rings true in the leadership discipline. However, the heavy weight associated with Group Projects/Presentations is comparably alike between GL and UL instructors, as is the percentage of a student's grade attached to Class Participation/Attendance. And while it is important to come to class and engage in discussion, how will leadership educators assess students' ability to lead? According to the findings of this study, more value is associated with one's ability to reflect and learn from others (e.g., Reflective Journals, Self-evaluation, Observation/Interview of

a Leader, Student Peer Assessment) than on one's Skill Demonstration. Arguably, while a significant association between leadership development and reflection is understood (i.e., Densten & Gray, 2001; Guthrie & Jones, 2012), an "assessment impasse" exists with respect to leadership performance as posited by Bass (1985), Heifetz and Laurie (1997), Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron, and Antes (2009), Peck, Freeman, Six, and Dickinson (2009), and Allen and Roberts (2011). How will leadership educators respond to the pressures to assess students' leadership effectiveness outside the classroom? As suggested by Andenoro et al. (2013, p. 9), "As innovative and learner-centered pedagogical approaches are being used in the field of Leadership Education, empirical research on such approaches is needed to gain more useful knowledge beyond utilization and instead on effective and engaging ways of teaching that meet educational objectives." Another aim of this study was to provide a foundation for this work.

Conclusions

The Leadership discipline is young and little is known about the classroom environments of leadership educators. Empirical data from this study provides new knowledge for the discipline. For example, we can describe the leadership classroom to stakeholders and others outside the discipline. Fittingly, one might portray a leadership classroom engaged in discussion—be it with the instructor or in small groups—perhaps dialoguing about a case study, a recently completed self-assessment or instrument, or even reflective writing. Students may be deeply immersed as spectators of their peers' group presentations. Yet, this is only an informed conjecture. As Andenoro et al. (2013, p. 7), suggest, "To fully understand the leader, follower, and learner, it is essential to gain holistic perspective of their feelings and perceptions," "…engage in research methods that collect rich data on student and faculty experiences in Leadership Education... and the effectiveness of instructional and assessment strategies." Ideally, future, qualitative research on the aforementioned, grounded in naturalistic inquiry succeeds this study.

The purpose of this study was to identify the online instructional and assessment strategies used most frequently by leadership educators and compare the use between GL and UL instructors. In the absence of any prior studies the aforementioned, these findings provided insight in the current state of leadership education globally. At the macro level, the researcher hopes that the findings from this study will be pragmatic, aiding stakeholders in designing curriculum and evaluating leadership programs. Moreover, it is chief aim of this research that future scholars design workshops and conference sessions, author books and articles, and provide professional development opportunities for leadership educators inclusive of the instructional and assessment strategies surveyed here. Additionally, the findings from this study offer shared attributes across global borders and educational levels that may better describe the practice of leadership education. At the micro level, the findings from this study may contribute to the design of leadership program policies, provide impetus for new research, and contribute to the existing body of literature.

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Appendix A
Instructional and Assessment Strategy Definitions

Table A1
Face-to-Face Instructional Strategies: Definitions

No.	Instructional Strategy	Description
1	Case Studies	Students examine written or oral stories or vignettes that highlight a case of effective or ineffective leadership.
2	Class Discussion	Instructor facilitates sustained conversation and/or question and answer segment with the entire class.
3	Debates	Student teams argue for or against a position using course concepts, evidence, logic, etc.
4	Games	Students engage in interactions in a prescribed setting and are constrained by a set of rules and procedures. (e.g., Jeopardy, Who Wants to be a Millionaire, Family Feud, etc.)
5	Guest Speaker	Students listen to a guest speaker/lecturer discuss their personal leadership experiences.
6	Icebreakers	Students engage in a series of relationship-building activities to get to know one another.
7	In-Class Short Writing	Students complete ungraded writing activities such as reflective journals or responses to instructor prompts designed to enhance learning of course content.
8	Interactive Lecture/Discussion	Instructor presents information in 10-20 minute time blocks with period of structured interaction/discussion in-between mini-lectures.
9	Lecture	Students listen to instructor presentations lasting most of the class session.
10	Media Clips	Students learn about leadership theory/topics through film, television, or other media clips (e.g., YouTube, Hulu).
11	Problem-based Learning	Students learn about leadership through the experience of problem solving in specific situations.
12	Role Play Activities	Students engage in an activity where they act out a set of defined role behaviors or positions with a view to acquire desired experiences.
13	Self-Assessments & Instruments	Students complete questionnaires or other instruments designed to enhance their self-awareness in a variety of areas (e.g., learning style, personality type, leadership style, etc.).
14	Service Learning	Students participate in a service learning or philanthropic project.
15	Simulation	Students engage in an activity that simulates complex problems or issues and requires decision-making.
16	Small Group Discussions	Students take part in small group discussions on course topics.
17	Story or Storytelling	Students listen to a story highlighting some aspect of leadership; often given by an individual with a novel experience.
18	Student Peer	Students, in pairs or groups, teach designated course content or

	Teaching	skills to fellow students.
19	Teambuilding	Students engage in group activities that emphasize working together in a spirit of cooperation (e.g., setting team goals/priorities, delegating work, examining group relationships/dynamics, etc.).

Table A2
Face-to-Face Assessment Strategies

No.	Assessment Strategy	Description
1	Class Participation/Attendance	Students are given points for active participation in course activities.
2	Exams	Students complete tests or exams that last the majority of the class period intended to assess subject matter mastery.
3	Group Projects/Presentations	Students work on a prescribed project or presentation in a small group.
4	Individual Leadership Development Plans	Students develop specific goals and vision statements for individual leadership development.
5	Major Writing Project/Term Paper	Students write a significant paper exploring course content or research (such as a literature review) as a major course assignment.
6	Observation/Interview of a Leader	Students observe or interview an individual leading others effectively or ineffectively and report their findings to the instructor/class.
7	Portfolio or evidence collection	Students document their own learning through the creation of a course portfolio.
8	Quizzes	Student complete short graded quizzes intended to assess subject matter mastery.
9	Reflective Journals	Students develop written reflections on their experiences or understandings of lessons learned about course content.
10	Read and Respond	Students are graded on their responses to questions generated by the instructor or from the end of the text chapter for the purpose of allowing students to explore specific ideas or statements in depth and breadth.
11	Research Projects/Presentations	Students actively research a leadership theory or topic and present findings in oral or written format.
12	Self-evaluation	Students respond in writing to criteria set for evaluating their learning.
13	Short Papers	Students author one or more short papers (ten pages or less in length) exploring course content.
14	Skill Demonstration	Students physically represent learning through problem solving ability in relevant contexts.
15	Student Peer Assessment	Students critique other students' work using previously described criteria and provide specific suggestions for improvement.
16	Video Creation	Students create short video presentations to be shown in

No.	Assessment Strategy	Description
		class.

A Qualitative Approach to Determining Factors Influencing Communication Skills of College of Agriculture Ambassadors

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the influential factors that helped College of Agriculture Ambassadors build communication and leadership skills and which then can be incorporated into high school and college curricula. Focus group findings revealed five domains, including: Ambassador experiences, recommendations for other students, influences on participation as an Ambassador, past communication experiences, and personal preparation for speaking. Recommendations were made by the participants for educators and students interested in building communication and leadership skills through student learning experiences. Regardless of whether an Ambassador was in their first or second year, similar influential factors on their communication and leadership skills were noted.

Introduction/Literature Review

From an employer standpoint, undergraduate and graduate students lack soft skills needed on the job (Brooks, Flanders, Jones, Kane, McKissick, & Shepherd, 2008). Soft skills, including communication, decision-making, problem-solving, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, and leadership experiences, are complimentary to a students' content knowledge-base and can influence the likelihood of successfully navigating an interview (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz, 2011). One main skill that is especially important and has been stressed in the literature is communication (Guenthner & Moore, 2005; Schneider, 2015; Thomas, 2010). Employers, teachers, and even college students themselves have been studied and all agree that communication skills are in need of improvement among college students about to enter the workforce. However, research concludes that students perceive their "soft or practical skills" to be stronger than that of employers. A recent report released by the Association of American Colleges and Universities highlights the discrepancy between students' and employers' views. While 62% of students said they were well prepared in written and oral communication, only 24% of employers believed that to be true of recent college graduates (Schneider, 2015). Leaders in the 21st century must be able to communicate in diverse situations and with diverse individuals and the need for enhancing student communication skills has been discussed for over a decade (Watt, 2003).

Employers are less likely to hire individuals lacking strong communication skills (Stephens, 2013; White, 2013). In a study by Bronson (2007), the majority of high school students lacked many professional characteristics, including communication skills, which can hurt them as they transition into college and the workforce. Employers are interested in soft skills of prospective employees, especially in communication. In fact, communication has been listed as the most important soft or practical skill to employers (Crawford et al., 2011; Schneider, 2015). The types of communication skills that employers are looking for, listed from most important to least important, respectively, are listening effectively, communicating accurately and concisely,

effective oral communication, communicating pleasantly and professionally, effective written communication, asking good questions, and communicating appropriately and professionally using social media (Crawford et al., 2011).

These soft skills are important to potential employers, especially in the agriculture field (Guenthner & Moore, 2005). Agriculture leaders must be able to communicate with diverse groups and do this effectively to maintain group motivation and support for an organization's mission (Kaufman, Rateau, Ellis, Kasperbauer & Stacklin, 2010). A study by the Center for Agribusiness and Economic Development at the University of Georgia showed job candidates (undergraduates seeking positions) were overly focused on technical skills and not soft skills such as communication and leadership (Brooks et al., 2008). Moreover, the researchers found job candidates had poor communication skills, needed more emphasis on leadership skills, critical thinking, problem solving, and analytical skills. Communication is an important skill needed for employment, and understanding how to better prepare future employees and leaders is key to giving them a competitive advantage in the workforce.

Although building communication and other soft skills is important, college students often have a negative perspective about strengthening these skills (Mangan, 2007). In fact, Mangan (2007) called on college faculty to strengthen soft skills in college students and Dwyer and Davidson (2012) more recently suggested that public speaking skills specifically should be targeted. Soft skills are not just related to particular careers, they are needed in every career, and Peckham (2009) emphasized the importance of communication specifically. All students can greatly benefit from leadership development activities especially in communication skill development (Watt, 2003). During the college years, it is particularly important to gain those communication skills for success in future employment (Richardson, 2013). Although the importance of communication skills in college students is well known, little has been discussed concerning where college students acquire such skills.

The need for soft skill development among college students is clear. In fact, many articles reinforce the idea of teaching soft skills and strategies for students to strengthen their communication skills specifically. Thomas (2010) argued for greater attention to be given to interpersonal communication in the curriculum, whether it is formal or informal, to help students gain necessary skills to be confident in social situations. There are many programs that train students in communication, especially vocational classrooms (Bronson, 2007). Experiential learning and Kolb's (1984) learning model are important to incorporate into any subject because they provide students with an opportunity to learn by doing while building communication skills as they engage in purposeful reflection exercises (Guenthner & Moore, 2005).

Although building soft skills like communication in students is critical, educators are often not equipped to help students build such skills (Hofstrand, 1996). Some teachers lack effective communication skills, so they need reinforcement in these skills themselves (Stephens, 2013). Teachers and professionals are aware of this need to help students in communication, but often lack the knowledge of how to incorporate communication strategies into their classrooms and assignments. Understanding what college students believe have contributed most significantly to strengthening their communication skills would be beneficial as curriculum is developed to target communication skills.

Soft skills can also be strengthened outside of the classroom. In addition to classroom instruction, extra-curricular activities are an opportunity for college students to hone and polish their leadership skills, and more specifically their communication skills. College student organizations (extra-curricular opportunities) generally fall under the following categories: governing bodies, college ambassadors, Greek letter social organizations, student government groups, academic clubs and professional honor societies, publication and media groups, service groups, intramural sports clubs, religious organizations, and special interest/cultural groups (Astin, 1993; Montelongo, 2002). Extra-curricular activities add different dimensions to a students' college experience, can reinforce the goals of higher education, and can help undergraduate students with the transition from college to the workplace (Tchibozo & Pasteur, 2007). Additionally, participation in extra-curricular activities has been shown to be a strong predictor of workplace competence—even stronger than grades (Kuh, 1995).

College Ambassadors are often the first individuals potential college students interact with when visiting campus; thus, they should, in theory, have strong communication skills. They help to recruit new students, answer questions about the college or university and potential majors and options, give campus tours, and act as a direct contact for prospective students (Woelk & Weeks, 2010). The typical Ambassador program has five main components, including leadership development, promotional activities, standardized college presentations, student benefits, and building relationships (Arnold, 2012). If a student becomes a college Ambassador, this experience can reinforce personal development and professional leadership skills (Arnold, 2012). Communication is obviously a key skill for student Ambassadors and many students who have participated in an Ambassador program state their experience helped them gain leadership development, communication, and self-confidence (Arnold, 2012). However, it is still unknown as to what contributed to building Ambassadors' communication skills which can be associated with their overall Ambassador experience.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the factors which influenced College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences Ambassadors in their attainment of communication skills, allowing for more purposeful incorporation of these factors into high school and college courses. The following research objectives guided this study: (1) describe the demographics of the College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences Ambassadors; (2) describe the past experiences of Ambassadors which contributed to their communication skills; (3) identify the current practices of college Ambassadors which have contributed to their communication skills; and (4) describe recommendations that Ambassadors have for strengthening future communication skills in other students.

Methods

This qualitative study sampled all fifteen College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences Ambassadors (census) on the University of Georgia campus and involved them in two separate focus groups (each focus group consisted of seven to eight students). Decisions about which focus group a student participated in were made based on each students' experience as an

Ambassador. Students in their first year as an Ambassador participated in focus group one; students in their second year as an Ambassador participated in focus group two. Focus groups were the choice for gathering data by creating an open discussion environment, in which good data could stimulate from the participants. Focus group questions were written based on the objectives of the study and findings from available literature. The Ambassador selection process used by College administration was based first on ensuring that student diversity represented that on campus, followed by a representative mix of student majors, year in school, and leadership experiences held by the student. Regardless of their tenure as an Ambassador, students participated in a training that consisted of a retreat before the school year to practice speaking skills and preparation for their Ambassador duties. The Ambassadors also participated in a yearlong course for one-credit hour which meets weekly to practice leadership and speaking skills and hear from guest speakers specializing in communication and leadership. The Ambassador program is a unique program to help chosen student leaders gain valuable skills to be great leaders to their peers, college and community.

Data Collection

The fifteen student Ambassadors were invited to participate by email and focus groups were conducted at a convenient time for the Ambassadors. The focus group questions (Table 1) were written based on the objectives of the study and the findings from a synthesis of available literature. Both groups of Ambassadors were asked the same questions about their communication and Ambassador experiences. The focus groups met face-to-face and were audio recorded. Each focus group lasted between 10 and 20 minutes and the focus group facilitator for both focus groups encouraged additional dialogue with probing questions. A note-taker was also present during each focus group to assist with writing notes for the facilitator to refer back to while Ambassadors responded. Students were also given a communication demographic questionnaire about their curricular and extra-curricular activities to determine if such activities contributed to their communication skill acquisition prior to participating in the focus groups. This researcher-created demographic survey took about ten minutes to complete before the focus group began.

Table 1

Focus Group Questions

1. In some cases for some people, verbal communication skills come natural to them and in others verbal communication is a skill that they have to work on to be comfortable. Who in here is a naturally strong verbal communicator? Explain. Who in here had to work on their verbal communication to get where they are today? Explain.

2. Good communicators usually have techniques and strategies they use when they communicate, so they will be effective and more comfortable. What specific techniques do you practice to be an effective communicator?

3. What experiences would you have liked to have had in high school, college, or beyond to better prepare you to excel in communication?

4. Many individuals have a fear of speaking and this makes them nervous. What makes you most nervous when communicating?

5. As an Ambassador you all have proven to be good verbal communicators. What motivated you to want to apply to be a part of the ambassador program?

6. How has your experience as an Ambassador prepared you for either graduate school or a career?

7. In your opinion, what are some things that could be incorporated in a classroom in high school or college that would benefit future Ambassadors?

8. How has the Ambassador training impacted you positively or negatively?

9. What challenges have you faced in the program or training?

10. If you were in charge of the training, what might you add/do differently?

Data Analysis

Data from the two recorded focus group sessions were transcribed verbatim. Domain analysis, a form of content analysis, was used to summarize the data and identify reoccurring, emerging themes as recommended for focus groups by Jackson (1999). Dominant themes were listed in order of their occurrence in the raw data without any direct identifiers. The author and another researcher reviewed the focus group data and conducted separate domain analyses before comparing findings to ensure consistency in interpretation. The transcribed focus group data were peer reviewed to reduce the introduction of bias and the themes which emerged were validated by an outside source. Reoccurring themes were referenced with findings from the demographic questionnaire to identify influences and experiences that contributed to those themes. Recommendations were then made based on the transferability of the findings.

Findings

This study examined two aspects of the College of Agriculture Ambassador experience: (1) what influenced College of Agriculture students to become Ambassadors and (2) what students gained personally and professionally from being a college Ambassador. Tables 2 and 3 describe the demographic characteristics of participants in the two focus groups along with a pseudonym representing their name. Thirteen Ambassadors participated in the focus group discussions and demographics questionnaire. The participating Ambassadors were made up of eight females and five males. There were three females and four males in focus group one and five females and one male in focus group two. The ethnicity of the Ambassadors included eight Caucasian students, two black/African American students, one white/American Indian student, one Asian student, and one student representing “other ethnicity.” The graduation year of ten of the participants was 2015 and three of the participants were to graduate in 2016.

Table 2
First year Ambassador Demographics

Participant Pseudonym	Major	Minor	Previous Communication Courses Taken	*Club Involvement
Claire	Environmental Economics and Management		Introduction to Public Speaking	National Forensic League (NFL), High School Speech and Debate
Leon	Agribusiness		Introduction to Public Speaking	4-H, FFA
Tim	Agribusiness		Speech Communication	
Tammy	Biological Science		Introduction to Agricultural Communications	4-H (elementary), Delta Sigma Theta Sorority Inc., Resident Assistant
Carrie	Agricultural Communications		Telecommunication, Special Problems in Agricultural Communication	4-H, Block and Bridle
Michael	Agricultural Communications		Introduction to Public Speaking, Journalism, Speech	FFA, FCA
John	Agricultural Communications		Introduction to Communication in Agriculture and Environmental Sciences	4-H, FFA, FBLA

Note. *Club involvement included k-12 education and college.

Table 3
Second year Ambassador Demographics

Participant Pseudonym	Major	Minor	Previous Communication Courses Taken	*Club Involvement
Susan	Agricultural and Applied Economics		Introduction to Public Speaking	4-H, FFA
Lisa	Biological Sciences		Introduction to Public Speaking	FBLA

Kaitlyn	Poultry Science		Introduction to Public Speaking	4-H
Nancy	Animal Science	Agribusiness	Introduction to Public Speaking	FCCLA
Sam	Food Science		Introduction to Public Speaking	
Sally	Agricultural Communications	Agribusiness	Special Problems in Agriculture Communications, Advertising and Public Relations, Telecommunications, Journalism, Agricultural Sales, Introduction to Public Speaking	4-H, FFA, Beta, FCA, SAC

Note. *Club involvement included k-12 education and college.

The focus groups provided many different perspectives and experiences that influenced Ambassador communication skills and the development of other soft skills. Both focus groups revealed similar discussions and topics; therefore, no topic or domain differences were noted between the two groups based on student tenure as an Ambassador.

The following five domains emerged from the raw data and are presented in order of their occurrence along with select raw quotes from focus group participants. Due to space limitations, only select, yet representative, raw quotes are presented.

1. Ambassador experiences

The participants reflected on their Ambassador experience and training that had impacted them personally and professionally (Table 4).

Table 4
Ambassador Experiences

Participant	**Response**
Tammy	I think that the Ambassador program has impacted me positively because it's like I'm being exposed to a lot more things that I haven't been exposed to before. I kind of feel like I've had the wool over my eyes, for a lack of better words before this because I wasn't really sure like, I didn't really know how many jobs or opportunities that are involved in agriculture, and like I've seen that there are so many, and I kind of wished I had known this beforehand cause it's senior year now. It's been a good experience and a good networking experience too.

Nancy	We are able to interact with other people in job settings and really important people that we may not have had the opportunity to learn how to talk to or be able to get that experience and that's incredibly valuable for me and so that I'm not nervous anymore or that you just learn how to get those communication skills that are needed in those environments and especially for grad school, time management is a huge thing with this and I think just definitely being able to talk to anyone that you could possibly need to talk to rather it's a child or on up to a CEO of a company.
Susan	We are also able to learn how to work in a group and with different people because at the events we go to, we are not in the same group every time we do an event. We have to learn how to interact with everyone in the group. We also learn people management, so you have to learn how to manage people and make sure that everyone gets the information they need so they are not clueless when they go do things. Our advisor has very high expectation of us, so that is definitely a big thing. They expect us to be early to everything and communicate everything to him; like when we cannot make it to something, they expects us to be able to communicate with him and if not they do not take it lightly. So we get that boss experience before being out in the real world.

The Ambassadors also spoke highly of their Ambassador experience because it greatly impacted them through exposure to opportunities to grow in their knowledge about their career path or gain professional experience. They discussed many opportunities they have participated in to broaden their horizons and gain networking opportunities and professional life skills.

2. Influences on participation as an Ambassador

The participants reflected on what influenced and motivated them to become an Ambassador (Table 5). Specifically, participants mentioned that the Ambassador program seemed like a fun way to get involved in the College, and to give back to the College, and others mentioned the opportunity to share their story with future students. The networking opportunities were a significant influence on these students' decision to become an Ambassador.

Table 5
Influences on Participation as an Ambassador

Participant	**Response**
Carrie	It just seems like a fun way to get involved with the college as a transfer student, it's sometimes, hard to get involved with organizations, but this was everyone had an equal chance to get selected and I like that. You really get to meet people that you would have never gotten to meet in any other organizations, so I really appreciate that too.

Susan	The networking opportunities that we have are awesome and we get to tell our story to different students and give them advice that we wish that we have had as freshman or high school seniors making decisions, so we really get to help those students that come on tours or that just needing questions answered at different events that we go to.
Tammy	I think my motivation stemmed from the fact that I felt that the college has invested so much in me, therefore I wanted to give back to the college. I really like to share my love for the college. Coming to a big college it was kind of hard at first to find my niche, so I guess I want to help others find it faster than I did.

3. Past communication experiences

The Ambassadors also reflected on their experiences from elementary, middle, or high school and any organizations that they participated in that influenced their communication skills prior to becoming an Ambassador (Table 6).

Table 6
Past Communication Experiences

Participant	**Response**
Leon	FFA, every application that I filled out since the 9th grade for any type of job, school program like this, I've always reverted back to FFA and the things I've learned there. My experiences there have always helped me along.
Sam	I think that one of the best ways that I learn to speak well is to hear speakers that are good, like good examples, especially when they come to class and you get to ask questions afterwards. They know and they've been practicing for a long time and they have tricks that I wouldn't know, so just observing them and listening to them, you pick up a few things.
Claire	I participated in the National Forensic League in high school, which is a nation-wide speech and debate organization. I spent most of my Fridays and Saturdays, freshman through senior year presenting speeches, both auditoria's and impromptu, so I have that experience with presenting and memorizing speeches. I also had the experience of thinking of a five minute speech given only two minutes before the presentation.

The past communication experiences of the Ambassadors were greatly impacted by participation in organizations and clubs, and this participation often gave them exposure to effective communicators which served as role models. The Ambassadors gained communication skills

through their involvement in personal development activities and by observing effective communicators and these experiences influenced their own communication skills.

4. Personal preparation for speaking

The participants also shared personal strategies and techniques that they do to prepare themselves for speaking with others and handling potential speaking anxieties (Table 7). Several participants mentioned that they have techniques they practice before and while they speak. Many mentioned that they have to control their nerves and making sure they are talking in a way that everyone can understand, and they shared their personal strategies for handling those issues.

Table 7
Personal Preparation for Speaking

Participant	**Response**
Lisa	One of the things that I do, is that I tend to speak very fast when I'm in front of friends and people that I'm comfortable with so the thing I try to do is slow down and to enunciate my words so that people will understand me better. And also, by slowing down it helps me, if I have nerves it helps to eliminate my nerves and everything. So that's just one of the things I do.
Susan	Whenever I'm speaking to a big group, one thing that I try to do is to kind of get rid of any nerves or any awkward moments that might happen is to not look directly at people but look above people's heads when you are speaking to a group, just to so you don't make direct eye contact with someone, but they know that you are looking in their direction.
Carrie	To be an effective communicator, you need to have direct eye contact, really try to make your voice heard out into the crowd and really try to be as personable as possible when talking to either students, professors, or just random strangers. You are just really trying to get them to remember you and what you are representing.

5. Recommendations for other students

Finally, the participants reflected on their past experiences or opportunities that they wished they had when formulating recommendations for other students (Table 8).

Table 8
Recommendations for Other Students

Participant	**Response**

John	I would say growing up in 4-H, you can do different tracks of things and leadership is one of the principles that they try to instill in you like from the 5th grade all the way up until you graduate from high school and I think that pretty much anyone has the ability to be a leader and I thinks that something that should be recreated for everyone growing up because being able to serve as a leader in any situation gives you the ability to effectively communicate with others and also learning how to push yourself and I think that's a something that everyone needs to, or everyone should take advantage of before they get to college.
Nancy	Opportunities to get to talk in large groups, opportunities to give speeches, opportunities to just talk without anything planned and then I think opportunities to interact with adults and important people. I don't know how you would facilitate that but that's really kind of trial by fire. In my opinion like there's no way to really, I guess you could figure out a way to practice it but until you actually sitting there talking to someone really important you don't know how you are going to do it. That's the only way I could really gotten good at it or ok with it I guess.
Sally	One thing that would be really beneficial is if there was some way you could do a professor luncheon thing, where students interact or stuff like that and just learn skills about how to really communicate with people in the workforce and stuff like that.

