



Journal
of
Leadership Education

...is an international, refereed journal that serves scholars and professional practitioners engaged in leadership education.

...provides a forum for the development of the knowledge base and professional practice of leadership education world wide.

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The Journal of Leadership Education

The Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE) is the official publication of the Association of Leadership Educators. The purpose of JOLE is to provide a forum for development of the knowledge base and practice of leadership education. The journal is intended to promote a dialogue that engages both academics and practitioners. Thus, JOLE has a particular interest in applied research and it is the premise of JOLE that feedback between theory and practice tests both and makes each better. The journal provides several categories for submittals to promote diversity of discussion from a variety of authors.

The members and board of the Association of Leadership Educators became aware of the need for a journal about leadership education in the early 1990s. The challenge of educating people about leadership is particularly provocative, complex, and subtle. Other journals with leadership in the title focus primarily on defining and describing leadership, and journals concerning education seldom address the subject of leadership. Indeed, one common argument in society is that leadership is innate (you have it or you don't) and teaching leadership is difficult and often ineffective. This attitude is expressed, perhaps, in the dearth of leadership courses on our university campuses.

In this context, JOLE provides a means to test the hypothesis that leadership education is possible. Our journal sits at the nexus of education theory and practice and leadership theory and practice, and from this divide, this mountain pass, there is a need to look "both ways". Whether or not leadership education is a discipline of its own is unclear, at least at present. If nothing else, by looking both ways this journal hopes to provide a passageway between two disciplines, enriching both in the process.

JOLE is an electronic journal open to all, both as writers and readers. The journal has been conceived as an "on-line" journal that is available on the world-wide web and is to be self-supporting. To this end, at some time in the future a fee may be charged for publication. At present, all editorial, Board, and reviewer services are provided without cost to JOLE or its members by volunteer scholars and practitioners.

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From the Editor's Clipboard

The Dean asked me the other day if I would implement what I teach. He wondered if leadership educators could actually be leaders. I pondered his question and decided, yes, leadership educators can implement what we teach. In fact, if we are provided leadership education opportunities, we would enhance our own leadership skills just as we enhance the skills of our students.

My reflection brought to mind a dilemma – how many leadership educators take the time to participate in further study, educational programs, and in-service opportunities? I do not have any research to back my thesis but it appears that leadership educators, as a group, work very hard in the classroom and take great responsibility to create successful learning environments. But, I wonder..... do we stop and retool ourselves? To celebrate the publication of the Winter, 2004 issue of the *Journal of Leadership Education*, let's make a resolution to take a short break from the classroom and enter into some educational journeys of our own.

I know I am lucky because I get to hang around a great group of leadership educators. We meet every week to talk about leadership issues, teaching experiences, and research agendas. Without hesitation, we agree that our short one hour conversation is one of our best hours of the week. We call ourselves a Leadership Learning Community because we really do learn from each other.

Maybe you are thinking, great for you but I am not so lucky. I am all by myself. Where can I find a Leadership Learning Community? Maybe it is located within your calendar. Take a look: can you factor in some time for a conference? How about getting out of the office and attending a free meeting on campus that addresses issues relevant to leadership? Perhaps your civic association has a program that can revitalize your classroom presentation. Look around, they are out there. People feel the crisis of leadership all the time. Converse with them – no telling what you may learn.

Bottom line: make 2005 the year we do what we say. Update, reflect, and rejuvenate. As you peruse this issue of the *Journal of Leadership Education*, I hope you will find one idea for a new exciting project or lesson.

The *Journal of Leadership Education* continues to strive for excellence in manuscript reviews and acceptance. Acceptance rates are calculated for each issue and vary depending on the number of submissions. The JOLE acceptance rate for this issue is 43%.

In their review of the submitted documents, representatives of the JOLE Editorial Board provided a juried assessment of a manuscript's scholarly significance and relevance. The Theoretical Feature, Research Features and Application Briefs

were closely scrutinized to ensure selected manuscripts advance the theory and practice of leadership. This issue of JOLE supports leadership scholars in their quest for successful leadership education.

Respectfully submitted, Christine D. Townsend, Editor

Accepted Theoretical Feature

The Relationship of Gender and Organizational Setting to Transformational and Transactional Leadership Skills of Selected College Student Leaders

How will the new generations lead? Rosenbusch and Townsend investigated this question by asking members of Generation X about their transformational and transactional leadership attributes. Although described as very different from preceding generations (Baby Boomers and Veterans), the results of this study indicated that Generation X members retained the same transformational and transactional leadership behaviors as their elders.