The Ambassadors shared recommendations for other students based on their experiences and what experiences that would have helped them strengthen their communication skills. Providing students the opportunity to practice communication skills in classes and become involved in organizations and clubs, such as FFA and 4-H, were strategies that the Ambassadors provided that could influence a students' attainment of communication skills prior to and during their college experience.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The Ambassadors all had different backgrounds that influenced their leadership and communication skills. The experiences and recommendations that the Ambassadors shared were classified by the researchers as either "point source" or "non-point source" in terms of assignments and experiences. "Point source" experiences were classified as specific activities which could be directly traced back to the students' attainment of soft skills. These would include, for example, a specific assignment in a college course, or events related to an extra-curricular activity. "Non-point source" experiences were those which have components that collectively worked to build soft skills, but which are difficult to identify any one aspect as contributing solely to building soft skills.

Both point source and non-point source experiences were shared by the Ambassadors. This was prevalent in the discussions on the Ambassador experience, recommendations for other students, and past communication experiences. Many point source experiences were provided, such as

assignments, speeches, and involvement in clubs and organizations. Point source experiences were the most prevalent experiences discussed in this study, and students researched in earlier studies noted that leadership positions gave them the opportunity to learn in the "real-world" classroom (Haber, 2006).

Non-point source experiences were less prevalent in the raw data. Along with communication skills, 77% of the participants discussed professionalism and personal growth that they have obtained in their experiences as a student and an Ambassador; 69% of the participants mentioned some experiences they wished they had been provided to help prepare them professionally and to allow them more practice with communication. The participants shared what influenced them to become an Ambassador, which was mostly improving their communication skills, professional preparation, networking opportunities, and preparation for the workforce. Many mentioned that they wanted to be an Ambassador to build upon their past experiences to help themselves personally and professionally, and some mentioned that they felt the need to give back to the College because it had helped them to further their education.

Non-point source experiences were important to the Ambassadors' attainment of communication skills, as well as other soft skills, but these non-point source experiences were less common. In a study by Fuhrman and Ladewig (2008), students had a more positive learning experience for out of class assignments involving communication and leadership when those assignments were less structured than assignments that were highly structured. Students can have a sense of ownership in their educational experiences when assignments are less structured and allow students to be creative. Students will participate and create experiences that are more relevant to their lives, career goals, interests, and personal growth.

Faculty should allow students the flexibility to take ownership in aspects of out-of-class assignments which have the potential to build soft skills. For example, students could be encouraged to attend a seminar or conference and mingle with invited guests. Although less structured (e.g., lacking structured questions to ask guests), this type of experience was mentioned by participants in this study as being influential in building their communication skills in a "participant observer" type role. If students are given the freedom to be creative in their assignments, it opens the door to employ critical thinking skills and produces a higher quality of work and skill growth. In another study, the act of role playing was an educational strategy to develop leadership and communication skills, especially in developing "people skills" (Guenthner & Moore, 2005). In the role playing study, students developed a better understanding of issues, improved their communication skills, and had a choice of a topic that they wanted to research (Guenthner & Moore, 2005). When students have the freedom to choose topics and create their own structure for an assignment or speech, students can relate more and gain more communication and leadership skills. Not only are students gaining communication skills, leadership skills, and confidence, they are also learning more of the content matter (Guenthner & Moore, 2005). As discussed in the focus groups in this study, participants mentioned allowing students to choose speech topics that they are interested in, participate in organizations and club experiences of their choosing, and watching other effective speakers and leaders as recommendations for building communication skills in other students.

Point source experiences seem more common in the educational system, and many of the Ambassadors shared stories of their more structured learning experiences. In a study by Culp and Cox (2002), ten principles for effective youth leadership development were shared. Some of the principles of an effective program included a well-structured purpose and goals, high expectations and confidence, experiential learning and opportunities for leadership, collaboration and networking with others, and positive relationships with important adults. When students are presented with high expectations, they are encouraged to come out of their shell and develop more self-possessed communication and leadership skills. The Ambassadors in this study described some of these experiences and situations that made them step out of their comfort zone and helped them to better themselves as an effective communicator.

The Ambassadors offered recommendations for other students to help build their communication skills and shared their personal preparations for speaking that can help others. The following recommendations were shared by Ambassadors that they experienced personally or wished they had experienced which could help other students:

1. Public speaking opportunities to help develop speaking skills, such as extemporaneous and prepared speeches, with a variety of audiences.
2. Creating an environment to foster good demonstration skills. For example, providing feedback to students on how to improve and what they are doing well, and creating scenarios that represent real-life presentations, such as mock job interviews.
3. Professional development to help prepare for job interviews, such as what to wear and how to respond to questions.
4. Attending conferences, events, or poster sessions to learn by observing others.
5. Opportunities to serve as a leader in a class case study or through a club or student organization.
6. Interacting with adults and professionals to prepare students for communication in the workforce, such as professor luncheons.
7. Sharing networking opportunities with other students and encouraging fellow students to attend (influencing campus norms).
8. Collectively, seeking out a mix of point source and non-point source experiences.

Other recommendations for college faculty based on this study that would benefit students include:

9. Offering a 1-credit seminar course on leadership and communication skill attainment.
10. A mentoring experience where faculty is videotaped teaching and asked to reflect on their communication skills with a teaching and learning professional.
11. Slowly incorporating communication and leadership experiences into existing curriculum and monitoring student reactions with formative data collection techniques. Once student data is collected, share a summary of student responses with the class and be prepared to make changes to reflect student feedback.

Many of the Ambassadors mentioned strategies they acquired from participating in FFA or 4-H, but similar experiences can be used in any subject to help students improve their communication and leadership skills. Not all students are involved in clubs and organizations that encourage students to practice and gain these skills, so there is a need to incorporate those strategies in classes and throughout the students' educational time in college. Point source and non-point source experiences may help students succeed in an interview by building confidence, and grow

in a career by building skills to collaborate with others. Lastly, being involved in extra-curricular activities not only can be a strong predictor of workplace competence (Kuh, 1995), but can also help improve their perceived communication skill competence.

Additional research is needed in this area. Specifically, additional attention is needed to better understand the reactions of more experienced Ambassadors (e.g., second year Ambassadors). The more experienced Ambassadors did not indicate greater communication and leadership growth, so perhaps the focus group questions were not sensitive enough to detect skill growth in these students. More specific focus group questions may be needed for students with more experience as Ambassadors. Students may have acquired communication and leadership skills through their participation as an Ambassador, but the focus group questions were not able to detect such skill attainment.

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Exploring Leadership Skill Development and the Related Curricular Experiences in a Year-Long Leadership Development Program

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Abstract

We utilized an innovative methodology to identify leadership skill development among students enrolled in a leadership development program. Additionally, we sought to link curricular experiences with leadership skill development. Innovative curricular experiences, linked to the top areas of leadership skill development, are described.

Introduction & Conceptual Framework

Leadership skills are critical for success in today's professional culture (APLU, 2009; Day, 2001; McCall, 1998; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). Therefore, many organizations are actively seeking employees with a developed leadership skill set (APLU, 2009). The higher education experience has been identified as an optimal time for developing these coveted leadership skills (Astin & Astin, 2000). To support the development of leadership skills, the leadership research agenda established identifying effective methods for developing leadership at the post-secondary level as a research priority (Andenoro et al., 2013). Our research sought to identify effective methods for leadership development by linking measurable leadership skill gain and curricular approaches used in a year long, post-secondary leadership development program.

In order to identify effective methods for developing leadership skills, researchers must connect curricular experiences and leadership skill development. Aligning experiences with leadership skills has been a gap identified by a variety of researchers in the leadership education literature (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Goertzen, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Morgan, King, & Rudd, 2013). In order to begin to bridge the gap between pedagogy and skill development, we must build our understanding of both concepts.

A number of researchers have studied pedagogical techniques used in leadership classrooms (Albert & Vadla, 2009; Allen & Hartman, 2009; Conger, 1992; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Synthesis of this literature reveals a number of consistent strategies used to engage students in leadership development; we will describe four of these consistent strategies. The first, experiential learning (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008), refers to the process of engaging in an activity, reflecting on your engagement, developing new ideas, and implementing those new ideas (Kolb, 1984). The second pedagogical strategy, the use of self-assessments (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009), seeks to develop self-awareness of strengths and weaknesses among leadership learners (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Placing students with mentors has also been identified as a commonly used strategy in leadership development programs (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). The mentoring relationship offers students an opportunity to receive feedback and learn from someone with more leadership experience. The final consistent strategy, reflection (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012;

Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009), offers students an opportunity to review their experiences and learn from their own involvement (Allen & Hartman, 2009).

The pedagogical approaches used in leadership education have been categorized into four areas, personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building (Conger, 1992). Personal growth, as an approach to leadership development, was built on the idea that leaders are those individuals who "are deeply in touch with their personal dreams and talents and who will act to fulfill them" (Conger, 1992, p. 45-46). Furthermore, it can be asserted that, in order to commit to the development and progress of others, you must first commit to your own personal development and progress. Conger identified the second approach to leadership development, conceptual understanding, as the intake of new information pertaining to leadership, including but not limited to, learning new leadership theories and models. Feedback, the third approach identified by Conger, was the process in which an individual learns their strengths and weaknesses as a leader. It can be reasoned that a leader who knows his or her own strengths and weakness will be more confident in their role as a leader and more prepared to continue their development as a leader. The fourth approach to leadership development identified by Conger was skill building, a necessary component to any complete leadership development program. Skill building refers to the process in which individuals develop skills to be used in different leadership contexts (Conger, 1992).

In addition to the development of leadership skills, the assessment of leadership skills is a critical component to the continual development of leadership education as a discipline (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996). A variety of research studies have addressed the concept of leadership skill assessment (Blackwell, Cummins, Townsend, & Cummings, 2007; Brungardt & Crawford, 1996; Goertzen, 2009; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009; Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005). Some studies have focused on the methods of assessing leadership skills (Goertzen, 2009; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009) while others have focused on the assessment of leadership programs (Blackwell et al., 2007; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Williams et al., 2005).

Previous assessments of programmatic effectiveness have identified a number of successful outcomes among leadership education students (Blackwell et al., 2007; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Williams et al., 2005). Examples of these positive outcomes include: increased leadership capacity (Rosch & Carza, 2012), leadership skill development (Blackwell et al., 2007), and self-perceived leadership knowledge (Williams et al., 2005). These studies provide evidence that leadership programs at the college level can be an effective tool in the development of leadership skills; however, they fail to illuminate specific pedagogical approaches linked to these leadership outcomes.

One potential method for the assessment of leadership skills with little exploration in the leadership discipline is the needs assessment model (Borich, 1980). This model identifies individuals' perceived needs by measuring the discrepancy between perceived importance and perceived competence of a skill (Borich, 1980). Utilizing this method in the leadership development discipline has the potential to improve the ability of leadership programs to identify the needs of students engaged in a program as well as to assess the development of leadership skills by measuring the change in perceived needs once the program is complete. We utilized the needs assessment model to analyze leadership skill development within this study.

The theoretical foundation for our analysis was the input, environment, and outcomes model described within the theory of student involvement (Astin, 1999). This model posits students enter an educational program with specific attributes (inputs) and through an experience they are changed (outcomes). We operationalized this model within our analysis using the following process, students' perceived leadership needs were assessed before engaging in the leadership development program (inputs), their leadership needs were again assessed after their experience (outcomes). The changes in perceived leadership needs were operationalized as leadership skill development and were linked to specific curricular experiences. Figure 1 illustrates the operational framework used in our analysis.

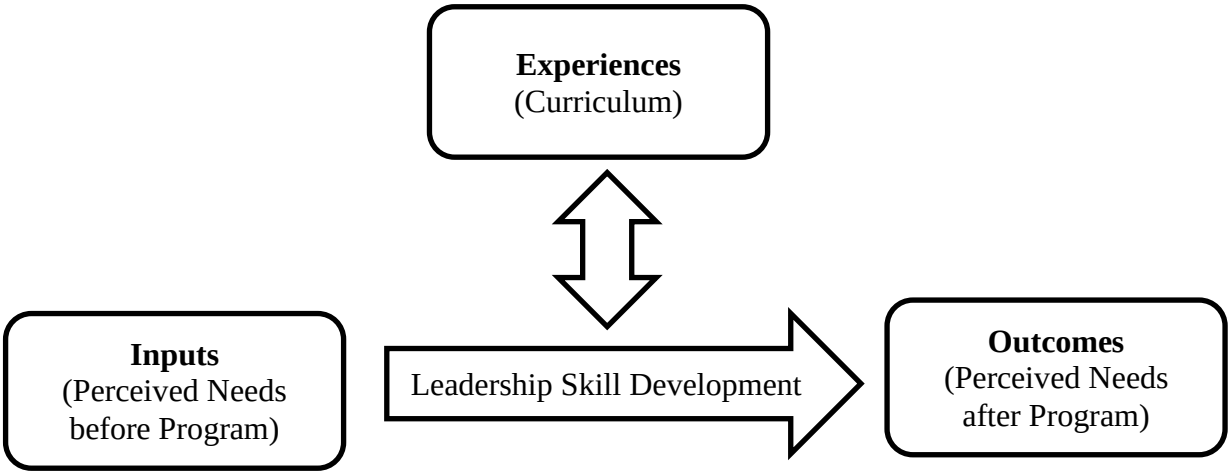

Figure 1. Operational framework for the relationship between curriculum and leadership skill development.

Research Purpose & Questions

The purpose of this research was to (a) provide evidence of leadership skill development through a year-long leadership development program, and (b) provide a potential link between leadership skill development and the curricula utilized during a leadership development program. By completing this study, researchers sought to provide evidence for the effectiveness of certain leadership development experiences. This line of inquiry is supported by the Association of Leadership Educators Research Agenda Priority Area 1: Teaching, Learning, and Curriculum Development, which recommends the exploration of curriculum development frameworks to enhance the leadership education transfer of learning (Andenoro et al., 2013). The development and execution of this research project was guided by the following research questions.

1. What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they enter the leadership development program?
2. What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they complete the leadership development program?
3. How do the perceived leadership needs of students change during the leadership development program?

4. What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing specific leadership needs?

Research Methods

The population utilized in this research were two cohorts (*N* = 23) of students enrolled in a year-long leadership development program at a large northwest university. The leadership development program was housed in the College of Agricultural Sciences and was available to students enrolled in the College of Agricultural Sciences; College of Forestry; and College of Earth, Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences. Students enrolled in the program ranged from sophomore to senior standing. Students completed an application and interview and were selected based on their potential for leadership development. The program consisted of a two hour, structured class time (meeting once a week); pairing a student with a faculty mentor; and community-based and on-campus leadership experiences.

Leadership needs and skill development were assessed using the leadership needs assessment (LNA; Velez, McKim, & Simonsen, 2013). This 88 question instrument measures perceived importance and perceived competence scaled from 1 "Not at all Important/Competent" to 6 "Extremely Important/Competent." The 88 questions are refined into 13 leadership constructs clustered within four domains of leadership development. The four domains are personal leadership, interpersonal leadership, group and organizational leadership, and community leadership. The 13 leadership constructs are: (*personal domain*) understands leadership, awareness of self, practices ethical behavior, sustains leadership, (*interpersonal domain)* values diversity, enhances communication skills, manages conflict, (*group and organizational domain)* develops teams, leads change, manages projects, (*community leadership domain*) practices citizenship, understands community complexity, and committed to serving others. In each of the 13 areas of leadership, a mean weighted discrepancy score (MWDS) was calculated. MWDSs were calculated by determining the discrepancy between the perceived importance and competence of each item in the construct, that discrepancy was then multiplied by the importance mean and divided by the number of observations (see formula below; Borich, 1980).

$$\frac{\sum \text{[(Importance - Ability) * Importance Mean]}}{\text{Number of Observations}} = \text{MWDS}$$

The 13 leadership areas were ranked based on MWDS, with larger MWDS indicating a higher level of need. A pilot test of the instrument revealed reliabilities, using Cronbach's alphas, on the four domains ranging from $\alpha = .89$ to $\alpha = .96$.

The first round of data collection was administered prior to student engagement in the leadership development program (Fall 2012 and Fall 2013). The final assessment of leadership needs was administered by researchers one week after the completion of the leadership development program (Spring 2013 and Spring 2014). All students in the population of interest (*N* = 23) completed both the pre and post assessment. On average, students took approximately 15 minutes to complete the assessment. Data for both the pre and post assessment were collected by researchers and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). In

addition to the needs assessment, researchers administered a survey to the three faculty members involved in the program. Faculty members were asked to identify, for each of the seminars and experiences in the program, the two leadership need areas that were met by the objectives of that experience. These data were utilized to answer research objective number four "What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing specific leadership needs?"

The leadership research pitfalls identified by Rosch and Schwartz (2009) were considered by the researchers. The honeymoon effect, participants exaggerating the effects of a program right after its completion, was addressed by allowing a one week gap between program completion and the final assessment of leadership needs. The horizon effect, participants not adequately knowing their skills in a given area until they have gone through sufficient training in that area was weakened by students involved in the program having adequate leadership experiences prior to the first assessment. Those previous experiences may have led students to a better understanding of their leadership skills prior to assessment. The Hollywood effect, participants ranking themselves strong in areas they feel they need to be strong in to be a leader, was potentially weakened by the needs assessment addressing the importance as well as competence in each skill. Therefore, if students felt the skill was important they could address that separate from their competence. The halo effect, the thought that outside observers feel that if an individual is good at one skill they are good at all skills, was addressed by using a self-assessment and students having adequate leadership experiences to understand the different concepts addressed by the instrument. Finally, the hallmark effect, individuals with little self-confidence will often score themselves lower in many areas, was potentially weakened by the motivation and self-confidence required for students to apply for a year-long leadership development program. We acknowledge our methodology does not eliminate all the potential pitfalls for leadership research; however, we feel the unique methodology employed through the LNA may offer some advantages as we strive for high quality leadership education research.

Findings

In order to answer research question number 1: "What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they enter the leadership development program?" MWDSs were calculated for each of the 13 constructs, first for each individual and then an average for the participants (see Table 1). The MWDSs are ranked from 1 to 13, a higher MWDS indicates a higher perceived need; therefore, the leadership areas with the lower rank indicate a higher perceived need among the cohort of leadership development students.

Overall students felt that the 13 leadership skills were important. Students perceived ethical behavior (μ = 5.63), sustaining leadership (μ = 5.43), and developing teams (μ = 5.40) as the most important leadership areas assessed. Alternatively, students perceived understanding leadership (μ = 5.06), understanding community (μ = 5.07), and practicing citizenship (μ = 5.07) as the least important leadership skills assessed. Students perceived a higher level of importance than competence in each of the 13 leadership skill areas. The highest level of competence before the leadership development program was perceived in the areas of ethical behavior (μ = 4.77), developing teams (μ = 4.42), and valuing diversity (μ = 4.41). The areas of

lowest perceived competence among students were in commitment to serving (μ = 3.75), understanding community (μ = 3.85), and practicing citizenship (μ = 3.88).

Table 1

Perceived Importance, Competence, MWDS and Rank of the 13 Leadership Areas Perceived by Students before Engagement in the Leadership Development Program

Leadership Area	Perceived Importance[1]	Perceived Competence[2]	MWDS[3]	Rank
Awareness of Self	5.27	4.30	5.14	12
Commitment to Serving	5.17	3.75	7.36	1
Developing Teams	5.40	4.42	5.27	10
Enhancing Communication	5.27	4.09	6.22	2
Ethical Behavior	5.63	4.77	4.85	13
Leading Change	5.19	4.12	5.54	9
Managing Conflict	5.13	3.94	6.11	4
Managing Projects	5.35	4.25	5.88	6
Practicing Citizenship	5.07	3.88	6.05	5
Sustaining Leadership	5.43	4.40	5.61	7
Understanding Community	5.07	3.85	6.15	3
Understanding Leadership	5.06	3.96	5.54	8
Valuing Diversity	5.38	4.41	5.20	11

[1]Items scaled from 1 “Not at All Important” to 6 “Extremely Important”
[2]Items scaled from 1 “Not at All Competent” to 6 “Extremely Competent”
[3]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

The MWDS scores (see Table 1) indicate students perceived the largest need in the areas of commitment to serving (MWDS = 7.36), enhancing communication (MWDS = 6.22), and understanding community (MWDS = 6.15). A higher MWDS identifies these students valued these attributes of leadership as important, but felt relatively low in their competence toward these leadership components. Alternatively, a smaller MWDS identifies areas in which the gap

between perceived importance and competence was smaller. The areas of lowest perceived need, measured before involvement in the leadership development program, were ethical behavior (MWDS = 4.85), awareness of self (MWDS = 5.14), and valuing diversity (MWDS = 5.20).

Students completed the leadership needs assessment again, a week after finishing the program. These results were used to answer research question number 2: "What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they complete the leadership development program?" Importance and competence scores were first calculated for each student and then combined to develop an average importance and competence for each of the 13 leadership areas assessed. MWDSs were calculated first for each student and then an average MWDS was calculated for the sample of students (see Table 2).

Table 2

Perceived Importance, Competence, MWDS and Rank of 13 Leadership Areas Perceived by Students after Engagement in the Leadership Development Program

Leadership Area	Perceived Importance[1]	Perceived Competence[2]	MWDS[3]	Rank
Awareness of Self	5.32	4.63	3.67	9
Commitment to Serving	5.17	4.16	5.25	3
Developing Teams	5.36	4.68	3.66	10
Enhancing Communication	5.38	4.59	4.25	5
Ethical Behavior	5.61	5.09	2.90	13
Leading Change	5.19	4.43	3.98	7
Managing Conflict	5.30	4.22	5.76	1
Managing Projects	5.35	4.56	4.20	6
Practicing Citizenship	5.15	4.30	4.36	4
Sustaining Leadership	5.54	4.84	3.88	8
Understanding Community	5.11	4.07	5.34	2
Understanding Leadership	5.31	4.70	3.28	12
Valuing Diversity	5.49	4.86	3.43	11

[1]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Important" to 6 "Extremely Important"
[2]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Competent" to 6 "Extremely Competent"
[3]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

After completion of the program, the leadership areas perceived as the most important were ethical behavior (μ = 5.61), sustaining leadership (μ = 5.54), and valuing diversity (μ = 5.49). The areas perceived as the least important were understanding community (μ = 5.11), practicing citizenship (μ = 5.15), and commitment to serving (μ = 5.17).

After completion of the leadership development program, students' perception of their competence in the 13 areas of leadership remained lower than their perception of the importance for each of the 13 leadership areas assessed. The areas students perceived the most competent in after the completion of the program were ethical behavior (μ = 5.09), valuing diversity (μ = 4.86), and sustaining leadership (μ = 4.84). The areas students perceived the least amount of competence in at the completion of the program were understanding community (μ = 4.07), commitment to serving (μ = 4.16), and managing conflict (μ = 4.22).

The MWDS scores, after the completion of the program, indicate that students perceived the highest need in the areas of managing conflict (MWDS = 5.76), understanding community (MWDS = 5.34), and commitment to serving (MWDS = 5.25). Alternatively, students perceived the lowest amount of need in the leadership areas of ethical behavior (MWDS = 2.90), understanding leadership (MWDS = 3.28), and valuing diversity (MWDS = 3.43).

Pre and post experience MWDSs were then compared using a paired sample *t*-test to answer research question number 3: "How do the perceived leadership needs of students change during a leadership development program?" A decrease in the MWDS would indicate students perceived less need in that leadership area at the completion of the program than they did before the start of the program. Researchers suggest a decrease in the perceived need of a leadership area would indicate successful development of that leadership area. Due to the limited number of respondents, an effect size (Cohen's *d*) is reported to present a more realistic interpretation of the data compared to *p*-values, which are limited when dealing with small populations and/or samples. The criteria used to describe the effect sizes are: small effect = .20 to .49; medium effect = .50 to .79; and large effect = .80 and up (Cohen, 1988).

Students' perception of their needs in each of the 13 leadership areas decreased (see Table 3). The most substantial effect was observed in the area of enhancing communication (Cohen's d = 0.96). Large effects were also seen in understanding leadership (Cohen's d = 0.86) and ethical behavior (Cohen's d = 0.80). Medium effects (Cohen, 1988) were observed in the areas of managing projects (Cohen's d = 0.58), commitment to serving (Cohen's d = 0.56), and developing teams (Cohen's d = 0.52). Small effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were identified in the areas of valuing diversity (Cohen's d = 0.49), awareness of self (Cohen's d = 0.47), sustaining leadership (Cohen's d = 0.43), leading change (Cohen's d = 0.41), practicing citizenship (Cohen's d = 0.32), and understanding community (Cohen's d = 0.21). A negligible effect was observed in the area of managing conflict (Cohen's d = 0.09).

Table 3

Comparing Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores Before and After the Leadership Development Program

Leadership Area	MWDS[1] Pre Test	MWDS[1] Post Test	ΔMWDS	*t*-value	*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's *d*)
Awareness of Self	5.14	3.67	1.47	1.60	.117	0.47
Commitment to Serving	7.36	5.25	2.11	1.89	.066	0.56
Developing Teams	5.27	3.66	1.61	1.77	.084	0.52
Enhancing Communication	6.22	4.25	1.97	3.26	.002	0.96
Ethical Behavior	4.85	2.90	1.95	2.72	.009	0.80
Leading Change	5.54	3.98	1.56	1.39	.171	0.41
Managing Conflict	6.11	5.76	0.35	0.32	.752	0.09
Managing Projects	5.88	4.20	1.68	1.97	.055	0.58
Practicing Citizenship	6.05	4.36	1.69	1.40	.169	0.32
Sustaining Leadership	5.61	3.88	1.73	1.48	.147	0.43
Understanding Community	6.15	5.34	0.81	0.70	.485	0.21
Understanding Leadership	5.54	3.28	2.26	2.91	.006	0.86
Valuing Diversity	5.20	3.43	1.77	1.66	.103	0.49

[1]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

The final research question "What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing specific leadership needs?" sought to provide information into what experiences faculty of this leadership development program unanimously identified as targeting the top five leadership skill areas developed over the course of leadership development experience (see Table 4). These five leadership skill areas were identified based on the largest change in perceived leadership need before and after the leadership development experience, including: understanding leadership (ΔMWDS = 2.26), commitment to serving (ΔMWDS = 2.11), enhancing communication (ΔMWDS = 1.97), ethical behavior (ΔMWDS = 1.95), and valuing diversity (ΔMWDS = 1.77).

Table 4

Identifying Leadership Development Experiences Utilized to Develop the Top Five Leadership Skill Areas

Leadership Area	Experiences[1]

Understanding Leadership	Faculty members identified four seminars addressing understanding leadership. These seminars included two panels of industry professionals discussing their personal leadership experiences, a 360 assessment of personal authenticity, and a peer reflection activity at the conclusion of the program. Additionally, faculty noted reading and discussing the book *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, meeting with a faculty mentor for one to two hours per month, and involvement in an off-campus community organization as valuable experiences to students' understanding of leadership.
Commitment to Serving	Faculty identified student participation in a *giving back panel* in which donors to the university shared their experiences as leaders at different phases of their lives as well as the importance of giving back as building students' commitment to serving. Additionally, participation in an off-campus community organization was identified as a contributing factor to students' commitment to serving.
Enhancing Communication	Faculty members identified four seminars addressing enhanced communication. These seminars included students practicing and providing feedback on clear and concise written messages, engaging in a first impression activity with peer feedback, developing and implementing meeting agendas, and identifying/working with difficult people. Additional experiences highlighted as building students' communication skills included working in peer advisory boards for one term and the structured faculty mentoring opportunity.
Ethical Behavior	Faculty noted reading and discussing the book *True North*, the *giving back panel* in which donors to the university shared their experiences as leaders at different phases of their lives, and being mentored by a faculty member as valuable experiences toward building ethical behavior.
Valuing Diversity	Faculty identified reading and discussing the book *True North* as well as student participation in an off-campus community organization as building competence in valuing diversity.

[1]Only those experiences that all three faculty members unanimously identified as meeting the leadership area are described.

Conclusions & Recommendations

With employers seeking employees who exhibit technical and leadership skills (Day, 2001; McCall; 1998; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998), the development of leadership among college students is an important consideration for all colleges and universities (Astin & Astin, 2000). Colleges and universities have responded, with an increased focus on leadership development through a variety of experiences. Yet, a dearth of research exists exploring the links between leadership skills and curricular experiences. Identification of curricular experiences that consistently relate to leadership development among college students has the potential to greatly increase the effectiveness of leadership education programs. This study identified leadership skill

development among students enrolled in a year-long leadership development program using the leadership needs assessment (Velez et al., 2013). Additionally, this study provides evidence of potential links between leadership skill development and curricular experiences utilized in a year-long leadership development program.

Researchers calculated mean weighted discrepancy scores (MWDSs) for all participants at the beginning and end of a leadership development program. Researchers identified decreases in each of the 13 MWDSs from the beginning to the conclusion of the leadership development program, indicating leadership skills were developed. Due to the methods of this study, researchers cannot definitively attribute the change in leadership needs to participation in the leadership development program. Researchers acknowledge that development of leadership skills could be a product of maturity or experiences outside of the leadership development program. However, the evidence provided in this study suggests a relationship between involvement in the leadership development program and the development of leadership skills, supporting the inputs, experiences, and outcomes model of student development (Astin, 1999). Future studies should consider the use of control groups, not involved in the leadership development program, when analyzing the leadership development of students; this may provide more concrete evidence of a relationship between leadership skill development and involvement in a leadership development program.

In addition to identifying the changes in leadership needs among students enrolled in this program, researchers sought to identify curricular experiences related to specific leadership skills. Researchers administered a survey to the three program faculty members, requesting their perception of the curricular experiences relating to each of the thirteen leadership skill areas. Those curricular experiences the faculty unanimously agreed on were included in the findings of this study. Additionally, only experiences related to the leadership skills areas with the highest change in leadership need area were discussed. The variety of curricular experiences utilized to develop these leadership skills represent pedagogical techniques corroborated by research, including experiential learning through community involvement (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008); mentoring (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009); and reflection, specifically reflecting on community involvement experiences, personal development progress, and readings (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). Therefore, researchers recommend the consideration of these experiences when designing leadership development experiences.

The need for definitive research linking curricular experiences to leadership skill development exists. This study provided a unique protocol for exploring potential links between experiences and skill development. However, due to the limited population, the generalizability of these findings is limited. Therefore, future studies should consider the expansion of this methodology across leadership development programs to provide additional evidence of curricular experiences relating to leadership skill development among college students.

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Leadership Development among Traditional-Age Community College Students

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Abstract

The development of leadership skills for traditional-age community college students can be challenging based on generational traits and issues related to the community college context. The purpose of this study was to explore the perception of leadership and personal development of leadership skills among traditional-age community college students.

Introduction

Community college students face many challenges as they prepare to graduate with associate degrees and technical certificates, to transfer to universities, and to seek employment. Among the challenges students face are the development of academic, technical, and social skills, including leadership abilities (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The development of leadership skills in college students is crucial as it promotes both personal development (Urso & Sygielski, 2007) and early career success (Hu & Wolniak, 2010; Hu, 2011). Many students choose community colleges due to the low cost and proximity to home (Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board [THECB], 2010); however, community colleges face challenges of their own as they attempt to engage students to develop leadership skills. Among the students choosing community colleges to further their education are traditional-age students, ages 18 to 21, attending college directly out of high school. Traditional-age college students are described as high-achieving, confident, and team-oriented (Howe & Strauss, 2000; 2007) as well as over-scheduled, overly-nurtured, and self-entitled (Elmore, 2010; Sax, 2003; Tulgan, 2009). The Millennial generational students have great potential for leadership, yet many have not had the opportunity to develop leadership skills.

While leadership skill development among community college students is crucial, student leadership development is often not a priority because of other pressing issues, including a focus on underprepared learners (Boroch et al., 2010), the short student attendance time compared to universities (Eich, 2008; Gehret, 2010), and student engagement challenges related to employment, family, or commuter status (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kim, Sax, Lee, & Hagedorn, 2010). Furthermore, although 45% of students completing degrees at four-year institutions were previously enrolled at two-year institutions, the available scholarship focuses on the leadership development among university students (Ruiz-Healy, 2013). This study focused on the experiences and perceptions of leadership among traditional-age community college students.

Literature Review

Considering the intersection of the three constructs of traditional-age students, the community college context, and student leadership development, including the places of overlap and contradiction, provides insight into the areas of interest.

Traditional-age College Students. Currently enrolled traditional-age college students are generationally considered Millennials. Howe & Strauss (2000) identify primarily positive traits of Millennials, including their impact on colleges (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Research indicates that generationally, Millennials are academically driven (Sax, 2003; Elam, Stratton, & Gibson, 2007), technologically savvy (Elam et al., 2007; Wilson, 2004), community minded (Williams, Beard, & Tanner, 2011), socially active (Sax, 2003), and confident (Stewart & Bernhardt, 2010). Additional research emphasizes the problematic and negative traits many associate with this generation, including self-entitlement and narcissism in college students (Elmore, 2010; Lippmann, Bulanda, & Wagenaar, 2009; Twenge, 2006). Elmore (2010) refers to Millennials as overprotected and overserved. High levels of technological connectedness have left Millennials with limited academic literacy (Bauerlein, 2009) and underdeveloped relationship skills (Elmore, 2010). While Millennial students have the key traits necessary to develop leadership skills, the negative manifestations of those traits may be the very things that prevent the development of leadership skills among members of the Millennial generation.

The Community College Context. In addition to understanding traditional-age students as members of the Millennial generation, identification as students at community colleges provides insight into their potential for leadership skill understanding and development. Community colleges are the choice of approximately half of all first time college students (Milliron & Wilson, 2004), many of whom could be considered nontraditional based on several different types of characteristics, such as age or full-time employment, according to Kim, Sax, Lee, and Hagedorn (2010). Traditional-age Millennials are a significant part of the community college population (Ruiz-Healy, 2013). Student understanding and development of leadership skills can be impacted by several aspects of the context of the community college. Miller, Pope, and Steinman (2005) report that community college students are not typically involved on campus, lessening interaction with peers and college personnel and encouraging more dependence on family. Additionally, since one of the primary missions of community colleges is the preparation of underprepared and disadvantaged learners, opportunities for leadership development may be limited. While community colleges can provide opportunities for extra-curricular student leadership skill development through student life (Frost, Strom, Downey, Schultz, & Holland, 2010), more academic options, such as honors programs (Brady, Elnagar, & Miller, 2010), are often unavailable to students in developmental education. Developing leadership as an element of the cultural capital necessary for students to succeed as they transfer to four year universities or enter the workforce is an imperative part of fulfilling the community college mission.

Leadership Skill Development among College Students. Leadership development is defined in the research as "every form of growth or stage of development that promotes, encourages, and assists in one's leadership potential" (Eich, 2008, p. 179-180). While the focus of the study is community colleges, investigation into all areas of college student leadership skill development informs the limited research conducted for and about the community college environment. Murphy and Johnson (2011) advocate the validity of the study of an entire lifespan of leadership development in order to understand the development needs of adults. As suggested by the leadership identity development theory (Komives & Johnson, 2009), students' leadership skill development in college may be impacted by previous leadership opportunities. Available literature indicates that high school students are more likely to attend college if they participate in leadership activities in their high schools (Lozano, 2008). Komives and Johnson (2009) found

that while high school leadership opportunities contribute to continuing leadership self-efficacy, high school students involved in too many organizations did not see the same results.

Research indicates positive implications of student leadership development among community college students. Urso and Sygielski (2007) promote a view of opportunity within the community college setting, leading to enhanced engagement and leadership skill development. Participating in leadership development programs can help community college students increase self-confidence, self-awareness, and understanding of personal identity (Lloyd, 2012). Additional examples of leadership opportunities available at some community colleges include honors programs (Brady et al., 2010) and student government (Miles, 2010). Women student leaders of color (Jain, 2010) and individuals with unique challenges (Resendes Chinn, 2009) have also cultivated leadership skills within the community college setting. The limited nature of research on student leadership development opportunities at community colleges, described in a report produced by the Rappaport Family Foundation (Ruiz-Healy, 2013), can impact the practice of student leadership development in the community college context.

The amount of literature focused on the concept of student leadership skill development at four-year universities is more plentiful and advanced. At many universities, leadership development programs give students the chance to improve leadership skills and knowledge through training, practice, and maturity (Connaughton, Lawrence, & Ruben, 2003; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Gehret, 2010). Research indicates positive implications for four years of experience in a leadership program; however, in order for leadership development programs to impact Millennial students, it must be taught with experiential learning strategies that are meaningful to Millennials (Arensdorf & Andenoro, 2009). Peer leadership programs also allow students to gain the tools necessary for leadership through their college career and beyond (Voorhees & Petkas, 2011). These types of peer leadership opportunities allow students to gain experience, increase commitment, and sustain student ownership of college programs (Haber, 2011). Experiences are also available in Greek organizations, as well as religious, academic, and areas of personal interest (Logue, Hutchens, & Hector, 2005). The research available on student leadership skill development at all levels of college indicates that the process is generally a positive one for students, improving communication skills, providing practical experience, and instilling confidence. By considering the current body of literature on traditional-age students, the community college context, and leadership skill development, it becomes evident that a gap exists where the three constructs interact. While these three constructs have each been investigated individually or in pairs, the combination of all three opened a unique area of inquiry for this study.

Theoretical Framework

When considering an appropriate framework for exploring the phenomenon of traditional-age community college students' leadership skill development, the leadership identity development theory provided guidance for this inquiry. The theory provides a conceptual framework to better understand how students perceive leadership as well as how they develop an understanding of leadership skills while attending community college. The leadership identity development theory was developed as part of a grounded theory qualitative study (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005), which revealed a six-stage development process. The

progression through the steps begins with the recognition of the existence of leaders and continues with the understanding of leadership and the engagement in leadership as part of an individual's identity (Komives et al., 2005). As students transition from one stage to another, leadership experiences define their understanding and their engagement in the practice of leadership (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006). Within the leadership identity development model, the development of leadership identity is treated as a process that is created by the interaction of the self with the group. The influence of the group provides contextual support for the creation and maturation of leadership skills (Komives et al., 2005). The impact of both the individual on the group and the group on the individual emphasizes the cyclical nature of the leadership identity development theory.

Research Questions

The purpose of this interpretive study was to explore the perception of leadership and personal development of leadership skills among traditional-age students attending community college. In order to best comprehend how students understand and develop leadership skills, the following research questions guided this study: What perceptions do traditional-age community college students have about leadership? Sub-questions included: How do traditional-age community college students define leadership based on their experiences? What relevance does leadership hold for traditional-age community college students? How does the community college environment impact leadership skill development?

Methods

Since the research questions for the study focused on the perceptions of leadership among traditional-age community college students, a qualitative approach provided the necessary design to examine insights on the phenomenon by exploring the issue at a personal level. The paradigm that drove the qualitative inquiry is described by Creswell (2007) as social constructivism and by Burrell and Morgan (2001) as interpretivism. Within this paradigm, asking participants to bring meaning to their own experiences allows the researcher to make sense of the context and the participants (Creswell, 2007). This study was conducted utilizing a general induction approach. Thomas (2006) explains that the purposes for using a general induction approach to collect and analyze data include summarizing raw data, generating clear connections between the data and the research questions, and creating a structure with which to understand the phenomenon described in the data. A general induction approach is meant to allow the findings of the research to emerge from themes in the data, moving from the more specific to the general (Elo & Kyngas, 2008).

Site and Participants

The research site for this study was a community college in Texas. Residential students who participate in a variety of campus activities compose the dominant student type at the primary campus. The gaps in the literature are primarily based in students within the community college context not participating in a formal leadership development program, which includes the students at the study site. Since the leadership experiences in question center on context and population, those were the primary considerations for participants. Criterion sampling included

traditional-age Millennials attending a community college. Students in their second year at a community college were decided to have enough leadership development experiences to provide ample data through an interview. Next, maximal variation sampling (Creswell, 2012) was the sampling strategy utilized to choose participants to understand perspectives from narratives on leadership skill development from a variety of different types of students. Several participant characteristics were identified as appropriate criteria to create a maximal variation of study participants. A varied sample that included five males and eight females all between the ages of 19 and 21, as well as diverse ethnic representation including Caucasian, Hispanic, and African-American students, was important to gain a wider perspective of community college student leadership development. Since maximal variation was a priority, the researcher sought to engage participants from each organized activity at the study site.

Data Collection and Analysis

The collection of data was accomplished through semi-structured interviews with thirteen participants conducted by the researcher utilizing a series of open-ended questions. The collection of data through interviews is key to a general induction approach as the meaning created by the descriptions of participants is the primary data source (Merriam, 2002). Participants were provided anonymity through the use of pseudonyms throughout the study.

Thomas (2006) explains that the process of inductive analysis is one based in the coding of the raw data to seek both commonalities as well as important differences. In order to accomplish this analysis, the interview transcripts were uploaded into MaxQDA software program for coding. Data was coded first with an initial coding process to break down the data and, secondarily, with a focused coding process to cluster data into categories as themes as suggested by Saldana (2013). Areas of similarities among data codes as well as those different from the others were identified and utilized to create categories and themes which represent areas of corresponding and overlapping meaning within the data related to leadership understanding, development, and experiences. The researcher utilized the codes, categories, and themes to complete the descriptions of the participants' perceptions and experiences of leadership development.

Limitations

The primary limitation of any qualitative study is the generalizability to other populations and contexts, which applies here given that this study was conducted with only traditional-age community college students who were affiliated with specific organizations. However, the sample, which included several different student types does provide some insight into different types of populations. Additionally, the researcher's experience with the participant population provided additional insight into some of their attitudes, values, and behaviors, but likely also shaped conceptions about the topic, context, and population of the study. Through objective inquiry and intentional meaning seeking, the researcher was able to undertake the research focused on the research questions and the goals of the study with limited bias while still maintaining the crucial understanding of the population and context.

Trustworthiness

Validation of the data analysis for this study was carried out in several forms. Member checking (Creswell, 2012; Thomas, 2006) was conducted by providing each participant with the transcript of his or her interview to inspect the data for accuracy and to ensure that their descriptions were complete and realistic. Additionally, an external audit by an individual with knowledge of the participant population offered trustworthiness and validity to the study's findings. Finally, participants' experiences relayed in rich, thick description add validity by allowing the researcher and readers to connect to the data and findings (Creswell, 2007).

Results

Analysis of data collected through interviews generated two themes: Defining Leadership and Developing Leadership, each of which encompassed several categories.

Defining Leadership

Participants indicated an emerging definition of what leadership is, not only in their own experience, but also recognizing it in the examples of others. While not all participants perceived leadership to be defined in the same way, all of the participants discussed ways in which they understood leadership. The four categories under the theme of Defining Leadership are Leadership Identity, Influence, the Qualities of Effective Leaders, and the Qualities of Ineffective Leaders.

Leadership Identity. Each participant in the study described identifying characteristics of leaders. Some participants pointed out that leadership is not about age or gender, but is instead about developing the skills necessary to lead. David explained, "I think leadership is more of a capability that everyone has, but some people have it a little bit more innately." Leaders stand out and can be identified by how they carry themselves and how others react to them. Jesse stated that leadership attributes include "the way they think, the way they go about things." Brandi suggested that leaders "carry themselves a different way." The way that leaders are identified is also indicative of how others respond to them. Taylor explained that a leader can be identified based on "the way the people they are leading react to them." These explanations of leadership identity indicate a developing understanding of leadership and of those who lead among the study participants.

Influence. In addition to identifying leaders, participants recognized the ability of leaders to influence others. First, participants recognized the influence that others had upon their lives. Candy described the influence of the head athletic trainer on athletes, student trainers, and other students at the college: "He will take a group of people… He'll sit down and give them any answer they need at any time. It's so crazy to me that like one person could have such an influence on so many different people." Several participants also recognized that others follow their lead. Katherine was very aware of her influence, relating several instances that others followed her lead. She elaborated that "when I'm in a group of people, sometimes I find people following me, and I really don't know why." Kristina interpreted the need for being a role model to higher expectations for leaders. She revealed, "You have to be a good role model. You can't be -- you can't want to be a leader and you're not doing the right things."

Qualities of Effective Leaders. As part of the descriptions of both themselves and others as leaders, participants identified the qualities of effective leaders. First, participants described leaders as having certain personality traits associated with responsibility, confidence, other-orientation, and sociability. Crissy explained the importance of leaders showing initiative and effort and agreed with Bradley that a leader must first learn to lead him- or herself before leading others. Confidence was also a trait that participants identified as important to the ability to lead. Regina described leaders as "usually not scared to say what they feel or like when something needs to be done, they're not scared to say it." Taylor and Maggie both advocated the importance of patience in leadership, while others described similar traits, such as unselfishness, encouragement, cheering up, and helping others. This other-orientation was the focus of much of how these students both saw leadership in others and participated in it themselves. The other-orientation was extended by the perception that effective leaders are outgoing and personable. Bradley portrayed a leader as "someone who is very outgoing."

In addition to leadership traits, participants depicted leadership behaviors including taking control of situations, appropriate communication, honesty, and honor as qualities of effective leaders. Participants described the ability of leaders to be able to step up and take charge of situations when necessary. Brandi explained that leaders "take charge. They always know what to do." Several of the participants, including Regina, Collin, Kristina, Candy, and Bradley, spoke of the ability of leaders to "speak up" and "be vocal." David reported having developed communication skills as part of his community college experience, as did Katherine. Participants also pointed out the value of trust in relationships. Travis clarified the significance of honesty in leadership, "People aren't going to trust someone and look up to a leader if they're not honest with them." Collin extended the explanation of honesty to honorable behavior: "I learned how important it is when you're looked up to, to actually do the things right because if you're not, the people underneath you aren't."

Qualities of Ineffective Leaders. In addition to recognizing the qualities of effective leaders, participants described some of the qualities of ineffective leaders. Some of the qualities of ineffective leaders were reluctance to lead, being mean or negative, and unethical behavior. First, participants found in themselves and others an unwillingness to lead, primarily because of shyness, which made leaders ineffective. Kristina explained that she preferred to watch others lead because she did not think she was an effective leader: "I'm shy. I don't like to talk. I'm nervous. I get kind of shaky." Another quality of ineffective leaders the participants expressed was being unnecessarily mean. Katherine found negative responses from followers of mean leaders. "In all honesty, when you're a leader of any particular group, if you're going to be really rude about it and really negative, nobody's going to want to follow you." The final ineffective leadership quality discussed among participants was unethical behavior. Maggie found some of her coaches to behave unethically by both hypocrisy and hoarding information. "They're really hypocritical. They'll like yell at you for doing one thing and go around and do it or -- they -- the biggest annoyance is they never give you enough information."

Each of the categories under the theme of Defining Leadership – Leadership Identity, Influence, Qualities of Effective Leaders, and Qualities of Ineffective Leaders – were proliferations of examples of others and experiences of the participants. These examples and experiences have

impacted each participant as they continue to understand and develop their own leadership identity.

Developing Leadership

As an extension of defining leadership, participants described the impact of watching others lead and fulfilling the leadership role in terms of how those experiences helped them understand and develop leadership skills. The three categories for the theme Developing Leadership were the Impact of Others, the Impact of Personal Experiences, and the Perceptions of their Personal Leadership Development.

Impact of Others. Participants' descriptions of their perceptions of leadership included the impact of other individuals on how they understood leadership as well as how those understandings applied to their own personal leadership development. All of the participants were able to identify examples of leadership, although the reason and amount of the impact of others on leadership development varied. Ten of the thirteen participants reported that adults were the primary examples of leadership before attending college. For example, Katherine described her mother as strong, independent, and caring, which led her "to become the person I am today." Alternately, only five of the thirteen participants reported adults to be their primary leadership influence while attending community college. Jesse learned to go with his instincts from his theatre director who "knows what he's doing." Unlike their examples of leadership before college, the majority, eight of the thirteen participants, described peers to be their primary influence while they were attending community college. Kristina, Collin, Taylor, and Brandi all described teammates who provided positive examples of leadership during their time attending community college. David and Katherine were impacted by peers in leadership positions, particularly the drum major of the band who was described by David as someone who "gets things done" and by Katherine as knowing "what he was talking about."

All but one of the participants explained the impact of others on their leadership development in very personal terms, describing relationships with leaders they had personally followed. Bradley, the only student not currently involved in an on-campus activity, related the impact of a professional athlete on his understanding of leadership: "His leadership qualities were tremendous." These influential leadership examples provided insight into the changes of leadership perception from high school to college as well as the impact of participating in campus activities to how a traditional-age community college student perceives leadership.

Impact of Personal Experiences. Participants also discussed the impact of participating in leadership activities on their perception and development of leadership skills. All of the participants identified some type of leadership experience of varying degrees which were generally described as positive and educational. Most of the study participants reported some leadership experiences before college. Regina, Maggie, Candy, Jesse, Katherine, David, Taylor, and Crissy all held official leadership roles in high school sports or activities, some of whom had multiple leadership roles. Taylor said, "I had so much experience before in high school that if a certain situation came up now, that I would know exactly what to do." These varied leadership experiences prior to college attendance provided participants with a multitude of opportunities to practice leadership as well as experience the leadership of others. Furthermore, the recognition

of previously defined influence within leadership set the precedent for how participants perceived leadership once in a college setting. Leadership experiences while attending community college were most often conveyed by participants as less formal than high school, and focused on leading by example, influence over peers, and assisting coaches and directors. Class group discussions compelled Bradley to take a leadership role because "somebody's got to say something." Kristina did not consider herself to have much leadership experience while attending community college, although she described herself as the team mom: "They usually call me like I'm the mother of the team because I take care of everybody else off of the court." In addition to influencing peers and teammates, participants conveyed opportunities to assist coaches and directors through their participation in activities. Candy utilized time off the court with an injury as an opportunity to practice leadership skills: "I would help [the coaches] make up the practices and stuff." Although she indicated that leadership was "very important" to participation with a team, Brandi replied to a question about leading in college, "I honestly can't say that I have." At the opposite end of the spectrum, four participants reported formal leadership opportunities while they attended community college, which gave them authority and responsibility. Katherine, Taylor, Jesse, and David described leadership opportunities within each of their organizations, all of which were performing arts groups.