Accepted Research Features

The Impact of Character Education Curricula on Youth Educators

Character education programs have a significant impact on groups. Harms, Fritz, and Rockwell explored how teachers and extension faculty members implemented what they learned in their various character education programs. The researchers found a clear link with character education and how the participants considered other peoples' feelings and resolved conflict. Their results have a potential impact for what leadership educators include in their curricula.

Accepted Application Briefs

A Multifaceted Approach to Leadership Education: CUNY's Institute for Virtual Enterprise

In their paper, Borgese, Deutsch, and Winkler described a program to implement a leadership education program for diverse student populations. Their experiences at Kingsborough Community College, City University of New York documented how they created and executed a first-year leadership program. This article provides an insight into the successes of teaching students from different backgrounds.

Reel Leadership II: Getting Emotional at the Movies

This manuscript provides a new look at using popular film to educate students about leadership and Emotional Intelligence. Graham, Ackermann, and Maxwell described the components of Emotional Intelligence and linked these components

to various popular movies. They provided leadership educators with a great reference for how to teach Emotional Intelligence as a part of leadership studies.

Modeling Service Learning for Future Leaders of Youth Organizations

References to Service Learning continue to develop so this manuscript is a timely publication. It provides assistance to those incorporating Service Learning as a part of a youth leadership program. Hoover and Webster studied college students who used guided reflection and other components of Service Learning as a part of an experiential learning strategy.

Women and Negotiations: Unveiling Some Secrets to Success

Women and men negotiate differently – or more commonly, women do not negotiate. Tack and McNutt document the literature describing negotiation from a gender perspective and encourage leadership educators to incorporate negotiation strategies into their courses.

The Relationship of Gender and Organizational Setting to Transformational and Transactional Leadership Skills of Selected College Student Leaders

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Abstract

The purpose was to examine the development of transformational and transactional leadership skills among Generation X collegiate student organizational officers and members. This study looked at the organizational structure of each group and member's gender to determine if these variables were related to leadership style. In this correlational study 190 college students between the ages of 18-22 from two different leadership organizations were given the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Significant relationships were found between the transformational leadership scores and gender. It was found that female student leaders tended to be more transformational than male student leaders. Males had a tendency to portray transactional leadership skills. The type of organization did not influence what type of leader emerged. Although Generation X attributes suggest all members are more transformational, it was concluded that gender continues to have a significant impact on the development of student leader transformational leadership skills.

Introduction

Leaders of the 21st century face complex demands perhaps greater than leaders in the past. It is accepted that leaders will have to adapt and adjust to the continual changes in organizations and the world. It is important that young people be equipped to meet those needs and, consequently, preparation and practice for leaders address their anticipated future. Given these conditions, the current population of college students should be studied to determine the best leadership

education practices necessary for development of successful leadership behavior. Two situations have been selected to investigate for this baseline study. First, the generational attributes of the college students enrolled in the early 21st century may yield a different approach to leadership education. Second, the type of student organization may provide insight into the type of leadership styles students adapt.

Considering the first situation, the students of the research population are described as Generation X students, born between 1960-1980, and are documented to have different attitudes and expectations than the college students of 20 or 30 years ago (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). In *Dynamics of the Multigenerational Workplace* Zemke, Raines and Filipczak (2000) described the Generation X population as self-reliant, non-authoritarian, skeptical, risk-takers, family-oriented, and informal. In addition, they can adapt to change, technology, and are impatient. As leaders, they grew up in a system where they were treated as equal with their parents, experienced educational environments that allowed challenge, and believed that information equaled power. In the current climate of rapid change, the young generations know you have to act fast and prepare to win. Therefore, universities have developed a sense of duty to establish a foundation where Generation X students can practice leadership and learn to succeed. Consequently, leadership development is a critical part of the college experience. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation found that “leadership development is important and useful because it can enrich the undergraduate experience, empower students, and give them a greater sense of control over their lives” (Astin, 2000, p. 2).

The second condition of the study concerns the type of organization of which the students are members. For this study, two organizations were selected because they contained the upper echelon of student leaders within a large, land-grant university. Both organizations were leadership councils consisting of student leaders who represented many other students with varying interests on the college campus. However, one of the organizations was located in a college with direct links to agriculture and life sciences industries and graduation career opportunities. The other organizational membership consisted of students from all majors with no link other than their college class year.