Perceptions of Personal Leadership Development. The process of discovery as participants both responded to questions and continued to cultivate their own understanding of their experiences produced interesting perspectives of how leadership skills are developed and how these changes continue to change perceptions about leadership. All of the study participants found leadership to be important for various reasons. Candy pointed out that leadership became more important in the community college setting because it is necessary to bring different types of people together: "In high school…everyone is comfortable with everyone. But if you go to college, And it's just a whole new mix of people. And so it's more important for you to step up and be like, hey, here I am." Kristina's explanation of the significance of leadership focused on maturity: "I think it's more important because like you're getting older." This perception of leadership development as a facet of age and maturity was discussed by several of the participants. David also related, "In high school, they like to herd you around and so you know, you just kind of do what you're told. But here, you have a lot of freedom but with freedom comes responsibility." Not only did participants indicate that leadership had become more important while attending community college, it would be equally crucial to successful future endeavors. Brandi stated that "I kind of will already have that [leadership] role thrown on me" when she transfers to a university. Beyond the time spent in college, Collin predicted that "being a leader will help in the work field."

As for how the participants best learned these necessary leadership skills, perceptions were split. Travis, Kristina, Crissy, Maggie, and Brandi learned leadership primarily by watching others. Travis explained, "I've seen more older people lead, my adults. And seeing them being leaders makes me want to be a leader." Alternatively, Regina, Candy, and Bradley felt like they needed to participate in leadership to truly develop those skills. Candy found that "by doing it myself, I've learned so much more." Taylor, Katherine, Jesse, David, and Collin learned most by both watching others lead and participating in leadership themselves. David exemplified the importance of both watching and participating in leadership:

When you watch other people do it, you learn kind of some techniques…But then when you do it yourself, it kind of builds on it in a way that watching someone will never be able to accomplish. You have to -- when you do it, you internalize it and it becomes more real, I guess. But you can only watch someone and learn so much.
David further illustrated that being in charge of loading the band equipment for football games helped him understand that leadership "was not some divine thing that some people are born with and others aren't. It feels something that you could just do and then become."

The theme of Developing Leadership consisted of the categories of the Impact of Others, the Impact of Personal Experiences, and the Perceptions of Personal Leadership Development. Each of these categories emerged from the data as explanations of how participants understood the leadership development process as well as their own personal leadership development.

Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusion

Defining Leadership. The traditional-age community college students who participated in this study revealed varied perceptions about leadership. As Rosch and Kusel (2010) explain, defining leadership beyond the basic and common "an individual's influence on a group in order to reach a goal," (p. 29), can be difficult, even for those who study the phenomenon. The leadership identity development theory (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006) provides a model for understanding more specific interpretations of leadership and definitions provided by this study's participants. The ability of participants in this study to define leadership and recognize the vital component of influence within that reality is a key factor in understanding their perception of leadership as well as the relevance that it holds for them currently and in the future. All of the participants in this study revealed at least the primary levels of leadership identity development with awareness of leadership and engagement in the group process, with many explaining a much more developed leadership identity including the generativity and integration phases.

The current study reflects findings similar to research that developed the leadership identity development theory, as participants with more developed leadership skills were able to define leadership in ways which reveal a more integrated leadership identity as they made connections between what leadership is and who they are or want to be. Furthermore, some study participants demonstrated a very developed leadership identity as they defined leadership in terms of contextualization and dynamic processes, which represent the most developed of the stages of the leadership identity development model.

Study participants' perceptions of the definition of the leadership were also impacted by their generational perspective. Arensdorf and Andenoro (2009) advocated that the best way for Millennials to develop leadership is to combine leadership concepts with opportunities to practice: "In order for [Millennial] students to learn leadership, they must 'do it'" (p. 20). As participants in this study attested, they generated their understanding of leadership, including how they defined leadership, both by watching others lead and by participating in leadership themselves. The definitions of leadership provided by the study participants were also impacted by their attendance at a community college. Students have opportunities to engage in many ways during community college attendance, which produced as part of these student engagement

opportunities help community college students develop leadership skills (Urso & Sygielski, 2007). However, unlike most of the research on community college student leadership, the primary engagement opportunities in the current study were collegiate athletics and performing arts which uniquely shaped their perceptions of leadership.

Developing Leadership. Beyond the ability to define leadership, participants in the study were candid about their own personal leadership development, focusing on the impact of others and of their own personal leadership experiences on their leadership development. Some participants in the current study can be described as being in the most advanced stages of leadership identity, fully embracing leadership roles and actively working to improve their leadership skills. These students had made choices to progress through leadership development by first understanding it and by later committing to it. This study's data indicated that participants' leadership development began prior to their attendance at a community college. These high school responsibilities included more diverse leadership opportunities than the primary experiences of community college performing arts and athletics represented in the study. Furthermore, findings from this study indicate that those who participated in formal leadership roles while in high school were more likely to have formal leadership positions at the community college level. Research shows that leadership development actually occurs across the lifespan of an individual (Murphy & Johnson, 2011), which contextualizes the importance of continued leadership development for students while attending community colleges.

A key component of leadership development among study participants was the opportunity to participate in leadership. Although each participant related experiences in leadership at some level of their education, some participants were more able than others to base their leadership development on personal experience. Within the leadership identity development model (Komives et al., 2005), this represents an understanding of leadership that is somewhat external and unintentional. This lack of advancement was due primarily to a lack of leadership participation, a lack of self-confidence, or a lack of relevance. While these participants understood concepts related to leadership, they were more likely to rely on the examples of others for leadership because of their lack of leadership experience. Alternatively, study participants who had the most developed leadership identities also demonstrated the most leadership experience. The most advanced stages of leadership development within the model include a more integrated, internal, and intentional response to leadership opportunities (Komives et al., 2005). Contrary to their less advanced peers, these students had practiced leadership, exhibited confidence, and saw relevance in the development of leadership skills both during their community college attendance and in the future. The findings support a correlation between leadership identity and leadership experience, however, it is unclear if those who lead more often see themselves as leaders or if those who see themselves as leaders choose to lead more often. More likely, this study supports a cyclical view of leadership development in which participants transition to new and more complex stages of leadership development as part of a developing understanding of self and group.

An additional finding in this study expounded on the perceptions of leadership by traditional-age community college students and the relevance that it holds for them. Participants who were active in band, theatre, and the dance team described active and formal leadership, such as drum major, manager, and captain. While participants from the athletic groups were able to identify

leadership opportunities, they were less demarcated and formal. This finding corresponds with previous studies on student leadership development in athletics and in performing arts. Research found that the experiential learning provided in performing arts can help students develop leadership skills (Kindelan, 2010, p. 31). Participants who are active in band, theatre, and dance exhibited more leadership experience, which correlated to deeper understanding, more comprehensive definitions, and more personal relevance of leadership. Alternatively, research indicates that athletics are an often underutilized opportunity to help students develop leadership (Gould & Voelker, 2012). These authors cite a lack of intentionality and an unwillingness to give up control by adult leaders as two of the primary reasons that competitive sports are often not effective at helping students develop leadership skills. Most participants in this study who associated with intercollegiate athletics understood and had examples of leadership, but some were unable to identify personal leadership roles. Furthermore, it was from this group that participants were most likely to have a less developed leadership identity.

Recommendations for Practice

One of the purposes for this study was an enhanced understanding of community college student leadership development to extend to better practice in developing student leaders. The importance of positive leadership examples to an individual's leadership identity development cannot be understated. It is vital to community college student leadership development to provide positive examples of leaders both within areas of participation, such as athletics and performing arts, and within other educational settings.

Students also need have opportunities to lead. Gould and Voelker (2012) advocate a changing focus that lessens the dominance of adults in order to cultivate leadership among students. Finally, intentionality is the key to helping students find and develop their leadership potential. Formal leadership development programs, intercollegiate athletics, and performing arts can all provide intentional opportunities. However, additional student engagement and leadership development needs are presented by students who are not connected. Furthermore, these leadership opportunities should be geared to encourage positive Millennial characteristics. Arensdorf and Andenoro (2009) include experiential learning, high expectations, the use of a variety of teaching styles, and the use of creativity as crucial methods of engaging Millennial students in leadership education.

Recommendations for Future Research

Several recommendations can be provided for future research on this topic. Additional research should be conducted on both community college athletics and performing arts programs to understand their impact on participants' perceptions of leadership and the relevance it holds for their participation in these programs and success beyond. Considering different populations would also provide insight in the development of leadership skills among community college students. Potential for extended research also exists with the connection between participants' leadership identity and leadership experiences.

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Organizational Factors Affecting the Psychosocial Development of Leader-Follower Relationships

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Abstract

As organizations continue to expand across the country and around the globe, the context in which individuals work becomes modified. This research project investigates the effect of physical and psychological distance on the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Findings suggest that both physical and psychological distance are significantly and negatively related with leader-member exchange and that psychological distance moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance. Important implications for scholarship, practice, and education and discussed.

Introduction

Broad-based and consistent research has highlighted the positive relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and task performance, suggesting that high quality relations among supervisors and their subordinates result in increased performance by followers (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Several organizational constructs and individual differences are also known to affect both the leader-member relationship and variations in task performance, such as employee attitudes, dispositional variables, employee role perceptions, demographic variables, employee abilities, task and organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Recent research has sought to identify specific organizational constructs that may either promote or inhibit these relationships. Of particular interest, distance—both physical and psychological—in organizations has been studied (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Howell, Neufeld, & Avolio, 2005). Distance has been shown to greatly affect the development of leader-member relations (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999) and occurrences of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004). Select variables, such as trust (Deluga, 1994), envy (Tai, Narayanan, & McAllister, 2012), and justice (Scandura, 1999), have been shown to moderate the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance. The potential of distance as a moderator in this relationship has been postulated, but has yet to be explored in the literature.

Leader-Member Exchange

Both the empirical understanding and subsequent organizational implications for leader-member exchange have evolved since the theory was first postulated by Graen and his colleagues (Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX distinguishes itself from other leadership theories because of its

focus on the dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate and its dependence upon that relationship as its fundamental level of analysis. As the LMX model relies upon organizational role-development, differentiated role conditions and leader-member exchanges will result (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Additionally, time pressures and resource limitations constrain a leader to develop close relationships with only a few key followers and rely upon formal authority and organizational policies to ensure adequate performance of other subordinates (Graen). LMX draws on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to suggest that a different relationship exists between a leader and each of their followers. The quality of these relationships may be categorized as high- or low-quality and is predictive of individual, group, and organizational outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). The quality of these relationships is typically divided into two main categories, composing the in-group and the out-group. Research suggests these group memberships are formed quickly and remain relatively stable across the course of the leader-member relationship (Graen & Cashman; Liden & Graen, 1980).

High-quality relationships are categorized by frequent interaction, high levels of trust, mutual respect and influence, support, and both formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Leaders in this type of relationship rely heavily on key followers and encourage in-group subordinates to engage in higher-tier, more responsible activities (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Followers in high-quality relationships typically receive confidence, encouragement, and consideration (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007) while playing an increased role in team, group, and organizational outcomes beyond their typically contracted obligations (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Low-quality relationships are almost exclusively contractual in nature and rely upon formal roles, top-down influence, economic exchanges, and greater distance between supervisors and subordinates. Followers in low-quality relationships adhere to formal organizational policies, accept leader authority, and work exclusively in pursuit of compensation and other benefits by the organization (Howell & Hall-Merenda). Supervisors in these relationships obtain standard performance by subordinates (Deluga, 1994).

Previous research on this subject has primarily focused on the relationship between LMX and subordinate performance, LMX and numerous organizational variables, and the specific characteristics of LMX relationships. As situational moderators affect the relationship between leadership and subordinate outcomes (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Morgeson, 2005), the present study examines how distance moderates the impact of LMX on predicting task performance. Historically, research on leader-member exchange has also focused on the "bright side" of LMX (Kim, O'Neill, & Cho, 2010, p. 531), highlighting its positive relationship with increased job performance and satisfaction, and decreased turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Even though low-quality leader-member exchanges can have a devastating impact on individual, group, and organizational outcomes, little research has been conducted to identify their specific antecedents and consequences (Kacmar, Zivnuska, & White, 2007). This body of research is necessary and our present study focuses on the antecedents and effects of low-quality LMX relationships.

Distance

When discussing distance in the context of leadership, prior empirical research has generally categorized the construct as being social or psychological (Bass, 1990; Bogardus, 1927; Salzmann & Grasha, 1991; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999), physical (Anatonkis & Atwater, 2002; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Howell, Neifeld, & Avolio, 2005), and hierarchical or relating to power (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Hunt, 1991; Yammarino, 1994). Many leadership theories either hold an assumption or implication of distance in their conceptualization, such as Fiedler's (1967) least preferred coworker, Blake and Mouton's (1964, p. 57) "country club" managerial behaviors, and Bass' (1985, 1998) Full-Range Leadership Theory (FRLT). As leadership is an influencing process in the supervisor-subordinate dyad, the dynamics and outcomes of this process may be affected by how close or distant the two parties are from one another. Leader behaviors, which influence followers, may be evaluated based on how close or distant followers are from their leader (Anatonkis & Atwater, 2002). Supervisors may be perceived as distant from their subordinates if they are physically distant, maximize their status and power by way of their elevated organizational position, or have infrequent contact (Anatonkis & Atwater). Effective leadership is contingent upon the degree to which supervisors can match the expected degree of closeness preferred by their followers (Roberts & Bradley, 1988). The ability of leaders to achieve this degree of closeness may be partially attributed to distance.

Napier and Ferris (1993) offer the most distinct definition of leader-follower distance, conceptualizing it as "a multidimensional construct that describes the psychological, structural, and functional separation, disparity, or discord between a supervisor and a subordinate" (p. 326). Psychological distance encompasses the "psychological effects of actual and perceived...differences between the supervisor and subordinate" (pp. 328-329), including demographic distance, power distance, perceived similarity, and values similarity. Structural distance refers to "distance brought about by physical structure, ...organizational structure, ...and supervision structure" (p. 333), incorporating span of control, interaction frequency, and physical distance or proximity. Finally, functional distance examines the "degree of closeness and quality of the functional working relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate" (p. 337) and includes leader-follower intimacy, congruence, and latitude. While describing and categorizing functional distance, Napier and Ferris draw heavily upon the theory of Leader-Member Exchange (Anatonkis & Atwater, 2002). For this study, we will explore all of Napier and Ferris' dimensions of distance under the categorization of psychological distance (demographic distance and perceived similarity), physical distance (proximity and frequency of leader-follower interaction), and functional distance (leader-member exchange quality).

Physical Distance. Physical proximity between leaders and followers, Bass (1990) observed, is essential and effectively facilitates the communication process and heightens the quality of exchange. Increasing physical distance inhibits the ability for supervisors and subordinates to foster a high-quality relationship by preventing personal and social engagement (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Additionally, Howell & Hall-Merenda postulated that higher levels of trust are exhibited in leader-follower relationships that are closer in distance due to greater levels of interaction. Scholars in leadership have suggested that increased physical distance in supervisor-subordinate relationships may decrease leaders' direct influence and the effectiveness of the working relationship (Bass 1990; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Napier & Ferris, 1993). Interestingly, Kerr and Jemier (1978) showed that task- and relationship-oriented leadership

behaviors might be essentially neutralized in instances of great physical distance. Physical distance has also been shown to negatively impact follower performance, conscientiousness, and civic virtue (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Additionally, when leaders are physically distant, follower satisfaction is greatly reduced (Burrows, Munday, Tunnell, & Seay, 1996). An additional aspect of distance that may greatly affect individual, group, and organizational outcomes, as well as the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, is leader-follower interaction frequency. As this construct acts independently of physical proximity and psychological distance, a follower may feel "closer" to a leader when the two have frequent interactions within a work setting (Anatonkis & Atwater, 2002, p. 687).

Psychological Distance. Psychological distance, which is often also referred to as psychosocial distance (Bass, 1990) or social distance (Park, 1924), was greatly explored by Napier and Ferris (1993). Bogardus (1927) was the first to postulate the notion that leadership entails a certain degree of social or psychological distance between supervisors and their subordinates. Empirically, followers have been shown to hold leader psychological proximity as highly beneficial for the receipt of "sensitive and individually-tailored confidence-building communication" (Yagil, 1998, p. 172). Yagil further argued that a socially and physically close leader was better able to serve as a role model of effective workplace behaviors, in addition to being increasingly approachable. Conversely, when psychological distance between leaders and followers is reduced, a leader's influence and respect may be diminished when followers are more capable of observing perceived leader weaknesses (Bogardus). It has also been discussed that proximity to a leader may allow followers to view their superior as more human and fallible, increasing self-identification and trust (Aronson, Willerman, & Floyd, 1966). The way in which trust develops within the supervisor-subordinate relationship is moderated by distance because "the leader's honesty, reliability, and trustworthiness can be directly manifested by the leader and assessed by close followers" (Shamir, 1995, p. 26).

Leader-Member Exchange and Distance

As situational moderators affect the relationship between leadership and subordinate outcomes (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Morgeson, 2005), the topic of distance has been of great interest to organizational scholars. Social exchanges are more easily cultivated in physical proximity when face-to-face interactions are common (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). As physical distance increases, opportunities for necessary supervisor-subordinate engagement are limited, and the likelihood of a leader and follower establishing and sustaining a high-quality relationship is greatly decreased (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Physical distance, combined with leader-member exchange, has been positively correlated with perceptions of group role conflict and negatively correlated with group altruism (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Additionally, Podsakoff found that physical distance detrimentally impacted follower performance, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Physical distance has also been shown to moderate the effectiveness of leadership behaviors (Howell & Hall-Merenda), and reduced social interaction may neutralize the effects of leaders (Bass, 1998). Therefore, we would expect that as physical distance increases between a supervisor and their subordinate, the quality of their leader-member exchange reduces accordingly.

H1: *Physical distance and leader-member exchange are negatively related.*

Napier and Ferris (1993) suggested that less functional distance is associated with higher subordinate performance, higher satisfaction, and decreased withdrawal. Increased psychological distance has been shown to greatly negatively affect the quality of manager-subordinate relations (Salzmann & Grasha, 1991) and inhibit self-identification and trust development. Bass (1990) noted that distance, generally, has a negative effect on the quality of the supervisor-subordinate exchange and reduces the leader's influence because of the reduced richness of information transmission (Daft & Lengel, 1984). Previous research has indicated that leader-member exchange quality is greatly reduced in environments of increased psychological distance (Brunelle, 2013). As such, we would expect to observe a reduction in leader-member exchange quality as psychological distance among the dyad increases.

H2: *Psychological distance and leader-member exchange are negatively related.*

H3: *Psychological distance moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance such that LMX is highest under conditions of high task performance and low psychological distance, and lowest under conditions of low task performance and high psychological distance.*

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Employees at a large, American public university were surveyed. A total of 3,183 potential email addresses were generated from the university's records. Fifty-eight employees were no longer employed or were on leave at the time of the survey administration, reducing the total potential sample to 3,125 employees. Each email was personalized with the respondent's name, a note introducing the research, and the contact information of the primary researchers. As an incentive for participation, the first 200 respondents were offered a $5 Amazon gift credit. The researchers also personally contacted managers throughout the university to encourage their units to participate. Finally, a follow-up email was sent reminding individuals about the survey project. The link was accessed by 1,452 individuals (46.4%). Of these, 825 individuals began the survey (26.4% initial response rate), and a total of 521 surveys were completed (16.7% final response rate). Respondents identified themselves and their supervisors in the initial response (for matching purposes), which inquired about the nature of the work relationship with their supervisor, attitudes, and individual difference data.

Two hundred ninety-three unique supervisors were identified from the subordinate sample. To maintain statistical independence, one subordinate was randomly selected per supervisor, and then supervisors were asked to report on the performance of that employee. A total of 151 supervisor responses were started (51.5% initial response rate), and a total of 121 completed responses were received (41.2% final response rate).

Measures

Leader-Member Exchange. Leader-member exchange was measured using the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). An example item is, "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?" Scale ranged from 1 to 5 and varied according to the item.

Physical Distance. Physical distance was measured using a single item: "Indicate how close your workspace is to your manager/supervisor," and the anchors were 1 (Very Distant), 2 (Fairly Distant), 3 (Somewhat Close), 4 (Fairly Close), and 5 (Very Close).

Psychological Distance. Based on the theory of Napier and Ferris (1993), three items were developed for this investigation to measure psychological distance. The statement, "Think about your supervisor and how similar he or she is to you, and then respond with your agreement to the following items" preceded the three items: "I feel very similar to my supervisor," "My supervisor and I share much in common," and "My supervisor isn't that different from me." Items loaded onto a single factor with acceptable reliability. Scaling was 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree), and aggregate scores were reverse-coded for interpretation.

Task Performance. Task performance was measured using the four-item scale from Van Dyne and LePine (1998) and adapted to the current context. Supervisors were advised, "Please rate your level of agreement regarding the behavior of this subordinate at work." Items include, "S/he fulfills the responsibilities in his or her job description," "S/he performs the tasks expected as part of the job," "S/he meets performance expectations," and "S/he adequately completed responsibilities." Anchors ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). Supervisors were also allowed to indicate "Not Applicable" and "Unknown." No supervisors selected "Not Applicable" or "Unknown" for these performance dimensions, suggesting they felt confident rating subordinates.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Organizational citizenship behaviors were measured using five-items drawn from Williams and Anderson (1991). Organ (1988) recommended that researchers select citizenship items that fit with their unique work context. The items are, "This subordinate helps others who have been absent," "Assists me [the supervisor] with my work (when not asked)," "Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries," "Goes out of his or her way to help new employees," and "Takes a personal interest in other employees." Anchors ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The items loaded onto a single factor and exhibited acceptable internal consistency.

Controls. Control variables included supervisor and subordinate positive and negative affectivity (Thompson, 2007), communication frequency, work relationship tenure, age, education, ethnicity, and sex.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using correlation analyses and hierarchical moderated multiple regression analyses. All predictor data were standardized prior to analyses, and standardized results are shown for all regression coefficients. To test moderation effects, constructs were combined multiplicatively, and main effects and controls were entered in a step-wise fashion. A hierarchical approach was employed, as recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983).

Results

Table 1 summarizes hypotheses, measurement tools, and statistical outcomes of analysis. Results and descriptive statistics of hypotheses concerning physical and psychological distance, leader-member exchange, and control variables are summarized in Table 2. Coefficient alphas for scale reliability are reported on the diagonal of Table 2 as applicable. Table 3 summarizes five, individual regression models predicting leader-member exchange. Model 5 accounts for 49% of the variance in leader-member exchange. Table 4 shows the hierarchical multiple regression analyses testing moderation effects. Finally, Figure 1 shows a plot of the effect of the interaction term of task performance and psychological distance on leader-member exchange.

Hypothesis 1, which postulated that physical distance was negatively related with leader-member exchange, was supported with statistical significance ($r = -.12$, $p < .01$). Therefore, as an increase in physical distance among the leader-follower dyad is associated with a statistically significant decrease in relational quality.

Hypothesis 2 was also supported in that psychological distance and leader-member exchange were significantly and negatively related ($r = -.58$, $p < .01$). Therefore, as an increase in psychological distance among the leader-follower dyad is associated with a statistically significant decrease in relational quality.

Hypothesis 3 was supported, but in an interesting way. Psychological distance does serve as a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between task performance and leader-member exchange ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$). In sum, this model accounted for 46.3% of the variance in leader-member exchange. Interestingly, leader-member exchange was observed to be highest under conditions of low task performance and high psychological distance. When considering low psychological distance, the model predicted leader-member exchange in the presumed fashion (highest with high task performance, see Figure 1). These findings exhibit an interesting interaction effect and warrant further exploration. This unhypothesized observation may be due to another mediator or moderator variable.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to explore the interactions of physical and psychological distance with leader-member exchange and task performance. These findings greatly extend the body of empirical research surrounding the effect of both work and psychosocial environments on relational and organizational outcomes. Furthermore, these findings may be generalized to teacher-student or mentor-mentee relationships and have significant implications for leadership education and leadership programming.

Since Napier and Ferris' (1993) review of distance in organizations and their postulation of its broad implications for individual, group, organizational, and relational outcomes, two decades passed with little empirical research conducted to examine the impact of distance on the quality of leader-member relationships. Brunelle (2013) was among the first to study the effect of physical and psychological distance on the relational quality of supervisors and their

subordinates, as well as the moderation of specific leadership behaviors among those phenomena. The present study confirms the findings of Brunelle in that both physical and psychological distance have a significant, negative correlation with relational quality among supervisors and their subordinates and greatly extends previous findings in its exploration of the impact of these constructs on task performance.

For managers, leaders, or educators, our study indicates that distance can have significant and broad-based effects on individual, group, and organizational outcomes. If supervisors can do a better job of reducing the perceived distance between them and their subordinates, it may be expected that leader-member exchange quality would be positively impacted. Leaders should strive for increased interaction with subordinates and publically acknowledge their appreciation, support, and openness to followers. Additionally, workplace settings, job functions, and organizational procedures should be designed to prevent unnecessary distance from manifesting from other workplace constructs and to reduce the potential for employees or followers to view great amounts of psychological distance between them and their supervisor. Kim, O'Neill, and Jeong (2004) suggested that increased social activities and informal meetings could be an efficient and effective way to decrease distance and promote positive LMX quality. Finally, as suggested by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), supervisors should make attempts to build better quality relationships with lower-quality LMX employees. This process, again, decrease psychological distance, and increase LMX quality.

It is important to note specific limitations regarding this study. The sample was taken from a large, American public university and consisted of faculty, staff, and administrators. As college campuses may be more or less physically disbursed that the average organization, and may hold separate values systems, cultures, and governing policies, the generalizability of these findings may not be appropriate to all industries. As with many research studies, measurement perspectives may also present concern. All measurements were recorded cross-sectionally, albeit from different sources. As the survey of this study also involved highly sensitive topics in human and leader relations, such as envy, many solicited participants indicated that they did not wish to respond to the survey items, even after extraordinary efforts were taken to ensure anonymity, because they feared a lack of anonymity or because they were uncomfortable with the specific content of some survey items. A future study may be able to garner a larger number of relational dyads for increased statistical power and examination. Additionally, measures of dyadic constructs, like leader-member exchange, distance, and interaction frequency, were only delivered to one member of the dyad—the supervisor or the subordinate. Having both parties complete measures may provide for a more holistic view of the exchange and work environment, providing more reliable results. Finally, a more sophisticated mode of analysis may have increased the power and understanding of the interrelatedness of our constructs.

Future research should further investigate the phenomenon of distance's occurrence as both an antecedent and an outcome. It may be interesting to explore how distance may impact the relationship between LMX, task performance and OCBs, as well as how leader-member exchange and workplace emotions may interact to predict levels of job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. If enough statistical power may be garnered, extending the current research on emotions, such as trust and justice, may also offer increased understanding of the role of psychosocial constructs in performance outcomes, such as how justice and distance

interact to predict job performance or how trust and politics predict prosocial behaviors. Additionally, further examining the relationships among relationships and distance with subordinate task performance and occurrences of organizational citizenship behaviors may provide the field with an increased understanding of the interconnectedness of social and emotional constructs with individual, group, and organizational outcomes. It may also be useful to examine if a relationship exists between physical and psychological distance, and what that relationship, if any, would mean for these findings. Finally, further research is needed among positive organizational scholars to ground previous contentions that distance may be utilized as motivation for increased performance and prosocial behaviors.

In conclusion, the present study shows how both physical and psychological distance relate to leader-member exchange, a social-organizational construct highly correlated with task performance and prosocial behaviors. Further research into this area is needed, but it is postulated that managers and organizations should work to reduce avenues for the perception of distance between leaders, managers, or educators and their subordinates and continually work to engage out-group members. These acts, if accomplished, may positively benefit the organization through both individual and group outcomes.

Table 1
Summation of Hypotheses and Statistical Analysis of Constructs

Hypothesis	Constructs	Measurements	Correlation, Interaction Term	Finding
Physical distance and leader-member exchange are negatively related	Physical Distance LMX	Sub. Indicated Proximity LMX-7	$r = -.12, p < .01$	*Supported*, they are significantly and negatively related
Psychological distance and leader-member exchange are negatively related	Psychological Distance LMX	Pilot from Napier & Ferris (1993) LMX-7	$r = -.58, p < .01$	*Supported*, they are significantly and negatively related
Psychological distance moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance.	Psychological Distance Task Performance	Pilot from Napier & Ferris (1993) Van Dyne & Lepine (1998)	$\beta = .22, p < .05$	*Supported*, interaction of task performance and psychological distance predict LMX

Note: Sub. = Subordinate

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Inter-item Correlations

Construct	*M*	*SD*	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.
1. Subordinate Age.	44.87	12.89	1													
2. Work Relationship Tenure	3.75	3.86	.18**	1												
3. Subordinate Sex	1.62	.49	-.14**	.03	1											
4. Sub. Education	4.16	1.36	.16**	-.03	-.27**	1										
5. Sub. Positive Affectivity	4.10	.53	.17**	.01	.03	.10*	.82									
6. Sub. Negative Affectivity	1.87	.59	-.18**	-.03	-.03	.02	-.33**	.82								
7. Super. Positive Affectivity	4.09	.39	.16	-.02	.17	.06	.13	-.17	.73							
8. Super. Negative Affectivity	1.95	.40	-.01	-.01	-.09	.01	-.14	.07	-.31**	.75						
9. Communication Frequency	5.81	1.36	-.06	.10*	.12**	-.41	.03	-.06	-.05	.11	1					
10. Physical Distance	2.28	1.18	.09*	-.14*	-.16**	.29	.09*	.04	-.03	.12	-.49**	1				
11. Psychological Distance	2.72	.90	-.04	-.09*	.01	-.03	-.29**	.23**	-.07	.08	-.19**	.09*	.91			
12. Leader-Member Exchange	4.07	.79	.10*	.10*	-.02	.01	.29**	-.38**	.16	-.06	.25**	-.12**	-.58**	.92		
13. Task Performance	6.45	1.20	-.01	.10	.09	-.08	.17	-.05	.14	-.05	.04	.07	-.08	.32**	.98	
14. OCBs	6.17	.91	.23*	.22*	-.09	.04	.05	.03	.05	.19*	.42**	-.08	-.20*	.35**	.30**	.84

Notes: Supervisor $n = 117$; Subordinate $n = 520$; Sub. = Subordinate; Super = Supervisor; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; Cronbach alpha reliabilities on the diagonal, as applicable.

Table 3

Independent Regression Analyses Predicting Leader-Member Exchange

	Regression Models Predicting Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)				
	1	2	3	4	5
Sub. Age	.030	.046	-.025	-.021	.028
	(.319)	(.511)	(-.285)	(-.247)	(.339)
Sub. Sex	.034	.030	.098	.092	.099
	(.342)	(.306)	(1.062)	(.996)	(1.157)
Sub. Ethnicity	-.100	-.082	-.099	-.098	-.023
	(-.888)	(-.754)	(-.976)	(-.962)	(-.238)
Sub. Education	-.096	-.067	-.154	-.150	-.090
	(-.874)	(-.623)	(-1.496)	(-1.456)	(-.931)
Sub. Positive Affectivity	.293***	.242***	.240***	.242***	.085
	(3.056)	(2.555)	(2.719)	(2.738)	(.942)
Sub. Negative Affectivity	-.126	-.148	-.181*	-.176*	-.174*
	(-1.196)	(-1.453)	(-1.895)	(-1.839)	(-1.957)
Super. Positive Affectivity	.074	.042	.006	.004	.003
	(.829	(.486)	(.069)	(.052)	(.034)
Super. Negative Affectivity	-.013	-.017	-.116	-.117	-.098
	(-.151)	(-.203)	(-1.357)	(-1.373)	(-1.239)
Work Relationship Tenure	.068	.046	-.036	-.043	-.051
	(.664)	(.464)	(-.376)	(-.450)	(-.571)
Communication Frequency	-.012	-.001	-.185*	-.221**	-.218**
	(-1.25)	(-.007)	(-1.851)	(-1.996)	(-2.121)
Task Performance		.227***	.110	.117	.147*
		(2.843)	(1.378)	(1.458)	(1.962)
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors			.376***	.381***	.304***
			(4.076)	(4.107)	(3.451)
Physical Distance				.071	.055
				(.765)	(.640)
Psychological Distance					-.318***
					(-4.099)
R^2	.239***	.296***	.397***	.401***	.490***

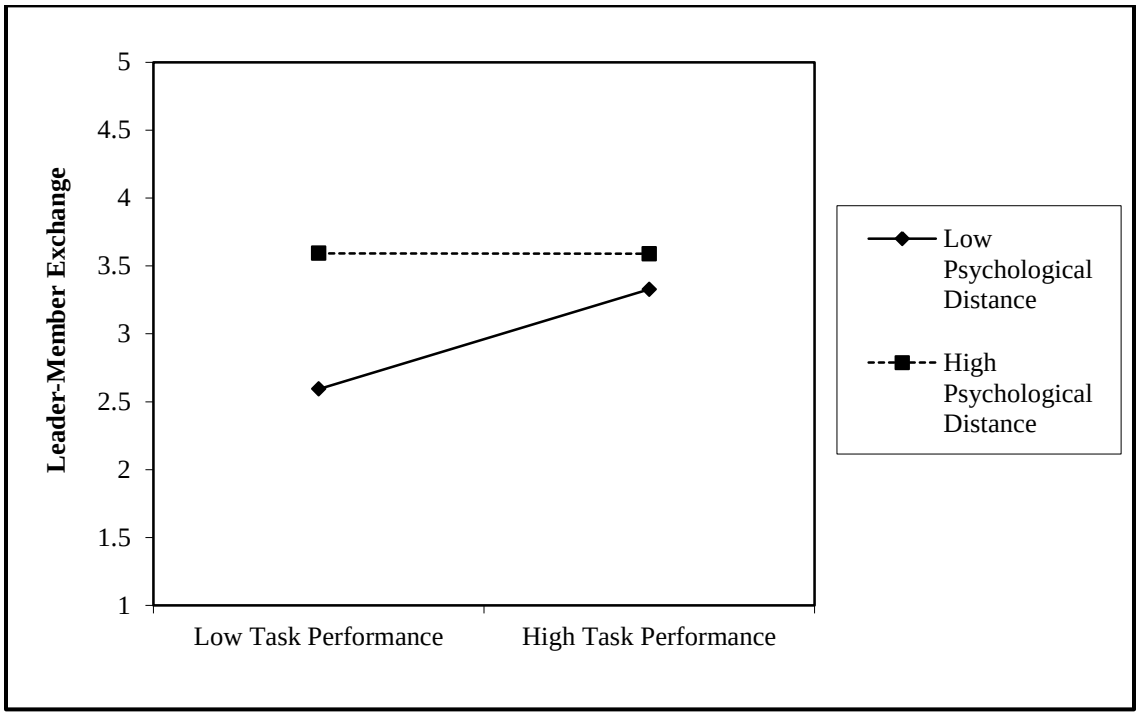
Note: β reported; t-statistics reported in parentheses; Sub. = Subordinate; Super. = Supervisor; * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table 4
Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Leader-Member Exchange (Moderation Test)

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)												
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
Predictor	β	*t*	*p-value*	β	*t*	*p-value*	β	*t*	*p-value*	β	*t*	*p-value*
Sub. Age	.030	.319	.750	.046	.511	.610	.087	1.048	.297	.079	.985	.327
Sub. Sex	.034	.342	.733	.030	.306	.760	.055	.626	.533	.056	.656	.513
Sub. Ethnicity	-.100	-.888	.377	-.082	-.754	.453	.002	.024	.981	.023	.234	.815
Sub. Education	-.096	-.874	.384	-.067	-.623	.535	-.012	-.125	.901	.002	.024	.981
Sub. Positive Affectivity	.293	3.056	.003	.242	2.555	.012	.057	.601	.549	.106	1.132	.260
Sub. Negative Affectivity	-.126	-1.196	.235	-.148	-1.453	.149	-.152	-1.644	.103	-.095	-1.026	.307
Super. Positive Affectivity	.074	.829	.409	.042	.486	.6287	.031	.397	.692	.013	.166	.868
Super. Negative Affectivity	-.013	-.151	.881	-.017	-.203	.840	-.015	-.196	.845	-.018	-.236	.814
Work Relationship Tenure	.068	.664	.508	.046	.464	.644	.014	.160	.873	.013	.150	.881
Communication Frequency	-.012	-.125	.901	-.001	-.007	.994	-.046	-.536	.593	.008	.094	.925
Task Performance	---	---	---	.227	2.843	.005	.236	3.264	.002	.239	3.392	.001
Psychological Distance	---	---	---	---	---	---	-.375	-4.748	.000	-.380	-4.947	.000
Psychological Distance X Task Performance	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.220	2.561	.012
R^2	.239***			.296***			.427***			.463***		

Note: Sub. = Subordinate; Super. = Supervisor; * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Figure 1
Plot of Interaction (Task Performance X Psychological Distance) on Leader-Member Exchange



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ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSIONS

Scholarly Leadership Considered

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Abstract

Scholarly leadership is tentatively defined as a potentiating relationship that leads toward the advancement of the professional life and the community of scholarship. This definition will be explored at the intersection of the Carnegie Foundations, *Priorities of the Professorate* (Boyer's Model) and the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda*.

Introduction

"Faculty are losing out, too. Research and publications have become the primary means by which most professors achieve academic status, and yet many academics are, in fact, drawn to the profession precisely because of their love for teaching or service—even for making the world a better place." (Boyer, 1990, p. xii) Twenty-five years have passed since The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching issued Ernest Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered*. Having been a professor and scholar during that same time period I can report that while we, the professorate, have and continue to consider this seminal report. The various dimensions of scholarship stemming from Boyer's report remain, for the most part, unbalanced, passive, and disconnected. The divisions of scholarship — *Discovery*, *Integration*, *Application*, and *Teaching* — have been discussed and weighed all the while remaining divided. Most would agree that the value of the scholarship of *Discovery* still weighs heaviest in terms of what counts in academia in terms of professional advancement and what matters in terms of the advancement of scholarship — ideas, innovations, and theories (Vannini, 2006, & Gravani, 2007). This creates a system of scholarship where the other divisions or elements become passive and under recognized. In terms of dissemination; the sharing of knowledge across disciplines, the sharing of best practices, or the sharing of conversations about teaching and learning, remain localized and unconnected within discreet communities of practice. This round table discussion seeks to encourage a revitalization concerning the value of a balanced approach to scholarship and professional advancement to be called scholarly leadership. Terms like transdiciplinarity (Nicolescu, 2002; & McGregor & Volckmann, 2011, generativity (Erikson 1950/1963; & Volckmann, 2014), and communities of scholarship (McCaslin & Flora, 2013) will be weaved into the discussion.

The ground for this exercise is the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda* (NLERA). Given the depth and breadth of the NLERA, what can be asserted concerning the divisions of scholarship? At the intersection of Boyer's Model and efforts like the NLFERA are there opportunities to redefine "divisions of scholarship" into something more integral? For the purposes of this discussion scholarly leadership is tentatively defined as a potentiating relationship, among experienced and aspiring educators and researchers, which instils the critical importance of planning, preparing and producing publishable and presentable findings stemming from innovative practice, transdiciplinarity, or focused research leading toward the advancement of the professional life and the community of scholarship.

Background

The intent is to reinvigorate the conversation concerning the divisions of scholarship towards producing a balanced, active, and generative system that seeks to discover, integrate, apply, and teach from an interconnected transdisciplinary perspective. A system that seeks to put knowledge and wisdom to work in the world.

The Philosophical Foundation

The philosophical foundation supporting this discussion is *integral* in its construction. An integral approach to the various elements of scholarship is made necessary because it holds the function of drawing it to completion or it draws our attention towards seeing the individual elements as an interconnected whole. Integral thinking draws together the elements of scholarship into an interrelated system of ideas that are mutually enriching (Volckmann, 2014). Integral thinking can be seen as synergistic as it seeks a synthesis of these elements (Esbjőrn-Hargens, 2010). Figure 1 is a representation of this integral thinking. The realms of scholarship in this model form an interrelated dynamic with each contributing and acting on the other. As such, valuing, interacting, transacting, and transforming enliven and inform the whole. The dynamic is not linear but networked. In the end the lines separating individual realms dissipate forming a community of scholarship as shown in Figure 2.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Call for focused research and reporting on the nature of scholarly leadership (Figure 3). How would such knowledge purpose itself at the intersection of the Carnegie Foundations, *Priorities of the Professorate* (Boyer's Model) and the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda*? Additional questions might include: What are the things you value most about your professional life*?;* How can we actively redefine scholarship as being both inclusive and integral?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Within a community of scholarship the elements of scholarship; Discovery, Integration, Application, and Teaching, are not seen as discreet subsets but as interdependent and interrelated aspects of advancing knowledge and wisdom. It would be appropriate to ask, given this declaration; to what purpose? Globally it could be said for the advancement of the human condition. Research and scholarship within such a meta-purpose would hold a social responsibility therefore becoming a social activity (Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 2008). The community of scholarship, like leadership itself, is dynamic and it is through that dynamism that real discovery, real change, reflective of our mutual purposes, will be revealed to the world (Rost, 1993).

Recommended next steps/Actions

Call for focused research and reporting on the nature of scholarly leadership. How would such knowledge purpose itself at the intersection of the Carnegie Foundations, *Priorities of the Professorate* (Boyer's Model) and the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda*?

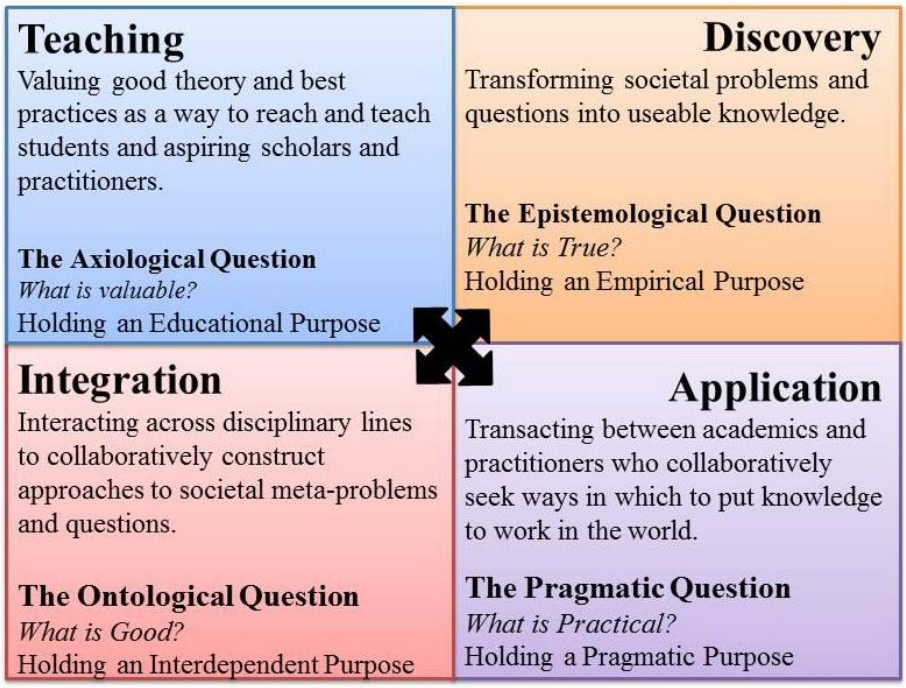

Figure 1. A representation of the realms of scholarship with integral thinking.

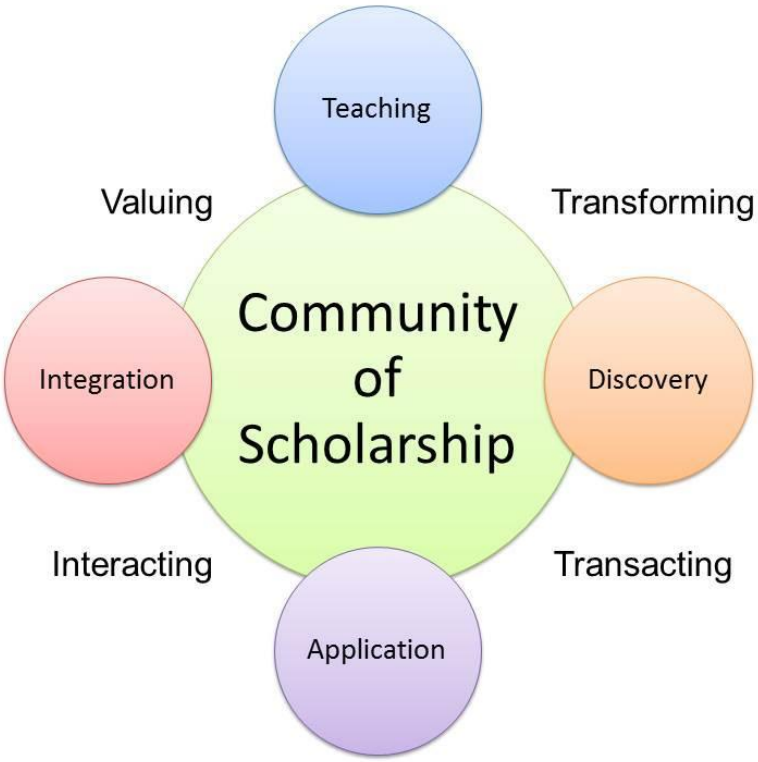

Figure 2. The interrelationship of the elements of scholarship within a community of scholarship.

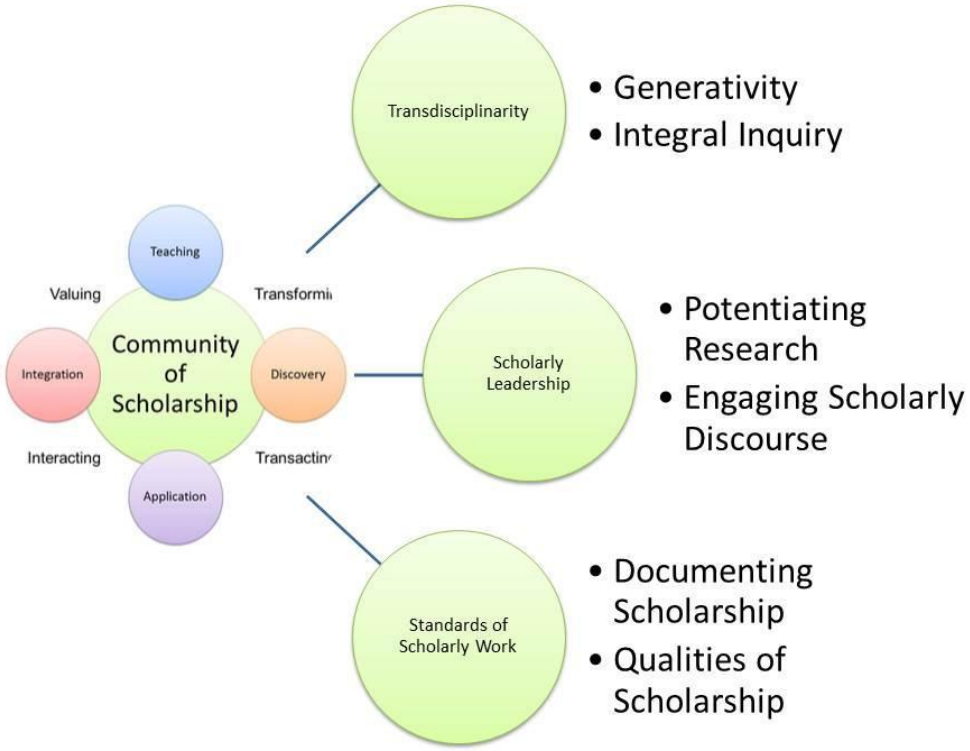

Figure 3. Literature map for a generative and integral synthesis of a community of scholarship.

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Generational Intelligence in Leadership Education

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Introduction

Leadership is a courageous undertaking in our diverse world today. The need for generational intelligence in leadership education is becoming an imperative and requires conversation around critical implications for leaders of all ages who are host to generationally diverse groups of employees. Studies show that different age groups are affected in the area of psychological job control and job satisfaction depending on how leaders address technological autonomy at work. How leaders assess workers is directly related to their age and perception of task and relationship management. When the leader and subordinate are of disparate age, perceptions tend to be incongruent leading to both leader and employee misjudgment of one another in terms of effectiveness and satisfying interactions. The workforce now encompasses five generations each with their own perceptions about work and norms relative to technology and how they approach the work itself. How can this be effectively communicated in a leadership education venue? The objectives of this roundtable would be:

- Understand how technology in leveraged by different generations at work to manage work and life and the implications this has for leaders and how they lead.
- Explore collisions in norms between generations when it comes to tasks and relationships.
- Uncover additive issues regarding newly surfaced challenges when leaders head groups composed of five generations and the implications these issues pose for leadership education.
- Development of a potential framework for inclusion of generational intelligence into leadership education moving forward.

Literary 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 leader 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. Considering the current multi-generational work context, such similarities and differences in technology uses and perceptions provide an environment ripe with management challenges related to individual satisfaction levels at work, and conflict from generational behavioral expectations and norms considering that some authors claim these struggles are causing stress that affects personal responsibilities and health (Thurston, 2012). As technology continues to gain momentum in the fusion of work and life management, I sought to inquire about how this new state is affecting behaviors, expectations, and the potential for a paradigm shift in the current understanding of career and life management.

A study by Brodie and Rubin (2011) highlighted that technology has shifted the work environment to a more 24/7 design impacting organizational commitment. Another Australian study proposed that technology has caused both work "extensification" and work intensification (Currie & Eveline, 2010). Currie and Eveline also show that these two shifts have affected participants (academics in their study) in managing both work and life creating a "24/7" commitment. A study done on lawyers (Thurston, 2012) shows that this shift to a 24/7 work environment coupled with accomplishing tasks and communications instantaneously affects personal responsibilities and health. Current studies also beg the question as to what would happen when younger generations take over as leaders in this shifted work environment that negatively impacts Baby Boomers and Generation Xers. The fact that people of different ages are immersed to varying degrees in different computing technologies (McMullin, Comeau, and Jovic, 2007) would show where and how these generations are interacting in the workplace. A study that looked at four generations (Traditionalists (born pre WWII), Baby Boomers, Gen X and Millennials) in a library setting (Murray, 2011) showed that situations where Millennials supervise a multigenerational workforce is rife with conflict based on expectations of work, collaborations, multitasking and relative to the two domains of work and life.
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.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

A roundtable of this nature could easily take the form of discussion to brainstorming to plan formulation or simply remain at the exploration and discovery level. Through discovery, it is likely participants will both confirm their own ideas regarding enhancements to leadership education in this area as well as gain greater insight from one another. Operationalizing new methods by which this topic as a learning objective might be incorporated into current leadership pedagogy would be groundbreaking in developing courageous leaders of the day.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

While current curriculum and textbooks touch upon generational characteristics in a categorical fashion, none explore the implications to leadership or the challenges due to perceptual differences and collisions in understanding one another. The key to this roundtable would be a deeper and more effective way to move leaders from simple awareness of differences to a strategic aptitude in managing both one on one and employee interactions that maximize positive interactions and thus outcomes. It is not enough to educate leaders about differences. Leadership education should strive to assist students in navigating the complexities of these interactions.