Transformational Leadership and Generation X

Burns began looking at transformational leadership early in the development of leadership theory. He studied the current leaders of that time. He determined that transactional leaders appeal to the self-interests of followers whereas transformational leaders appeal to the higher ideals and moral values of both leaders and followers. He believed that most leader-follower relationships are transactional (Burns, 1978). Burns’s studies, because of the timing, focused on two major generational groups – the Baby Boomer generation, birth years 1943-1960, and the Veteran generation, birth years 1922-1943 (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Therefore, the original studies and those subsequent studies had

not yet examined the ever-changing world that exists for the more recent Generation X group. This study examined the development of transformational and transactional leadership skills among Generation X collegiate student organizational officers and members. It also determined whether gender and type of organization influences leadership skills.

Agriculture and Life Sciences Youth Leadership Education

Over the years several researchers have investigated the youth leadership aspects found within the agriculture youth organizations of 4H and FFA (formerly Future Farmers of America). From the results of several studies it is generally agreed that leadership skills are enhanced by these youth organizations. For example, Boyd (1991) sought to determine if 4-H members developed leadership life skills and to ascertain if the skill development was related to their participation in 4-H. He found that 4-H members perceived themselves as having developed a higher level of leadership life skills than non-4-H youth. Continuing this line of research, Brick (1998) studied FFA members' self-perceived leadership skills. In this national study, she determined that length of membership did not affect leadership perceptions but activity within the chapter did have an influence. Additionally, FFA officer activities did not have an influence on members' perceptions of their abilities to work in groups and make decisions. She concluded that no matter when a member joins the FFA, he or she can become a secure leader through the activities of the FFA. And, officers should strengthen their teaming skills to intensify their security in group work and decision making. The work of Dodson (1995) similarly noted that agricultural youth leadership education was enhanced by participation in an agricultural youth organization. He studied students enrolled in a high school leadership course. Conclusions supported the notion that the more active students were in the FFA, the higher their perceptions were in the areas of making decisions, communication, understanding one's self, and working with groups. Additionally, the simulation activities used in the course were viewed by the students as valuable, stimulating, and helped learning.

Accepting the argument that determination of how youth attain their leadership skills is difficult, we were keenly aware from the research of agricultural youth leadership organizations that, perhaps, participation in agriculturally-based leadership organizations may impact the leadership behaviors and styles of collegiate leaders. Therefore, the intent of this investigation was to discover if a link occurred between the type of organization (agriculture vs. non-agriculture) and a collegiate leader's transformational or transactional leadership style.

Theoretical Framework

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory

In the 1970s Burns made a bold statement when discussing transformational leadership. He stated that transformational leadership occurs when the individuals

involved “raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (1978, p. 20). The individuals may start out in different directions but come together to form one. They work to increase the standards of each person involved. He believes that transformational leadership in “essence of the leader-follower relation is the interaction of persons with different levels of motivations and of power of potential, including skill, in pursuit of a common or at least joint purpose” (p. 19). Rogers (1992) studied Burns’ work on transformational leadership. He suggested Burns’ definitions meant that a transactional leader is one that is conventional whereas a transformational leader is more empowering.

The work of Burns and others, such as Rogers, yields the transformational leadership model that consists of two distinct leadership styles: transformational and transactional. According to Bass (1998), “Transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership” (p. 4). Transactional leadership is characterized by the exchange of rewards and punishments. The duties of the follower come from a series of transactions by the leader. Leaders generally base their decisions upon discussion with others. They determine what should be required and then specify conditions in which the terms must be met. Transformational leaders work to motivate their followers. They are generally facilitative leaders that encourage participation by the followers. They work to build the followers up to be a self-lead organization. A true transformational leader will maximize their potential when they are willing to give up at any moment all that they are to receive all that they can become (Bass, 1998).

The Full Range Leadership Model consists of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Transformational leadership is identified by four components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership is made up of contingent reward, management-by-exception (passive), management-by-exception (active) and a laissez-faire style (Bass, 1998).

Burns (1978) believes that transformational and transactional leadership are on two ends of a continuum. In contrast, Bass and Avilio (1994) treat these leadership theories separate from each other with each composed of several factors. According to Williams (1997), Bass defines transformational leadership in terms of distinct components while the transactional leadership is not components but three distinct types of transactional leadership.

Transformational leadership is difficult to define. Bass uses examples to illustrate the definition, but finds no need to define transactional leadership in that way. A good leader will encompass both transformational and transactional components into their leadership style. Each component is necessary at different times and at various circumstances.