Recommended next steps/actions

Discussing issues around differences and perceptual collisions take us out of our comfort zone. This round table is designed in the spirit of discovery and challenges participants to have the courage to share and create a framework around leading in a new age of generational diversity. Doing so will arm new leaders with methods with which to navigate in an environment that requires vigilance and adaptation to be forward moving. This proposal is designed to be innovative, exiting and with an air of lightheartedness as acceptance as we embrace differences and determine best ways to educate leaders for inclusion and productivity at work.

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The Effect of Resistance and Resilience on Leaders' Learning

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Introduction

Uncertainty and unpredictability now present some of the biggest challenges to organizations, and few professionals will escape the impact of change over the course of their career. This has particular implications for organisational leaders. In its 2010 report 'capitalising on Complexity', the IBM Institute for Business Value reported three widely shared perspectives of business and public sector leaders: **(1)** The rapid and accelerating escalation of complexity is the biggest challenge they face**; (2)** Organisations are not equipped to cope effectively with complexity in the current global environment, and (3)The most important leadership competency for organisations to deal with complexity is creativity. To add to this, a further driver for change is the trend for interprofessional working, seen most powerfully in the public service professions.

Leading in a culture of innovation and change and within inter-professional contexts has radical implications for styles of leadership (Robinson 2011), and indeed for leadership educators. Developing new leaders now means doing new things, not simply reinforcing our old established ways of doing things. In this roundtable we will explore two particular concepts that are important in this context – those of resistance and resilience.

Background

Most leaders will have climbed their way through the ranks of their profession based on their abilities and successes within their community of practice. Being an effective member of a community of practice involves adopting the unique language and culture of the community, and adhering to the values, beliefs and behaviours that the community accepts as the norm (Wenger, 2008; Ibarra, 1999). Profession-specific training and education help to prepare individuals for this rite of passage into their chosen field by equipping them with the requisite knowledge and skills that make them competent to practice. But, Baumard argues that experienced professionals can become what he calls 'territorialised'; that is, their knowledge and therefore their strategic approach to professional practice is bounded by the cognitive map that they create within that context, which can be a barrier to the creation of new knowledge in different situations. Once these professionals move into leadership positions that demand interprofessional working and a role in supporting ongoing change in their organizations, it is easy to see how this territorialism can be detrimental to their new agenda.

I would argue that the development of leaders for the new complex and inter-professional world demands a transformation of their education and learning, one that will require an 'undoing' of their established ways of knowing. We should seek to achieve mindful learning in our learners, which requires three characteristics: the continuous creation of new categories, openness to new information, and an implicit awareness of more than one perspective (Langer, 1997). How do we do this? Godfrey et al (2013) make a case for a systems approach to learning in their work with engineers, which is embedded in context-driven enquiry rather than the acquisition of

specialised subject knowledge. Learners progress through a formative, dynamic learning process which draws on higher order creative and critical thinking that begins with observation and concludes with a product which is the unique application of knowledge for particular purpose. This process is profoundly inter-disciplinary. This type of approach involves the disruption and breaking of existing, poorly organized skills and the establishment of new attitudes and personally valid ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Harri-Augstein *et al* 1991*)*. Harri-Augstein calls this 'challenging the robots'.

However, for those deeply entrenched in a particular professional 'way of knowing', this task is far from easy, and can be painful. Atherton (1999) argues that where learning is 'supplantive', i.e the material replaces threatens knowledge or skills which have already been acquired, there is often a strong resistance to learning (compared with the normal 'additive' learning, which involves simply adding to one's existing stock of knowledge). If we consider our learners (and here I must make a distinction between students learning about leadership, and **leaders who are learning**, who are the subject of my discussion), they have mostly achieved their position of leadership based upon their experience, expertise and success within their particular community of practice. Their professional 'ways of knowing' have worked for them so far, so why change? Atherton also highlights two other issues that create resistance to transformative learning: *fear of failure*, and *representation.* It is not unreasonable to hypothesise that organisational leaders, exposed to constant scrutiny and driven by key performance indicators, would indeed suffer from a deep fear of failure, with a consequent effect on their openness to new learning, if Atherton's argument is to be accepted. 'Representation' relates to the leader educators and what they represent to the learner. It largely concerns professional credibility, and the learner's impression about whether the tutor has any direct experience of what they are talking about, or whether it is all theoretical material from books. There is some evidence to suggest that what the tutor represents is more important to learners than his or her technical competence as an expert or tutor.

The final factor that I would like to considering this argument is that of resilience. It is widely accepted that resilience is a favourable trait in leaders; the ability to bounce back from setbacks is seen as important. Resilience in learning has also been considered to be important; an ability to respond positively to negative feedback and to learn from it without giving up is often seen as fundamental to continued learning. However, recent work (Deakin-Crick et al 2013; Deakin-Crick et al unpublished) has shed a more negative light on resilience. A study conducted in 2014 seemed to suggest that highly resilient individuals had a tendency to be 'stuck', i.e. they were, indeed , resistant to learning. In effect, they were not deterred by negative feedback, but effectively ignored it and did not use it to learn. So, could we suppose that leaders who were successful because they are resilient might be the very leaders who find it difficult to change and learn?

Means for discussion

In this roundtable discussion I will hope to explore the effects of resistance and resilience on leaders using experience of a group of professional doctorate candidates, all of whom are leaders within their own field. I will present a summary of the pedagogies we use and qualitative data collected from the students to support discussion and sharing of experiences. The instrument

used by Deakin-Crick will also be discussed in relation to a study conducted with my professional learners.

Implications and next steps

The subject of this discussion has particular relevance to ALE research priority III: The psychological development of leaders and learners. The relationship between resistance and resilience and their effect on a leader's learning are under-researched, and some aspects are contradictory. It is intended that, by opening up this debate to other learner educators, further research objectives can be developed with the ultimate aim of informing pedagogy and curriculum design.

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What is the place for global leadership in traditional leadership education?

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Abstract

Global leadership is an emerging area, but little discussion has taken place about its curricular alignment with existing leadership education. This provocative roundtable will challenge participants to consider the nature of global leadership alongside traditional leadership education. Faculty, students or administrators in global leadership programs are particularly encouraged to attend.

Introduction

Global leadership is an emerging area of scholarship that shows great promise for providing conceptual and empirical understanding of leadership in an ever more complex and interconnected world. However, the curricular alignment of global leadership outcomes related to traditional leadership education is a topic that, in order to advance the field in a strategic manner, needs to be addressed. In particular, the perspective of infusing global leadership elements into existing curriculum versus developing independent global leadership degrees is one that demands a robust conversation in the field.

The objective of this session is to spark the conversation about the implementation of global leadership in relation to traditional leadership education. Participant outcomes for this session are:

1) To develop greater understanding of curricular alignment of global leadership outcomes by engaging in dialogue about the bifurcation of global leadership education and its implications
2) To share perspectives about this topic among the leadership educators at ALE

Background

Priority seven of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, et al., 2013) is "Global and Intercultural Leadership". The authors state that, "political, economic, cultural, and social forces have made our society and lives increasingly more global in scope, and as such our focus on Leadership Education curricula requires globalization" (p. 26). This call for globalization of the curriculum and response to vast environmental and situational changes in the type of world that graduates will be working in demands adaptation of leadership education. Bourn (2011) contended that, "a key need in responding to globalization in education is to identify and support learners with the relevant skills to make sense of what is happening around them" (p. 5). In order to offer the most relevant educational experience for students, and best prepare them for success in a challenging world, leadership educators have a responsibility to incorporate global leadership into the curriculum.

However, the process for incorporating global leadership curricular outcomes is currently not clear. There remains significant theoretical and empirical gaps in global leadership as a construct

(Mendenhall, et al., 2013), and its relationship to traditional leadership is murky at best. The act of simply defining global leadership is problematic, and is highly analogous to many issues that arose within the field of leadership in the 1980's and 90's (Barker, 2002; Yukl, 2010). Current literature surrounding the definition of global leadership has focused on content domains (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010), as well as attempts to develop constructs for each word of the term "global leadership" (Mendenhall et al., 2012; Osland, J. S., Bird, A., & Oddou, G. R., 2012). Other scholars have attempted to address the distinction between traditional leadership and global leadership (Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002).

Mendenhall and his colleagues (2012), identified three dimensions that distinguish global leadership from domestic leadership: complexity, flow and presence. However, these distinctions have yet to be empirically tested. Moreover, despite the ongoing discussion about global leadership as a construct, little significant discourse has taken place about educational implications of this area.

Currently, global leadership education is being addressed from two very distinct perspectives. One manner is an infusion model that attempts to extend the existing learning outcomes of "traditional" leadership education by introducing elements of global leadership. Although no scholar has explicitly described it in this way, this infusion model could be likened to the conceptual understanding of global leadership as described by Osland, Bird and Oddou (2012) as "leadership under conditions of extreme complexity" (p. 111). This perspective contents that many foundational elements of process-based leadership, such as influence or collaboration, hold true in highly globalized environments, but are significantly harder to do given the complexity of the situation.

The opposing perspective that some educators have taken is offering entirely new degrees in global leadership. The nature, learning outcomes, and curriculum of these programs are diverse. However, by designing programs that are expressly *not* labeled traditional leadership education, these programs implicitly lend support to the conception of global leadership as something distinct.

Means for Discussion

This session will be a semi-structured discussion. The facilitator will provide brief opening remarks and frame the conversation by describing several examples of current global leadership curricular offerings. Following this, participants will be asked to provide their perspectives, with a robust conversation directed at the following two central questions:

1) If we accept both the construct of global leadership as "leadership under conditions of extreme complexity", and also the great likelihood that students will find themselves in such environments, is there any justification for *not* including these outcomes in existing leadership curriculum?
2) Does the development of distinct global leadership degree programs complicate a field that has already experienced difficulty establishing boundaries and gaining respect?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

This session will likely be provocative. Leadership educators have a responsibility and a vested interest in shepherding the discipline through the incorporation of new understanding and changing environments. Global leadership outcomes need to be addressed in the curriculum, but the manner in which we, as a body, incorporate those outcomes is critical. As Mendenhall et al. (2012) argue, "consensus would allow the field to progress more rapidly, yield a higher quality of research outcomes and, in turn, produce a greater confidence in applying findings to the workplace" (p. 500). This session will be an initial attempt at bringing that conversation forward, and discussing two paradigms for how global leadership has already been manifested in higher education.

Recommended Next Steps

Participants engaged in this session will be encouraged to continue the discussion of working through the implementation of global leadership outcomes in leadership education. Clarity in program design and disciplinary alignment will be essential to educational practitioners charged with development of programs in higher education. A research stream about this topic would allow ALE to take a proactive position in these efforts and lend credibility to the discipline as a whole.

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Fostering Student Engagement in Leadership Courses

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Abstract

Student engagement can be fostered by identifying a strong sense of purpose for the leadership course or content. That purpose, often identified by the facilitator, can be even more meaningful if identified by the learner. A practice has been developed to encourage learner engagement by identifying and infusing students' personal interests and motivations into the expected learning outcomes of the course, alongside instructor- identified educational outcomes.

Introduction

The importance of "purpose" or "intent" has been promoted by many great thinkers throughout history: Aristotle, Viktor Frankl, Ken Robinson, Malcolm Knowles, Jean Piaget, Daniel Pink, Stephen Brookfield, and many others. Specifically, all of these disciplinary leaders promote the concept of purpose or intent in the learning process. A leadership practice – Intention/Reflection (Image 1.0) – has been developed based on this foundational concept.

Intention/Reflection (I/R) is a practice that encourages learner engagement by identifying and infusing students' personal interests and motivations into the expected learning outcomes of the course, alongside instructor-identified educational outcomes. This interactive roundtable is intended to foster both teaching knowledge and practical skills.

Discussion subtopics and learning activities may include a review of the results of the practice to date, and an opportunity for participants to create their own I/R materials that can be incorporated into any learning activities.

Background

The development of Intention/Reflection was influenced by many theories, methods, and practices. It is an educational process designed to promote critical thinking both before and after a pre-planned educational experience. The learner designates his/her own learning goals (sometimes in rough form) by outlining what they expect to extract from the experience.

Reflective writing helps students connect with what they have learned. According to a reflective journal design by Carlson et al (2007), students who consider their work are more likely to engage in critical thinking and connect course concepts to practical applications. The benefits of reflection also help students in how they absorb information, both within and outside the scope of course content. Journal writing can become a thread from one experience to many others (Cicero 2006, Maloney & Campbell-Evans, 2002).

In contrast to reflection is the practice of intention – targeting specific knowledge to be gained before engaging in a given learning experience. The practice of intention been inspired by several theories and practices, including: inquiry-based learning, formative assessment,

backward design, metacognition, and learning contracts. It is important to note that all of these practices could be classified under the broad term, “student- centered” learning, in which the onus of learning is on the learner. Acquiring knowledge is an active process – unique to each individual – based on past experiences, frame of reference, and personal history. Each of the above theories and practices help frame students' learning experiences.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Attendees will actively engage in an I/R session of their own, which will foster an authentic understanding of the practice. The roundtable discussion will also incorporate examples of questions used in leadership courses, as well as the examination of potential questions by the participants for their own learning environment. A discussion of existing research data related to this practice will also occur.

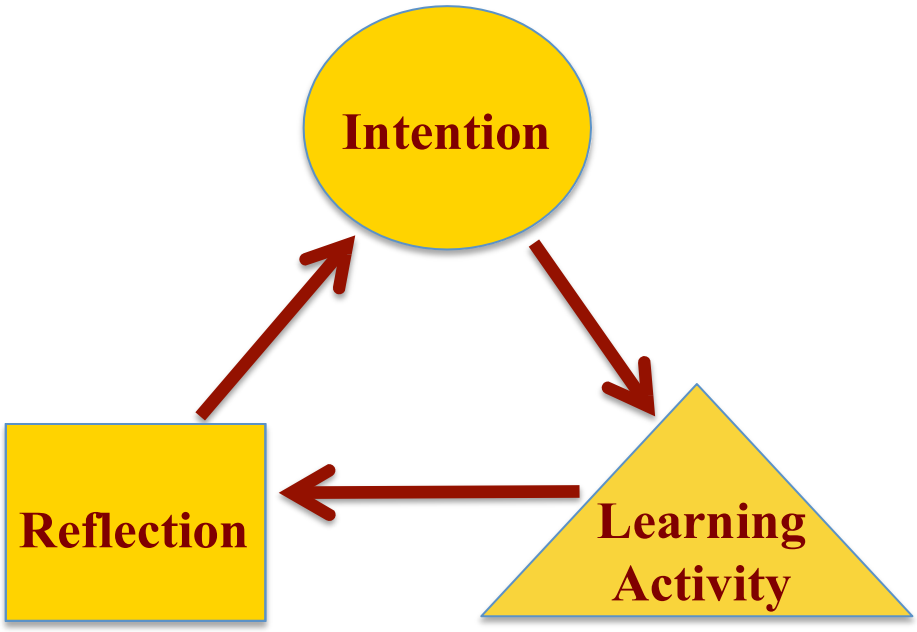
Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Intention/Reflection is an entirely student-centered, seamless practice. The learning experience, from beginning to end, is connected together directly and obviously. Previous practices have made attempts at a similar objective, but have been disjointed and somewhat inaccessible for most learners to notice. Also, previous education practices around content have been entirely, or mostly, teacher-centered. By contrast, I/R activities account for learning goals established by the instructor, but also promote the mindful creation students’ own personal set of learning outcomes. As a result of discussion related to the above issues, leadership instructors may shift their thinking on issues of classroom control, peer teaching, and other student-centered, research-based instructional practices.

Recommendations Next Steps/Actions

The researchers are continuing to identify the core structure and questions affiliated with Intention/Reflection to create the optimal learning environment for students. This roundtable session provides an opportunity for educators with like-minded student- centered philosophies to have a dialogue regarding the practice, design questions related to their own I/R learning environments and leadership courses, as well as create connections for future collaborative research on the topic. Furthermore, a discussion of how to help students fully explore their own (sometimes hidden) purposes for engaging in a learning activity may prove fruitful.

Image 1.0. Intention/Reflection (I/R) Practice Framework



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The Unseen Role of Leadership Discourses in Leadership Development Programming

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Abstract

Discourses underlie every facet of society yet go unobserved. Leadership discourses determine our normative assumptions about leadership. Western identified four discourses based on historical, socio/political, and economic perspectives. This discussion explores these and aids participants in situating their own practices within a discourse.

Introduction

Discourses underlie every facet of our society. They are taken-for-granted assumptions about how we should speak, think, and understand the world around us — and they are closely related to power and social control. Yet they remain nearly unobservable and frequently unexamined (Foucault, 1980). Leadership, too, has discourses that affect, in a fundamental way, how we think about leadership in community and organizational contexts.

Based on a meta-analysis of leadership from historical, socio/political, and economic perspectives, Western (2013) has identified four discourses of leadership spanning the past century: controller, therapist, messiah, and eco-leadership. The controller discourse of leadership emerged at the turn of the 20th century, during the industrial revolution, and is characterized by an emphasis on efficiency and the "machine-like qualities of organizations" (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005, p. 236). Following World War II, calls for a more democratic society resulted in the rise of the therapist discourse of leadership, which "works on the principle that 'happy workers are more productive workers'" (Western, 2010, p. 39). This approach made leadership more people-focused; it reflected the "wide social trends of atomization, self-concern, and the post-war individualistic expectations of being fulfilled, successful, and happy" (Western, 2008, p. 163). This approach, however, fell from favor in the corporate world, as it could not continue providing economic benefits in an era of globalization (Western, 2008). In the early 1980s, the messiah discourse of leadership emerged "with the aim to create strong, dynamic organizational cultures under the vision and charisma of a transformational leader" (Western, 2010, p. 40). This, however, often led to highly conformist, cult-like followings, such as in the case of Enron. Though the messiah leadership discourse remains strong, the evangelical leaders it has created are sometimes found to be a façade, and they have often failed to produce desired results. In the early 2000s, Western (2010) noted a significant change, identifying an emerging discourse of eco-leadership. This approach "decenters individuals and challenges centralized power, claiming that by creating the right culture and conditions, leadership will emerge in plural forms and unexpected places" (Western, 2010, p. 36). It views leadership as a process, rather than the property or behavior of an individual.

Left unexamined, these discourses may have an invisible but profound influence on the way scholars and practitioners study and develop leadership. In this roundtable discussion, of

particular interest to the discussants is the role discourses play in leadership development, such as the adult leadership program associated with the discussants' academic unit.

Background

The challenges communities face are changing, becoming more complex and requiring a greater reliance on interdependent work. To meet these challenges, the way in which leadership is approached is also changing (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). To explore the potential for leadership development programs to impact participants' leadership discourse, the authors of this roundtable proposal assessed one program's participants' leadership discourse preferences, as measured by the Western Indicator of Leadership Discourses (WILD; Western, 2013). They also investigated relationships between the WILD questionnaire findings, individual variables, and program practices. While the aspirations of the program are typical for adult leadership programs, there is a need to examine the underlying discourses that the program espouses and models (Kaufman, Rateau, Carter, & Strickland, 2012). It is worthwhile to explore the potential unseen impact these discourses have on our leadership programs and their outcomes.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Roundtable discussants will provide an overview of the leadership discourses, provide an example of their work in situating their leadership program within a discourse, and explore the following questions with participants:

1. How does each discourse relate to "The Courage to Lead"?
2. Which discourses do we espouse in our programs?
3. Which discourses do we actually model in our programs?
4. How can we better articulate each of the discourses and promote best practices?
5. How should, or could, the discourses influence the evaluation of our programs?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

This discussion will afford participants an opportunity to explore the four discourses advanced by Western (2013) and to better understand the role that the discourses play in leadership education and development. Participants will apply this information by identifying the primary discourse in which their leadership development program is situated, and discuss implications for practice. A better understanding of these discourses can help individuals make more informed decisions about their approach to leadership development.

Recommended Next Steps/Actions

Participants will be invited to complete the Western Indicator of Leadership Discourses (WILD) questionnaire and map their educational practices against their individual reports. They can then engage in more conscious and transparent approaches to their leadership education. Participants will explore ideas for advancing the research on leadership discourses. The discussants will invite input on their ongoing research and share questions that remain for further investigation.

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Relationship-Building in On-line P-12 Leadership Programs

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Introduction

Nearly every job description for P-12 leaders, at both the building level and the district level, call for people who are able to bring out the best in others and who can establish positive and respectful relationships with the board of trustees and members of the community. With the increasing movement of administrative preparation programs moving to on-line formats, the challenge becomes how to model and foster these essential leadership skills.

Our goals are for participants to:

1. Discuss the seven tenets of Ignatian education.
2. Discuss the five elements of the Ignatian pedagogical model.
3. Relate these principles to face-to-face instruction.
4. Discuss the complexities of meeting these ideals in on-line formats.
5. Generate potential new practices for meeting these ideals in on-line formats.

Background

Scholarly attention to leadership is exploding as researchers, practitioners, training programs, and educational institutions from the elementary to post-graduate levels all hone their focus on the domain, dynamics, and demands of leadership. As Northouse (2001) suggests, leadership is considered a "highly valued commodity" these days. To further address the importance of leadership Northouse (2010) goes on to state, "authentic leaders base their actions on their values" (p. 207). A phenomenon of the last two decades, *leadership studies* is an interdisciplinary field that brings together various theoretical and historical approaches to the study of the complexities of the leadership process (Rost, 1993; Sorenson, 2002). One of the best known of these paradigms, *transformational leadership*, concerns itself with values, ethics, professional practices, and the dignity of followers as full human beings.

Here, in the School of Education at Gonzaga University, we place ourselves in the transformational/values-based/servant leadership camp because we define leadership as engaging in behaviors that should be authentic and help foster positive human connections. We spend considerable time describing and practicing these transformational leadership behaviors, especially those of helping P-12 school administrative interns develop positive human connections with their students, their colleagues, parents, and other community members. We use these transformational leadership behaviors to help our administrative interns and other graduate students understand, define, and re-define their own leadership behaviors and to recognize the implications of their actions.

Our philosophy of leadership is connected to our commitment to social justice – as presented in the Seven Tenets of Ignatian Education. Our concern for social justice requires that we teach and model leadership as an integration of scholarship, personal growth, and commitment to service.

At Gonzaga University, in Spokane, Washington, which is a Catholic, Jesuit university, our Mission Statement (2013) charges us with modeling and expecting excellence in academic and professional pursuits. We do this through our adherence to the Seven Tenets Of Ignatian Education: Cura Personalis, Discernment, Finding God in All Things, Jesuit-lay collaboration, Magis, The Service of Faith and Promotion of Social Justice, and Women and Men for Others: Whole Persons of Solidarity for the Real World.

In addition to these seven tenets, we are called to teach through Ignatian Pedagogy. The Association of Jesuit Colleges and Universities explains Ignatian Pedagogy as follows:

"Jesuit education is a call to human excellence, to the fullest possible development of all human qualities. It is a call to critical thinking and disciplined studies, a call to develop the whole person, head and heart, intellect, and feelings. Jesuit education strives to give learners ongoing development of their imagination, feelings, conscience and intellect, and to encourage and help them recognize new experiences as opportunities to further growth. Learners see service to others as more self-fulfilling than personal success or prosperity. Jesuit education moves the learning experience beyond rote knowledge to the development of the more complex learning skills of understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation."
What one of us has done, in the effort to teach in accordance with the seven tenets and the Ignatian Pedagogical model, in our on-line leadership program, is to meet with each administrative advisee on a weekly basis either at their campus, in the office, via telephone, email, or Skype. During meetings, we discuss coursework, timelines, performance tasks, application processes, interviews, resumes, and conflicts in the field, problem solving techniques, personal goals, and other issues or challenges that arise. As the administrative interns move closer to the end of the program, I support each one through the paperwork process of completion and provide them connections for administrative job opportunities. They know that I am here to support them throughout the program and I make a concerted effort to meet with them right away and make myself available.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

We will make two 25-minute presentations during one roundtable session to highlight the issue, identify the set of ways we, at Gonzaga, are using to address, in this on-line program, the issue of fostering essential leadership skills (bringing out the best in others, developing positive and respectful relationships with trustees and members of the community), and to develop, through discussion, other potentially effective means of modeling and fostering these essential leadership skills.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Our task and our goal are to find ways to continue educating others for leadership, but in an on-line format. Foreseeable implications are that as a group of educators concerned with developing leaders for the P-12 world, we can generate potential new practices for meeting the ideals of Ignatian education in on-line formats.

Recommended next steps/actions

Jesuit education has been historically successful in many cultures because it is adaptable to the environment of the learner. Jesuit education is adaptable to many diverse learners - traditional age and adult, full-time and part-time, on-campus and on-line. We can expect Jesuit education to continue to adapt in appropriate ways to meet evolving needs. Our task and our goal are to find ways to continue educating others for leadership, but in an on-line format. Next steps and actions are to generate additional ideas about effective ways to do this, to try those ideas, and to share the results of those efforts through future conference presentations and publications.

A Discussion on Growth for ALE

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Abstract

This roundtable will serve as a brainstorming session led by the Association of Leadership Educators Resource Development Committee regarding the potential for adding regionally-based chapters to the association. The roundtable will focus on the discussion of benefits, the opportunities for members, and the logistics of creating this structure. Participants will have the opportunity to provide ideas and feedback on this potential project for the association.

Introduction

Due to the growth and continued interest in the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE), the Resource Development (RDC) for the Association has been asking ourselves—"what's next?" An idea that was revisited after it came up during focus groups held at the 2014 annual conference in San Antonio, is to create regional chapters, or local groups within the association to allow for members to connect with those close in proximity to one another. The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to measure the interest of members in creating these regional chapters and what this would mean for the association. What would the benefits of the chapters be? What purpose would they serve? What types of programs, meetings, or events would happen in the local regions? What would this mean for leadership opportunities for members and the required involvement by members? All of these questions will be addressed and discussed in this roundtable discussion. We hope participants will gain a further understanding of the association as it currently is structured, the goals of the RDC, and what the possibility of this endeavor would mean for the association. We also hope participants will leave feeling energized and excited about the future of ALE, and hopefully feel they were able to be a part of the planning process.

Background

While many other associations and professional organizations offer structured regional chapters or districts, ALE does not currently have this structure within the association. According to the vision statement of ALE, a goal of the organization is to "bridge between research and practice in Leadership Education through an inclusive and engaging community of dynamic leadership educators, committed to consistently growing, thriving, and advancing the field of Leadership Education" (Association of Leadership Educators, n.d., "About ALE"). The RDC is charged with finding new ways to build partnerships and create resources for the membership. One way of working towards this goal is to create regionally-based chapters within the association to allow for members to connect throughout the year. This will allow members to continue to build community throughout the year, which would enhance the membership experience, allow for continuation of discussions on Leadership Education and resource sharing, as well as motivate members to be more involved in the association. The RDC has discussed this new opportunity for ALE, and wanted to bring the idea to the membership, and specifically those that already are engaged and attend the conference, to gain their perspective on this large endeavor.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

This roundtable will focus on discussion as we are seeking interest and ideas from members on the possibility of this new endeavor. One or two appointed RDC members will introduce the topic by providing resources and samples of the other organizations and professional associations' regional structures as examples of what this could look like for ALE. They will also start with an introduction of the association as is, and the purpose of the RDC. The following topics will also be discussed, after the literature, resources, and benchmark organizations are presented: benefits of regional chapters, process of creating regional chapters and the best means of doing so, what leadership and involvement opportunities this creates for members, the relationship between the ALE Board of Directors and the regional chapters and regional leadership teams, and the financial aspect of this project (what it will cost and what income we potentially could receive). We also plan to ask the participants about their experience in other organizations, whether or not these organizations have regional chapters available, and how this has affected their membership experience. We want this roundtable to be an open, fluid conversation that is designed to allow members of the Association to express ideas freely as we discuss this opportunity for growth. We plan to lead this as a brainstorming session, in which we hope to set the tone for active discussion and idea sharing through fluid conversation. Ideas will be captured on paper for further development.

Implications

The possibility of adding regional chapters is a huge step for ALE, meaning it would have important implications not only for the organization, but also for the leadership community. This would push the association forward, and hopefully gain interest of professionals and faculty members who are not currently members. Adding these opportunities for leadership educators to connect with other leadership educators on a local level, may allow for more people to participate at a lower cost to them and their institution, than attending the national ALE conference. This would assist ALE in its goal of "setting the standard for leadership education"

(Association of Leadership Educators, n.d., "About ALE"). Adding regional chapters for members to participate in will put ALE in a different bracket of leadership educator organizations. We hope that this will gain interest of non-members, as well as re-energize current members to participate more frequently throughout the year, as well as take on potential leadership positions that might become available. The RDC realizes that in order for this to be successful, we need strong buy-in from our membership.

Recommended Next Steps

The roundtable discussion will serve as Phase Two in a process including more research, more assessments, and dedicated involvement from members outside the RDC. We hope this is a continuing conversation and project over the next few years, as the Association looks to grow and develop to increase membership, increase current member involvement, and create more financial resources to assist with other projects including providing webinars for members, scholarships for members to attend the conference, and partnerships with other organizations. We hope this roundtable serves as an introduction to the idea to members, and with the receipt of positive feedback and a productive brainstorming session, a beginning to the process of adding regional chapters to the Association of Leadership Educators.

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Discussing the Unique Writing Needs of Scholar Practitioners: Tools, Strategies, and Ideas

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Abstract

This roundtable discussion will explore scholar practitioner students' challenges to scholarly writing. Through active conversation, participants will identify student barriers to scholarly writing, and discuss potential solutions to these writing concerns. The facilitator will also introduce a tested model of instruction and teaching strategies designed for scholar practitioners in an online doctoral leadership program.

Introduction

Scholar practitioners offer a wide breadth and depth of knowledge, and applied skills to the academic community and the students' respective fields. Although these students have a wealth of applied experience and capacity for graduate education, many scholar practitioner students lack the writing skills necessary for doctoral level scholarly work. As leadership educators, it is our duty to train these seasoned professionals to articulate their work through a scholarly style of writing.

The goal of this roundtable is to explore the practical, perceived, and emotional challenges that scholar practitioner students experience in doctoral leadership education and to discuss potential solutions to meet these students' unique writing needs. The goals of this interactive roundtable discussion are:

1. To facilitate a conversation about the common writing challenges scholar practitioners face in graduate leadership programs;
2. To identify practical solutions to the writing challenges scholar practitioner students experience;
3. To introduce a tested model of instruction and teaching strategies designed for graduate student scholar practitioners in an online leadership program.

Background

Doctoral education in the United States has experienced a profound shift over the last several decades and one of the results has been a surge in novel graduate program initiatives and a mainstream acceptance of the scholar practitioner model of doctoral study (Boud & Tennant, 2006; Boyer, 1990). Consequently, graduate leadership programs have the opportunity and obligation to train industry leaders how to apply theoretical and academic knowledge to their respective fields of practice. Along with this obligation comes the responsibility to equip these students to effectively communicate this knowledge through scholarly writing.

A rich body of research tells us how to improve student writing and research suggests that students need to write frequently and receive constructive feedback about their writing (Beaufort,

2007; Granello, 2001; Harris, 2006). However, what is not yet known is how best to apply these practices to a scholar practitioner centered doctoral leadership program to help students write in a scholarly tone.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The roundtable conversation will include a facilitator-led discussion, centered on the following questions:

- Think back to your experience as a graduate student. What writing challenges and fears did you face? How and through what mechanisms (writing courses, mentorship, etc.) did your writing improve?
- In your experience, what are some of the writing challenges that scholar practitioner students experience? What have you or your program done to address these challenges?

The facilitator will then share a model of an online, eight-week writing course that a doctoral interdisciplinary leadership program developed and implemented to addresses some of the concerns that faculty and scholar practitioner students have identified. The facilitator will give special attention to the unique needs of scholar practitioner students and how an instructor can best meet these needs through effective teaching strategies.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The scholar practitioner is qualitatively different than the typical undergraduate or nontraditional adult learner (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2012). For this reason, leadership educators must consider how best to inspire and lead these students through scholarly writing training. The aim of this roundtable is to encourage instructors to have the courage to modify traditional and ineffective writing coursework to embrace an approach steeped in mentorship, concerted iterative practice, and the advancement of a student's writing goals through positive and constructive feedback.

This roundtable conversation will also equip participants with talking points, tangible tools, and teaching strategies the participants may use to modify the writing curriculum at their own institutions. The facilitator is encouraged by Boyer (1991) and others' belief that scholarship is a dynamic process of discovery *and* application. As leadership educators, we have the opportunity to help our students communicate effectively within the academic arena, but also more effectively apply their knowledge to their field of practice. This roundtable conversation serves as an introduction about how best to accomplish these goals.

Recommended Next Steps

It is our job, as leadership educators, to encourage and train our students to communicate their practical experiences through scholarly writing. One logical next step in this endeavor is to conduct scholarship of teaching research about best practice models for scholar practitioner students. The field is ripe for research about how best to serve this increasingly present population in doctoral leadership programs nationwide (Glassick, Huber, & Maeroff, 1997).

The facilitator also intends to integrate the feedback from roundtable discussions to craft a best practice model for scholar practitioner writing education at the doctoral level to share as an educator workshop or research paper at a future Association of Leadership Educator Conference.

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Emerging Adults and the Leadership Shift: What Millennials Have to Say about Building Effective Teams

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Abstract

This session will discuss qualitative research surrounding a subgroup of the Millennials and what they value in regards to teams and team leadership. As the need for people to function well on teams continues to increase, the collaboration generation has much to offer but what is it they really value and how are teams going to need to change?

Introduction

The discussion will include current doctoral research around the topic of Millennials and their perceptions of their own experiences in teams. The insights of this research will lead participants to deeper understanding of the skills, mindsets, and attitudes the Millennials already possess regarding group process and membership as well as the type of leadership Millennials offer and desire when working in a team setting. Organizations will be able to gain understanding into how Millennials are equipped for the changes occurring in today's economy as well as how Millennials need to be further equipped to withstand the challenges that await them as they seek to become a successful team member or leader of a team.

Background

Research is heavy in the area of individual leadership development and program effectiveness, but in a collective sense, the research is lacking (Dugan 2011). Collective action is an essential part of today's society (Latane, Williams, & Harkins 2006). The necessity of teamwork is on the rise. The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, an organization devoted to preparing every student for the 21st century, understands this and lists collaboration as one of the needed skills for success (The Partnership for 21st Century Skills 2011).

In the National Association of Colleges and Employers Job Outlook 2012 Survey, 79.8% of employers ranked the "ability to work in a team" number one as the attribute they look for on a prospective hire's resume (NACE 2012). The need to work well with others and the need to be able to lead in order to bring value to an organization continues to increase in importance. Research on team leadership is becoming one of the fastest growing areas in leadership theory (Kogler Hill 2013). Ineffective leadership is one of the main reasons that teams fail (Stewart & Manz 1995). Not only are the skills necessary but researchers are continually trying to figure out how to do it with greater precision.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Each participant in this study was asked to share a metaphor about how they would describe their ideal team experience. Permaculture was a metaphor that was shared with powerful implications

on how this group of students views an ideal team. There also appears to be some shifts in how quality leadership is viewed. Discussion will be engaged around several metaphors including permaculture, shepherding, salads, and hallways. Questions that are knowledge-based around Millennials, teams, and leadership will be asked. Reflection and personal understanding from both the facilitator and the participants will also be added to enhance the conversation.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Goals of organizations are changing which means that work environments are evolving. Organizations are realizing the need to be more flexible while jobs are becoming increasingly more interdependent and complex (Levi 2014). With 76 million Millennials either already in the workforce or joining in the next several years, it seems imperative to step back and look at the strengths brought forth by the "collaboration" generation (Lancaster & Stillman 2010). Organizational thought would be amiss to not only capitalize on strong team performance in the most efficient way possible but also to build on any strengths already present in the Millennial generation toward that end. This discussion will hopefully build better leaders today so the world can be a better place tomorrow.

Recommended next steps/Actions

This discussion offers a platform for the postgraduate environment to take a deeper look at how both the university and the postgraduate environment are engaging, training, and empowering the Millennial generation. Next steps include assessment of current training gaps as well as implementation of greater engagement both inside the university structure and within the work environment. There is also a necessity of building bridges across generations so misunderstandings can turn into positive conversations around strengths found within each generation.

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Exploring Leadership Educator Professional Identity Development

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Introduction

A great deal of literature exists *for* leadership educators related to programs design, delivery, and student learning. However, little is known *about* leadership educators, who have largely been left out of contemporary leadership education research. The purpose of this roundtable is to invite conversation and feedback around a proposed model of leadership educator professional identity development.

Past focus groups exploring leadership educator professional development revealed that while there is certainly a need to help educators learn how to *do* leadership education (e.g., content knowledge, teaching & learning, curriculum & program design, assessment & evaluation), there is also a need to create spaces and opportunities to share and celebrate diverse stories of our experiences. These are not simply strategies for best practice; they are shapers of professional identity. Our goal is to open up a space for discussion in order provide connections and support to retain and develop the identities and capacities of the leadership educators.

Background

Professional identity is both a matter of self-perception and legitimization by others (Sutherland, Howard, & Markauskaite, 2010) and is a factor of the individual's position within society, interactions with other people, and how the individual interprets those experiences (Gee, 2000). We will share a model that describes leadership educator identity as a developmental process, acknowledging the importance of validating the experiences and emotions of individuals as they occupy and/or move through identity spaces.

- **Exploration** - the space in which an individual explores if, and to what extent, he or she might take on the professional identity of leadership educator.
- **Experimentation -** Experimentation is the space in which one tries on multiple versions of him or herself as a leadership educator. This may involve imitating those more experienced in the field and then selects what he or she considers to be best practices, which ultimately leads to the beginning of the construction of one's professional identity (Ibarra, 1999).
- **Validation -** Entering the Validation space requires having one's professional identity as a leadership educator validated by oneself and others with that identity.
- **Confirmation -** Within the Confirmation space, an individual has attained full membership within a leadership education community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The model suggest that individuals move forward and backwards through these identity spaces as a result of the impact of both ongoing influences as well as positive and negative critical incidents. There are several different types of critical incidents that can occur that might impact

one's professional identity formation. These include incidents that challenge or reinforce commitment, congruence, credibility, and competence as well as create conflict.

If we assume that leadership is taught and learned as educators and students engage together in leadership processes (Ganz & Lin, 2012; Posner, 2009), then we must acknowledge that leadership educators hold in tension dual roles of teacher and leader. In terms of identity development, the intersection of these roles is complicated: being a teacher is a profession, while being a leader is a role that one can take on within multiple professional contexts. Recognizing this tension is critical in understanding leadership educator professional identity; whether a leadership educator identifies as a leader could impact how they see themselves as an educator of leadership.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

We will share an overview of the proposed model, along with key questions to help participants consider their own leadership education journey, the current space they occupy, and how they might move towards the confirmation space. Potential questions for discussion include:

- How do I describe my leadership education identity? How do my values, beliefs, and styles fit with my own and others' perception of this identity?
- Who have been my role models and how have they influenced various components of my own values, beliefs and style?
- What "counts" as leadership education? Who validates my identity? What do I need to do to demonstrate this identity or prove this identity?
- How will I know when I am confirmed? What are the expectations of me as a confirmed member of this professional identity community?
- What are some critical moments that have shaped my identity?
- How do I experience the tensions of being an educator-leader or leader-educator?

Implications & Next Steps

"It takes courage to start a conversation." – Meg Wheatley

This session supports the conference theme by inviting participants to boldly consider their own identities, as well as explore the exciting possibilities of research and practice around leadership educator identity. Exploring identity through a process-oriented lens can illuminate personal challenges, areas of strength, and future goals. The implication of the process, is that we are moving towards "confirmation" as leadership educators. If one is valued and confirmed by the field of practice, he or she may have more competence and confidence to effectively educate others leading to potentially more sophisticated teaching. In addition, the Confirmation space is one of full inclusion where one's opinion and voice are valued in the profession; a place of support. We anticipate this roundtable to provide participants an opportunity to share stories and experiences, as well as connect with other professionals while exploring their own identity process. Opportunities to continue these connections and make recommendations for continued support will be discussed.

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Complex New Choices in Teaching Leadership Online: Challenges & Resources to Optimize Student Engagement

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Abstract

Teaching leadership online is entering a new phase of choices in instructional materials. Learning management systems offer more tools and publishers are offering resources (e.g. "Smartbooks") with embedded learner analytics, "guaranteeing" learner engagement. In this roundtable we will share the pros/cons of adopting these new content materials, and hopefully establish an ongoing community of inquiry concerning their use.

Background

For so many teaching leadership is about showing, it's about experiencing, it's about examples and hands-on. To establish this level of interaction is difficult enough in a face-to-face class, but establishing it online is yet another level of complexity in online class design and delivery. Leadership educators must meet this challenge given the pressure to teach online has increased at most universities.

There is little research in the Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE) regarding teaching leadership online. Examining an article that reviewed article themes from 2002-2006 in JOLE there was only mention of one article where technology was the primary theme (Edgar, et al., 2009). A subsequent search since 2006 reveals only a handful or articles about online leadership education.

In an article by Wisniewski (2010) and another by Saks (2009) the changing landscape of college teaching and college students is discussed. As the millennials fill our campuses the focus becomes teaching them in ways that appeal to their digital upbringing (Wisniewski, 2010). This includes incorporating technology into on-campus classroom teaching such as Gifford (2010) did with blogs, but also developing fully online leadership education courses. It is not only millennials who are enrolling in online courses of all types. Quickly changing technologies have created a need for workers (and therefore graduates) able to continually learn and adapt (National Research Center for CTE, 2010). The numbers of students enrolling in online classes is increasing and accelerating quickly. "Given this trend, it is essential for those who teach leadership to find ways to best deliver their curricula in an online format in order to continue to reach this evolving market" (Saks, 2009, p. 137). Schwarz McCotter (2008) emphasizes the need to establish a community of learners no matter what delivery mode is utilized in leadership courses.

Looking beyond JOLE there is a vast literature on teaching online, but little of it specifically addresses teaching leadership. In Phelps' (2012) consideration of teaching leadership, she reviews a number of tools available and concludes that it is critical to not just add technologies for technology sake but to be sure that the tools you choose match the content you are trying to convey. She also cautions that even though many of our students are now "digital natives", technology use in an online teaching environment is still limited by students true understanding of how to use the technologies and instructors need to be mindful of these limitations.

The broader literature and research on efficacy in online teaching continues to return to the seminal theme in online teaching that interactions must be rigorous and robust based on learner/content interaction, student/student interaction and instructor/student interaction. This basic framework, first introduced by Moore (1989) and developed by many others (Friesen & Kuskis, 2013), needs to be the first consideration of any teacher beginning to design an online class. Much of the research concerning online learning focuses on how to best establish a sense of community or "community of inquiry" in the online classroom (Garrison & Akyol, 2013), and how the instructor can promote their "presence" so that students feel that bond. Recent work (Dixson, 2010; Kranzow, 2013) continues to highlight the need for creating an atmosphere where online learners feel engagement with their fellow students and especially with the Instructor, and how faculty can design such features in to their online classes.

The literature on content in online courses has been the subject of less study than the interaction features. As leadership educators, however, we engage quite readily, both through JOLE and at the ALE annual conference in pedagogical materials and their use. Harris, Bruce and Jones' (2011) study of the most widely used leadership education textbooks needs a new relook, where we entertain and review *ebooks*, *Smartbooks*, *Connect* and the myriad of other *e*Learning options that textbook publishers are now offering.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The facilitators of this Roundtable will begin the discussion of this topic by demonstrating selected current options in *e*books and *e*Learning tools. They will also provide a listing of such content currently being marketed by commonly used leadership textbook publishers. They will offer short critiques of these tools based on their extensive experience as both leadership educators and instructional designers. Following this short presentation, roundtable participants will engage in what their experiences have been with these or other relevant materials. We also hope graduate students participate and can share what their experiences have been on the student side of these newer *e*Learning materials. The facilitators will gather email addresses of the participants at both roundtable sessions, and gauge interest for an ongoing listserv discussion around this topic.

Roundtable Learning Objectives:

- Roundtable participants will understand at least three new *e*Learning resources available in the current leadership education market.
- Roundtable participants will gain an emerging network of fellow leadership educators they can draw on to critique and share pros/cons of adopting *e*Learning materials.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion & Action Steps

Leadership educators in increasing numbers are offering courses online. Some have been teaching online for many years, others have been scared to jump in. All leadership educators need the courage to confront and embrace the digital environment. For leadership educators optimizing learner engagement and interaction continues to be the key ingredient of a successful leadership class. Choosing the tools to design and deliver leadership courses online is further complicated by "enticing" publisher products that promise improved student learning. For even the experienced online leadership educator, the changing landscape of content tools is daunting. This roundtable will begin to answer the critical question of which of these tools to adopt, and hopefully start an ongoing community of inquiry around the topic.

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Courage And The Shadow Side of Leadership

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Abstract

"*There is no light without shadow and no psychic wholeness without imperfection. To round itself out, life calls not for perfection but for completeness; and for this the "thorn in the flesh" is needed, the suffering of defects without which there is no progress and no ascent*." ~ C. G. Jung

Most of the work in leadership education examines and works to develop the attributes and positive qualities (light) of successful leadership. Yet, little attention is paid to the shadow aspects that contribute to a "whole" leader. Study related to contributions the shadow (or dark) aspects of leadership play in success (or failure) is limited. This session is meant to open a conversation about leadership's shadow side as an area of leadership study and teaching.

Introduction

"*…We as a society tend to glamorize leadership almost making it seem easy to navigate. It's important to study things that go well, but conversely to study leadership that went awry and to recognize what went wrong with their leadership…. It is so important for people to learn how to be a leader, but it is also important for a leader to know what to watch out for within their leadership circles…."* – MBA student, University of Indianapolis

When a search is conducted on the dark or shadow aspects of leadership, very little scholarly work can be found outside of Conger in 1990, and more recently Kellerman in 2004 and Lipman-Blumen in 2006. Most articles found on the topic are anecdotal and do little to empirically define the traits or practices that contribute to a leader's challenges (http://tinyurl.com/nhmmjrk). Much of leadership development work involves finding one's strengths, preferences, and mastered skills. How much time and attention is paid to the darker aspects of leadership in the teaching of leadership?

This session is designed to be a conversation among colleagues about the topic. What is known will be shared. Participants will be asked for input and to identify possible gaps or areas that need additional research. It is also anticipated that discussion will include rationale and how this kind of knowledge could be included in on-going leadership development and education.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Based on small sampling of MBA students' responses, it is conceivable this topic has potential to bring a new facet to the work of leadership educators. Most people do not like to embrace the darker sides of their skills, motivation, and leadership abilities. In the spirit of the conference themes, it takes great courage to acknowledge, study, and address the shadow side that each of us as humans have. It's thought that this could be the beginning of a more prolonged and deeper exploration of the "yang" to leadership's "yin".

Recommended next steps/Actions

Extensive notes will be taken during the session. It is foreseen that the following items could be generated from this/these conversations:

- Beginning elements of a research/study framework
- Ideas for additional research
- Identification of potential collaborators for more study/development
- Tips/ideas for inclusion of this aspect of leadership into on-going programs and courses
- Publication of the previous items in J.O.L.E., the ALE newsletter, and other appropriate leadership/scholarship outlets.

Infusing Intercultural Competence Across Leadership Education

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Abstract

Intercultural competence is an increasingly important tool for navigating the complex collegiate, communal, and global environments. While students interact and engage with diverse populations across leadership education, it is imperative that educators understand, espouse, and infuse the pillars of intercultural competence across the landscape to enhance students' meaning making and self- authorship.

Introduction

Fundamentally, this roundtable seeks to generate scholastic, practice-oriented dialogue around the importance, implementation, and implications of intercultural competency development across leadership education, both in academic and co-curricular learning experiences. The facilitators will lead a discussion exploring innovative strategies used by attendees to develop both intercultural sensitivity and intercultural maturity in student leaders and foster socially just, individual ethical action and lifelong learning. Furthermore, the roundtable is intended to serve as an opportunity for leadership educators—form all disciplinary, functional, academic backgrounds—to discuss the importance of intercultural competence and its role in their student development and leadership education programs. This experience also allows for seminal scholars and seasoned professionals to share the best practices for success in effective leadership education with intercultural sensitivity and maturity in mind.

Background

Bennett's (2004) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) and King and Baxter Magolda's (2005) developmental model of intercultural maturity can assist leadership educators in understanding cultural differences, the vitality of intercultural competence, and pragmatic opportunities for infusing intercultural competency development across academic and co-curricular experiences.

Bennett's (2004) DMIS provides guidance for how to understand cultural differences. His model posits that individuals interact with different cultures on a continuum from an ethnocentric view of culture (denial, defense against, minimization of) to an ethno-relative (acceptance of, adaptation to, and integration with) view. As one progresses on the continuum, intercultural competency increases. Thus, according to Bennett, achievement of greater understanding of, and

the ability to maneuver through, cultural differences can be realized by having a more ethno-relative level of intercultural competence. King and Baxter Magolda (2005) assert that intercultural maturity is related to one's developmental capacity in the cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal domains of development. In their developmental model of intercultural maturity, they state that such maturity necessitates comprehensive understanding of cultural differences (cognitive dimension), the ability to embrace cultural differences without feeling threatened (intrapersonal dimension), and the capacity to work interdependently among those who are different (interpersonal dimension). The facilitators are currently infusing these theoretical frames into the development of a self-paced, online curriculum that accompanies the student life positional leadership experience credit hours. With this program, the facilitators seek to promote dialogue amongst leadership educators about similarly innovative delivery methods that can yield increasing complexity in the cognitive domain of development (King & Baxter Magolda) and helps facilitate movement from an ethnocentric to ethno-relative approach to understanding and collaboration (Bennett).

With these foundational theories and perspectives in mind, the main objectives of this roundtable are to: 1) Provide participants with a solid foundation of the empiric and rigorously tested notion of intercultural competence; 2) Identify salient and actionable methods for infusing intercultural competency development across academic and co-curricular experiences; 3) Engage in dialogue regarding the role of leadership education in the development of intercultural competence; 4) Discuss the implications of intercultural competency attainment across institutional, communal, and global settings; 5) Examine assessment tools and theoretical models for better understanding intercultural competence; and 6) Provide a scholastic, theory-drive, and practice-based opportunity for leadership educators to discuss experiences and share best- practices for intercultural competency development in leadership education.

Engagement

After initially and concisely reviewing foundational documents on intercultural competence, the role of competency development in student development, and the developmental stages of student leadership (specifically, meaning-making and self-authorship) to frame the discussion, the facilitators will engage attendees in a dialogue regarding personal experiences, challenges, and critiques of leadership education as it pertains to intercultural competence, sensitivity, and maturity

Implications and Recommendations

This roundtable holds extensive implications for future scholarship and practice. Specifically, this opportunity seeks to establish and maintain an ongoing scholar-practitioner workgroup to continue engaging in important dialogues, empiric investigations, and practical applications of intercultural competency development across leadership education. This roundtable also allows for educators to develop consistent and relative learning outcomes and assessment models and methodologies best suited for intercultural competency development. Finally, this roundtable may serve as the first and principally unique opportunity for leadership educators to engage with a nuanced, yet important, topic in leadership education with grave and broad-based implications for leadership development.

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Building Intercultural Leadership: Addressing Stereotypes, Prejudice, Discrimination, Racism and Ethnocentrism in Leadership Education

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Abstract

As the dynamics of globalization increase the interactions of people from around the world, it is imperative that leadership educators address difference and cultivate students who have the ability to communicate effectively across cultures. Addressing gender, race, class, and culture to understand stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination, racism and ethnocentrism within the leadership context can assist in transforming future leaders.

Introduction

Cross-cultural interactions are not new; however, with domestic social dynamics in flux and societies in the world becoming increasingly accessible, the need for intercultural leadership is clearly relevant. Irving (2010) asserts that globalization necessitates leaders that have global perspectives and intercultural competence. Although one's perspectives may change from experience with different people and cultures, what can leadership educators do to facilitate intercultural leadership?

By addressing barriers to intercultural communication, leadership students can begin to explore their biases and be more open to other's perspectives. Examining, on a general level, the barriers to intercultural communication is a way in which to approach effective and appropriate communication across cultures (Jandt, 2016). Although barriers extend beyond stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination, racism, and ethnocentrism, these concepts are paramount for approaching work that involves people and communities different from ones own. By weaving these topics into leadership education, students will be able to develop their intercultural competence. The participants' objectives will be to: (1) understand how intercultural communication impacts leadership effectiveness; (2) identify how stereotypes, biases, prejudice, racism and ethnocentrism influence leading diverse groups; and (3) discuss strategies to address cultural diversity in leadership contexts.

Background

Collard (2007) argues that leaders must be reflective learners who can navigate complex and dynamic cultural realities. This type of navigation requires understanding different frames of reference and the ability to enter into dialogue with those from diverse cultural backgrounds. Anglo-American perspectives have long since dominated educational leadership discourse, which excludes the cultural diversity that characterizes the world today (Collard, 2007). The acquisition of intercultural competence, which Davis and Cho (2005) defined as the capacity to change one's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors so as to be open and flexible to other cultures, challenges educators to address ethnocentrism and facilitate students' reflection of their biases. An open mind is key to the intercultural learning process as it allows students to approach a new

situation in a positive way and then adapt the different culture into their existing schema (Davis et al, 2005). Understanding the fundamental human tendencies to categorize and its outcomes (in regards to stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination, racism, and ethnocentrism), allows for intercultural learning as students are guided to reflect on how this has impacted their worldview.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The discussion will begin by asking participants about how they define cultural diversity, intercultural communication, and intercultural leadership. These definitions will aid in giving participants common ground for dialogue. The facilitators will then address the barriers to intercultural communication and how this can impact leadership. The discussion on barriers will link how stereotypes, biases, prejudice, racism and ethnocentrism can impact one's intercultural sensitivity. Participants will then be asked for examples of how this can influence the way we lead. The discussion will be concluded by asking participants how they currently incorporate or plan to incorporate intercultural communication curriculum into their courses or as opportunities for faculty development.

Foreseeable Implications for Discussion

Discussing the importance of intercultural leadership can change the way we, as leadership educators, prepare students in their future endeavors. Educating students on how to navigate intercultural situations requires them to be able to engage in self-reflection, challenge their own beliefs and those of the people they work with, and to finally to have the courage to talk about sensitive subjects. Being a leader is not always easy. In order to have the courage to lead, students and faculty alike, must feel confident in their abilities. Learning about cultural diversity, intercultural communication, and how it can impact their ability to lead across cultures, will help them build this confidence.

Recommended Next Steps/Action

Barriers to intercultural communication extend beyond the roundtable discussion topic. Understanding the fluid nature of culture and how to navigate difference is an ongoing process. There are various ways to address cultural diversity including case studies, guest speakers, workshops, study abroad, and service learning. Being purposive in including cultural aspects to leadership education essential to furthering the development of the intercultural learner, leader, and follower.

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Teaching Change Management to Health Care Leadership Students Using a New Developed Case Model Approach

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Abstract

There is substantial evidence to suggest that teaching change management to health care leadership students is a difficult process based on the abstract, cognitive skills required to comprehend a large set of complex variables and factors that may affect a particular change situation. This roundtable will provide a forum to discuss and explore a newly created change management model used to teach change management to health care leadership students.

Introduction

Understanding the various factors that affect leadership decisions in a health care setting is an integral aspect and contributing factor of leadership development and career success of health care leaders. Teaching new methods of change management may have a significant impact on their leadership development, given the essence of and operational constraints on today's health care leaders. Utilizing a new case study methodology, students may gain a unique perspective on change management and leadership development as it relates to the ever-changing health care industry.

Teaching change management, specifically the various theories and models, presents some unique challenges in the health care industry. Most undergraduate health care leadership students have never spent time in a health care leadership role and therefore do not understand the pressures that come with creating change in a highly volatile health care facility.

A case management approach to understanding the various factors allows students the opportunity to more fully explore the many facets of change management from a leadership perspective. The "Strategic Change Leadership Molecule" is a newly created leadership change management model used to teach students the importance of stakeholder perspective when dealing with change management in a health care setting.

Background

Successful implementation of a major change initiative requires a specific leadership skill set and organizational commitment (Allen, 2011). The first step to implementing any change within a health care organization is to analyze the organizational units that will be affected by the change from the inside out for the purpose of understanding the specific strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of success of the planned change (Carazzini, K. et.al., 2014). German-American psychologist, Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) was one of the first to study the concept of

organizational development and change. Lewin's force field analysis (unfreeze, change, re-freeze) theory provides a framework for understanding the forces that assist change (helping forces) or those that block change (hindering forces). In the last 20 years, his theory has been subject to criticism due to the foundation on which his theory was designed, most notably the assumption that organizations operate in a stable state (Burnes, 2004). Nevertheless, the basics of his theory are applicable in many health care facilities today. Operating in a "stable state" is not the norm for most health care providers. To create successful change, health care organizations must do more than recognize the forces that help or hinder change; they must also initiate a successful culture change to fully ingrain the change initiative into the very essence of the organization.

A facility's culture can be defined as "both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interactions with others and shaped by leadership behavior, and a set of structures, routines, rules and norms that guide and constrain behavior. (Schein, 2004, p.1). Several studies have been conducted showing the benefits of changing the culture of a facility to successfully implement a new initiative (Holl, et.al., 2013; Shield, et.al., 2013; Miller, et.al., 2014).

Successful culture change can address a variety of organizational change issues in health care facilities including overall quality improvement and more specific issues including but not limited to inappropriate use of medications, impoverished facilities with consistent low-quality care and dissatisfaction among both residents and staff (Banaszak-Hall, et. al., 2013). Culture change can have many facets. It may include the changing of management philosophy that seeks to transform health care facilities from impersonal institutions into safe, caring communities (Lopez, 2006).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Using an "expert-led topic choice and discussion model", the goal of this roundtable session is to promote a general discussion of teaching change management using a new model that was predicated on Lewin's original force field theory and modified to account for the many factors affecting health care leaders in today's environment. This will be accomplished by having the group discuss the following questions/issues:

1) Introduction of the problem: Teaching the impact of change management theory on student learning using a case management model
2) Roundtable conversations will be used to generate qualitative themes to identify possible other areas of teaching change management and its impact on leadership development.
3) Key assumptions regarding the current learning environment and the limited time available for specific assignments will be discussed at the beginning of the session.
4) Participants will report back key themes generated from their discussions.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion & Recommended next steps/actions

Themes generated from this session will assist in the further identification and development of various methods to teach change management and diverse leadership pedagogy. We believe this program directly relates to this years conference theme, "THE COURAGE TO LEAD" because change management theory (and its role in leadership education) is critical to a students overall conceptual knowledge of leadership as well as offering them significant skills they can utilize in practice.

Dealing with significant change can be a daunting proposition for today's health care leader and this model may help offer them the "courage to lead". The implications for future change management curriculum and instructional design are evident and will be discussed.

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Examining outcomes assessment and evidence–based program improvements

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Abstract

Program assessment is needed to allow educators to develop and refine leadership education programs to meet student learning outcomes. The discussion at this roundtable will focus on that process and how a college–wide outcomes assessment can be used to make intentional decisions on department and college–level programs and curriculum.

Introduction and background

Reforms in higher education have led to a greater focus on student learning outcomes, including professional skill development, and the impact of experiences outside the classroom as learning opportunities [authors, 2012]. Leadership development is one of those outcomes and is included in the mission statements as well as student learning outcomes at many institutions of higher education (CAS, 2009). However, the operationalization as well as the assessment of these outcomes varies (Andenoro, et al., 2013).

The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, et al., 2013) identifies the need for leadership educators and administrators to increase the understanding of leadership program differences and develop an increased understanding of programmatic assessment processes and the implementation of assessment resources. While there are examples of recent work in assessment (Andenoro, et al., 2013), there is an overall lack of research and best–practices to facilitate evidence–based continuous improvement in leadership programs and curriculum (Goertzen, 2013).

The participants in this roundtable will:
1. Identify the similarities and differences in leadership programs/curriculums.
2. Examine the need to assess outcomes at department and college–levels.
3. Discuss assessment methods and procedures.
4. Explore the challenges of implementing student outcomes assessment.
5. Gain an understanding of how evidence–based decisions are being made on department as well as college–levels.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The learner outcomes listed above will be the outline for the discussion. Open–ended questions will be used to encourage participants to share their experiences about the outcomes. The facilitators have recently been a part of leadership outcomes assessment at both the department and college–levels and will provide examples to promote discussion. Possible collaborations will be discussed.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

As the Association for Leadership Educators celebrates 25 years, "we are celebrating the courage our founding members had to create this organization, as well as the courage that those who teach, practice and study leadership show today." This roundtable will provide an opportunity for participants to honor our tradition as we celebrate successes in leadership education. In addition, we will explore future collaborative opportunities as we examine ways to increase evidence–based improvements to our programs.

Recommended next steps/actions

Participants will gain insights into program similarities and differences and how assessments are used to make improvements to programs. These insights can be used as they return to their institutions and seek to develop or fine–tune programs to empower the leadership development of students. Intentional efforts will be made to develop possible collaborative relationships to increase inter–institution evaluation efforts.

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Strategies for Engaging Social Identity in Leadership Education

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Abstract

Leadership has an identity function because the social groups we belong to not only define us, but also exert influence over us. Leadership educators must understand the critical element social identity performs in the leadership process. Join in the discussion of practical strategies for engaging social identity in leadership education.

Introduction

"Identity is important typically because it grounds individuals in understanding who they are, what are their major goals and aspirations, and what are their personal strengths and challenges" (Day, Harrison, & Haplin, 2009, p. 400). Authors of the National Leadership Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013) recommended "leadership scholars and educators should more effectively center considerations of social identity in leadership research, education, and practice" (p. 19). Andenoro et al. (2013) discussed examining social identity in leadership pedagogy in particular and shared, "Considerations for the unique needs of varying social identity groups related to effective pedagogical approaches and educational interventions are necessary" (p. 19). Coupling that with Wagner (2013), who advised that we must "help students become conscious of aspects of their identity through a continual cycle of observation and reflection" (p. xxi), we are left asking ourselves how do we confront issues of identity development while simultaneously assisting in the development of these learners as leaders? If educators are not able to confront issues of social identity and are not able to expand the knowledge of students in this area, then the leadership growth of the student can be hindered. This roundtable intends to explore the intersection of social identity and leadership education.

Background

As leadership educators, we routinely ask learners to develop an understanding of themselves by exploring their strengths (and weaknesses), personality types, leadership styles, and even followership styles. All of these are situated social constructs. However, we must ask ourselves if we ever really ask them to clearly articulate their personal and social identities. The social identity theory of leadership posits that social identities play such a crucial role in the leadership

process, yet no model exists connecting the theory with identity development specifically in the context of leadership. Even without a model within our profession, educators can still look to counseling, student affairs programs, sociology, and other disciplines to aid us in engaging learners in this exploration of self and their communities they affiliate. This roundtable hopes to begin identifying possible strategies these diverse disciplines might offer or enhance the literature and practice of leadership educators.

The facilitators hope that this roundtable creates a case to engage the diversity of social identities that exist within our learning communities. Hurtado and colleagues (2003) noted that the higher education literature identifies several important elements linking diversity to student learning, including factors related to individual development and the environments within which students are educated. They also noted three themes that have emerged from hundreds of research studies that have explored these issues. Namely, their second of "…individuals who study and discuss issues related to race and ethnicity in their academic courses and interact with a diverse set of peers in college are better prepared for life in an increasingly complex and diverse society" (Milem, Chang, and Antonio, 2005, p. 13). As educators and scholars, we must be able to embrace identity development and expand others' knowledge of various identities.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

In order to better organize sharing during this roundtable, an introduction will be provided to participants outlining that the discussion will be organized around three central questions beginning with (1) what theory(ies), philosophy(ies) and model(s) might guide leadership educators' work around engaging social identities?; (2) with many social identities to engage, what is/are the most important within our profession?; and (3) what strategies have educators utilized to engage learners about social identities?

To aid discussion for each of these central questions, the facilitators will have a list of related materials, activities, references, websites, resources, strategies, etc. that if dialogue is lacking could be introduced for participants to consider and discuss. At the conclusion of the roundtable, these resource sheets will be distributed to ensure a takeaway.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Foreseeable implications and outcomes for the discussion include:

1. Identify theory(ies), philosophy(ies), and model(s) that may guide leadership educators' work around engaging social identities.
2. Discuss salient identities of which leadership educators ought to engage during the leadership process.
3. Aid leadership educators to integrate various strategies used by a myriad of disciplines to engage social identities in the leadership process.

Finally, if these social identities are engaged in a constructive, open and inclusive manner Hurtado and colleagues (2003) conclude it will help improve the climate of our organizations and intuitions.

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Leadership & the Experience Economy- Implications for Providing Experiences

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Abstract

Taylor (2006) tells us that today's students have consumer expectations. Leadership educators must examine the experiences they are providing, ensuring instructor and student expectations are met. Attend this roundtable and discuss the use of using the Experience Economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) as a framework for planning leadership experiences.

Introduction

Kolb described learning as, "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (1984, p. 38). Students entering higher education classrooms today enter with very different expectations for their learning. As Taylor (2006) noted, these students have consumer expectations while in college; believe that everything, including their education is supposed to be easy, entertaining, and fun; and demand comfort and luxury more than a rigorous education. Experience has thus become a key piece of student learning and success and leadership educators must make experiential education integral to the total curriculum.

Pine and Gilmore (1998) noted,
Economists have typically lumped experiences in with services, but experiences are a distinct economic offering, as different from services as services are from goods. Today we can identify and describe this fourth economic offering because consumers unquestionably desire experiences, and more and more businesses are responding by explicitly designing and promoting them. (p.97)
Clubs and organizations, conferences and seminars, volunteer experiences, and classroom curriculum are all pieces of the leadership education puzzle. Each of these distinct experiences plays a role in participant learning. The question, however, becomes is the way that we approach leadership education experiences giving our participations the most bang for their buck?

Background

Using the notion of Experience Economy described by Pine and Gilmore (1998), experiences can be sorted into four realms along the spectrum of two dimensions (see Figure 1). The experiences fall on a spectrum of participation, from passive to active participation. A lecture on leadership would fall more toward the passive end of the spectrum, where a role-playing activity would fall more toward the active participation end. The second spectrum relates how the learner receives the experience, similar to context. The learner either absorbs the experience, like reading a leadership textbook, or is

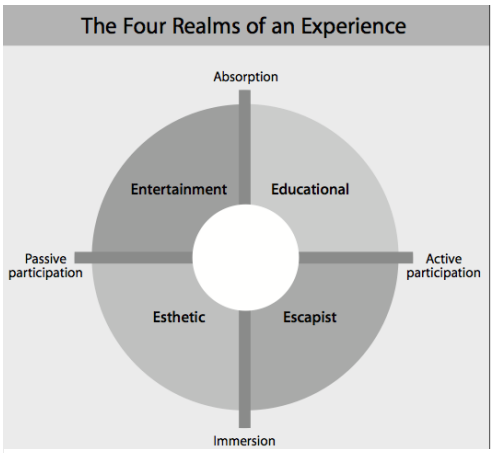

Figure 2: The four Realms of and Experience

immersed in the experience, like an experiential learning activity (Pine & Gilmore 1998). These researchers go further to tell us what leadership educators have long embraced—experiences are as "real" as any other commodity. However, key to the Pine and Gilmore (1998) paradigm is the notion that "to realize the full benefit of staging experiences, however, businesses must deliberately design engaging experiences that command a fee" (p. 98) They pose five key experience design principles: 1) Theme the experience, 2) Harmonize the experience with positive cues, 3) Eliminate negative cues, 4) Mix in memorabilia, and 5) Engage all five senses.

In the world of shrinking budgets and greater emphasis being put on the bottom line of education, we cannot deny the importance of recruiting happy clients (students) who continue to return to our programs. So what does this mean for leadership education?

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Participants in this roundtable will discuss current leadership education programs with which they are familiar attempting to identify where on the Realms of Experience they are providing learners with experiences. We pose the following questions:

1. Describe the kinds of experiences that you provide in your leadership programs.
2. How do you differentiate between the types of experiences you are offering?
3. Do you believe that a spectrum of experiences (e.g. Pine & Gilmore) is appropriate?
4. Do you use a variety of experiences (across the spectrum) in your work?
5. Do leadership educators, have an obligation to provide a spectrum of experiences? Why or why not?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The facilitators of this discussion hope for two outcomes. First is greater reflection employed when planning leadership education experiences. Second is an opportunity to collaborate with colleagues to develop a larger toolkit to plan greater numbers and types of meaningful experiences.

Recommended next steps/actions

Students today have been described as consumer oriented, entertainment oriented, and entitled (Taylor, 2006). This description has caused leadership educators to examine current delivery strategies for teaching leadership. Taylor (2006) noted,

> Any topic, class, or field that cannot demonstrate its utility and meaning to each student will be suspect…The ability of each instructor to articulate a rational for the necessity of their subject based on real world application is a necessary but not sufficient prerequisite for students to develop such necessary applications and subsequent value. Pedagogical activities must be available so each student can apply information to her/his own past, present, and future life. (p. 2:52)

Leadership educators can, and perhaps should, use the Four Realms of Experience model when selecting activities and teaching methods within the leadership education curriculum to ensure we are meeting not only the needs, but also the expectations of today's students.

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Exploring Quantum Leadership

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Abstract

Quantum leadership is a new area of inquiry on the progressive edge of leadership studies. New insights in quantum mechanics in the last 20 years indicate certain truths about reality that merit incorporation into leadership understanding and practice. This discussion will explore how relevant findings in quantum mechanics can inform leadership education and guide the development of the field.

Introduction

Quantum mechanics (also known as quantum physics, or quantum theory) is a fundamental branch of physics that, in many ways, both replaces and complicates Newtonian physics, or classical mechanics. It departs from classical mechanics primarily at the quantum realm of atomic and subatomic scales. Quantum mechanics provides a mathematical description of much of the dual particle-like and wave-like behavior and interactions of energy and matter. Quantum mechanics provides a substantially useful framework for many features of the modern periodic table of elements, including the behavior of atoms during chemical bonding, and has played a significant role in the development of many modern technologies.

Quantum leadership refers to the integration and application of current research in quantum physics with leadership theory and practice. Recent discoveries in quantum physics are now being understood in a way that illuminates new realities for human behavior and human potential in a way that could profoundly influence the field.

The concept of quantum leadership does not yet have clear parameters, and has been applied and understood in different ways in different fields, including health care and managerial leadership. As leadership educators, we have an opportunity and a responsibility to explore this new area of study and discover what usefulness it could bring to our own field.

Background

Porter-O'Grady and Malloch (2014) articulated how new understandings of reality gained through quantum physics research could be applied to reveal a new paradigm of leadership in healthcare. The first edition of their quantum leadership textbook for healthcare professionals was published in 2003, and has been influencing healthcare management for the past 10 years.

Their work links 20th century paradigms of organizational leadership and managerial structures directly to Newtonian physics, and points out the displacement of Newtonian physics by quantum theory in the last few decades. They further illuminate correlations between quantum theory and relationship-centered models of leadership, which have come to dominate leadership theory.

They emphasize that groups of people (organizations) are surprisingly complex structures that function as living, nonlinear, dynamic systems (Porter-O'Grady & Malloch, 2014). Interpersonal behavior illustrates quantum principles that don't lend themselves to observable phenomena. Knowing the nature of quantum principles allows us to use them to the advantage and benefit of all stakeholders, and to better position our leadership strategies for success.

In 2001, Shelton and Darling articulated the quantum skills model for the purpose of providing a new foundation for leadership in management (Shelton & Darling, 2001). The quantum skills model, which correlates individual theories in quantum mechanics to specific recommendations for leadership practice, includes 7 skill areas: quantum seeing: the ability to see intentionally; quantum thinking: the ability to think paradoxically; quantum feeling: the ability to feel vitally alive; quantum knowing: the ability to know intuitively; quantum acting: the ability to act responsibly; quantum trusting: the ability to trust life's process; and quantum being: the ability to be in relationship (Shelton & Darling, 2001).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The facilitator will provide definitions and background information materials in order to reach all participants, even those with no previous experience of quantum leadership. The learning environment will be open, exploratory and engaging. Discussion questions will be presented once introductory information is established, and group discussion and group formulation of recommendations for further research will comprise the activity of the session.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

A greater understanding of the connections between quantum theory and leadership paradigms can help advance the field of leadership education. If we can begin to understand how theories in both these fields influence each other, we can gain a greater understanding of the new places our own field is headed. These connections are already being explored in depth in other leadership studies disciplines, such as those in business and healthcare communities. Leadership education should join the discussion, to both benefit and contribute to this new branch of the field.

Recommended next steps/Actions

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to introduce and explore quantum leadership and relevant concepts and expand upon the ideas articulated in existing research to create recommendations for further research into the application of quantum leadership in leadership education.

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Inception: Assessing the State of Leadership Assessment

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Abstract

We continue to need to evaluate our assessment efforts to know what works, what does not, and how to improve. Come share collective wisdom in assessing leadership development. We will highlight current best practices, address challenges encountered, and discuss what is on the horizon in assessing leadership development.

Introduction

As our field matures we continue to need to evaluate our efforts to delineate both what works, what does not, and how to improve our efforts. Many leadership development programs are doing this. Owen reported that 79% of campus-based leadership education programs regularly engage in assessment of student learning (2012). Both the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013) and ILA's Guiding Questions (2010) directly discuss improving assessment efforts and this discussion contributes to these goals through highlighting best practices and discussing what is on the horizon.

First, the state of assessment in our field will be addressed. We will discuss our current roles and the regular assessments we conduct. Special emphasis will be on assessment practices that are transferrable to other programs. They will share tips, resources, and how they integrate the assessment results into practical improvements in leadership development.

Second, current challenges we encounter will be covered. We will ask how we conduct meaningful assessments with limited budgets and staffing. Rigorous assessment also requires addressing threats to validity and we will share how to handle issues like social-desirability bias.

Finally, we will discuss the future of assessing leadership development. We'll each share one assessment best practice that should be more widely used. We will also respond to what we see on the horizon with assessing leadership development in the next five to ten years. The closing question will focus on what the community of leadership educators can do cooperatively to advance assessment of leadership development.

Background on Assessment of Leadership Development

Institutions of higher education throughout the United States have increasingly added leadership education programs over the past two decades to develop college students' leadership skills (Dugan & Haber, 2007; Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, & Owen, 2009; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; LeaderShape Inc., 2008). These programs have been both curricular and non-curricular, and many are following current research as they focus on developing the student's self- and social-identity (Komives et al., 2009; National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs, 2010a). To guide the programs, frameworks like the Social Change Model of

Leadership are frequently used; this model emphasizes values of consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Higher Education Research Institute, 1996).

With this growth in leadership education, an emphasis has emerged in the literature on the difficulties of assessing these programs. Komives et al. (2009) wrote on the value of using the LID theory model in formative assessment to design programs.
However, Komives et al. warned against using the theory as an assessment tool to evaluate students. Rosch and Schwartz (2009) spoke to the sampling biases that are prevalent when gauging students' experiences, including: recency, response-shift, social desirability, and respondent biases. These articles will be foundational in our discussion of leadership development assessment.

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Questions Brainstorm List

- What assessment efforts do you regularly conduct?
- What resources/tips do you have for doing assessment?
- How do you integrate the results into practice?
- What can we be doing with existing resources to improve our assessment efforts?
- How do you handle self selection bias?
- Suggestions for addressing validity issues, including:
social-desirability bias, honeymoon effect, and post-test response shift?
- What's needed to move assessment forward?
- What do you see on the horizon for leadership assessment?
- Share one assessment best practice you recommend that’s not used widely enough.
- What can we do together to advance assessment efforts?