Example Research on Transformational and Transactional Leadership

A large body of research is acknowledged in documenting the comparisons of transformational and transactional leaders. For continuity purposes, a short summary of example studies follows. Bass and his associates have conducted numerous investigations on transformational and transactional leadership. They discovered that transformational and transactional styles were positively associated with effectiveness yet transformational leadership components were more highly related than transactional leadership factors to satisfaction and effectiveness. Avolio and Gibbons (1988) addressed the development of transformational leadership. After analyzing the life histories of several CEOs they found that there were several factors influencing their leadership style. They found that the parents of transformational leaders set high standards for achievement and encouraged them to do their best. The leaders learned how to deal with conflict and effective decision-making through their experiences within their families.

Popper, Mayseless, and Castelnovo (2000) examined the relationship between secure attachment and transformational leadership. They found that attachment security positively correlated with each component of transformational leadership but had no relationship with transactional leadership. Thus, they believe that only certain types of leadership, those with a great deal of empathy toward their followers, are expected to be associated with this large amount of security. The insecure attachment styles were negatively correlated with transformational leadership.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) studied 12 CEOs of large corporation to determine how the leaders worked under challenging conditions. They found out that transformational leaders manage change in a three-act process. Transformational leaders were the change agents of the organization. They helped create a vision for their organization and finally they broke down old structures and began building new dimensions to change (Northouse, 1997).

Egan, Sarros, and Santora (1995) studied transformational and transactional leadership styles in nonprofit and private sector organizations in Australia. They discovered that out of the four organizations surveyed that transformational leadership was more prevalent than transactional leadership and the laissez-faire approach. They also found out that leadership styles were independent of the organizational type. Finally, they found out that the methods leaders had adopted to operationalize leadership was not dependent upon the organizational type; therefore, there was no difference between the non-profit organizations and the private entities. The individuals decided on their own preference according to their ability and life experiences. Kelloway and Barling (2000) studied collegiate students in order to determine if the students could differentiate between the two particular leadership styles in a role-playing exercise. The participants could clearly detect the two transformational leadership components and altered their

behavior in response to the leaders' behavior. Followers recognize the components of transformational and transactional leadership and alter their actions according to the leader.

Gender and Leadership

As with transformational leadership, gender has been investigated as an explanation of leadership behavior. Many researchers agree that gender has a significant effect on the outcome of many leadership situations. According to Helgesen (1990), women tend to lead from the center of an organization whereas men are more hierarchical and lead from the top. Men place emphasis on vision while many women connect more closely to the principles of voice. Males are more task-oriented and females tend to be more relationship oriented (Bass, 1967).

Eagly and Johnson (1990) found consistent differences between males and females in leadership styles. They concluded that women tend to be more democratic and participative than their male counterparts. Kanter (1977) looked at women in leadership roles and discovered that leadership styles varied from "commanding-affirming to controlling-disabling" (p. 166). He argues that the structure of the organization has important implications for the behavior of males and females. When women possessed power within an organization, their effectiveness was similar to that of men. Several studies have found that males are expected to be in more powerful positions than females and are expected to be more likely to use power in an effective way. They are supposed to be tougher, more aggressive, and more competitive (Meeker & Weitzel-O'Neill, 1977). Giovanonni (2001) describes women leaders as individuals who: foster participation, validate others, delegate authority, allow for an open flow of information, and shares in the decision making process.

Relationship between Gender and Transformational Leadership

Survey and experimental evidence show that women in leadership positions have a greater tendency to be somewhat more transformational and display less managing-by-exception than men. Rosener (1990) explained this style as interactive leadership rooted in socialization. She predicted that women leaders would demonstrate a transformational style of leadership and men would exhibit a more transactional style. She looked at a group of individuals that were 51 years of age or older. Each of the women was instructed to find male counterparts within their organizations to participate. The study used an eight-page survey to conduct the research. There was a response rate of 31%. There were several factors that influenced this response rate including the length of the survey and the responsibility of the female participants to find the male counterparts. The results showed that a non-traditional leadership style that is more participatory could be effective in organizations that are immersed in change. They believe that this could only occur if the change had already been accepted. Changing

environments can create new opportunities for companies and may cause the individuals to examine their leadership style.

In 1985 Bass (1998) examined transformational leadership at a training workshop. There were 12 women and 12 men that served in upper management positions of Fortune 50 firms. Three to five subordinates of these leaders described the leaders by using the MLQ (Form 5R). He found that the top four managers with the highest MLQ charismatic leadership were women. In an early version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire one of the characteristics is charismatic leadership. It is now divided into two parts of idealized influence (attributed) and idealized influence (behavior).

Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996) conducted four studies from the period of 1986 to 1992. In all four studies they found that women leaders attained higher scores for all four components of transformational leadership including charisma, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1998). As far as the transactional components are concerned they found that contingent reward were not statistically significant in the separate studies. Except for one group, there were no differences between males and females in the components management-by-exception and laissez-faire approach. They discovered that women were more actively management-by-exception and men practiced passively management-by-exception. Komives (1991) discovered that there was no statistical difference between female and male managers who self-rated themselves except for intellectual stimulation. She found that females were significantly higher than their male counterparts. D'Ambrosio (2000) examined gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership styles among leaders. She found no statistical significance between gender and transformational and transactional leadership styles among leaders. The raters who were male tended to rate the female leaders higher in transformational leadership.

Unanswered Questions

Considering the timing of research on transformational leadership and the relationship of gender to leadership, no clear direction has been created for the men and women of Generation X. In fact, one author has suggested that for the Generation X members, gender roles will converge yielding fewer differences between males and female actions (Mitchell, 1995). How then will the Generation X members lead? Will they carry through with their authoritarian approach similar to transactional leadership activities? Or will they maintain their risk-taking, non-hierarchical approach to leadership and present a more transformational approach? Will the Generation X males tend toward transactional leadership as the actions of the previous generations males? Or will they become more androgynous, transformational leaders? Similarly, will the female Generation X'ers maintain the typical gender identification with leadership and tend to be transformational? Finally, how will the transformational and transactional

leadership characteristics present themselves within a collegiate leadership setting?

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the development of transformational and transactional leadership skills among Generation X collegiate student organizational officers and members. It determined whether gender and type of organization strongly influence leadership skills.

There are two main questions that were asked in this study.

- Does gender impact self-perception of transformational and transactional leadership?
- Is there a difference in transformational leadership scores between two different student organizations?

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study consisted of undergraduate student leaders studying at large, land-grant universities. Two purposive samples were selected in order to obtain responses from appropriate groups (Cummins, 1995). Sample participants were student leaders who were elected officers, chairs, and members of the University Class Council (Class Council) and the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Council (COALS Council). These two organizations were selected for their quality reputations in leadership development and because their members were experienced student leaders. Class Council is an organization that provides leadership and direction for each undergraduate classification (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior). It works to maintain the traditions at the target university. It is comprised of six elected officers for each class, selected chairs, and members. The second organization, COALS Council is an organization that represents the voice of the students within the target university's College of Agriculture and Life Sciences. It is composed of five elected officers, 15 members at-large, 10 freshman representatives, and two representatives from each organization within the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences. The entire purposive sample consisted of 190 participants selected by each of the organizations' advisors. In addition, the purposive sample was a representation of both females and males from Generation X with ages, at the time of the study, from 18 to 23 years of age.

Instrumentation

In order to gain a comprehensive look at the aspects of transformational and transactional leadership this study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X). Bass developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in

1985. Since then it has been through several revisions due to findings from past research. The latest version of the MLQ Form 5X has been used in over 200 research programs, doctoral dissertations and master theses around the world (Bass, 1995).

This study administered the MLQ Form 5X to student leaders at centrally located, large land grant university during the spring semester of 2001. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures four distinct characteristics of transformational leaders and three characteristics of transactional leaders. Reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale range from .74 to .94 (Bass, 1995).

Procedure

The intent of this study was to determine if gender and organizational type had an impact on the development of student leaders' transformational and transactional leadership skills. A correlational design was used for this study. The dependent variables were the participants' score in each leadership skill area of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The independent variables were gender, classification, leadership positions, organizations, and the formal leadership training or activities that the student had taken in college.

The instrument was administered to student leaders of two different collegiate student organizations. The organizations' advisors provided a list of officers, chairs, and members. The investigator attended a regularly scheduled monthly meeting to conduct the study. Each student was given a packet that contained a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, an informed consent, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

The first section of the questionnaire asked about personal variables that could impact the study. The second section contained the core content that determined the students' scores on the measurements scales of transformational or transactional leadership. This questionnaire took 10-15 minutes to complete. After this meeting the investigator took note of those that participated. The student leaders who were not present at the Ag Council meeting were emailed a letter of intent and copy of the questionnaire. Class Council members not present had packets placed in their personal boxes in their class cubicle. Approximately 190 students participated in this study. There were 108 valid responses, which reflected a 69% response rate.

Findings and Conclusions

Findings Regarding Gender

A t-test for independent means was used to determine the relationship between the scores of each characteristic on the MLQ 5X and gender. Means for all the transformational and transactional leadership factors were compared for male and female students. Female means scores were 3.18 and male mean scores were 2.93. Through this analysis we found that female student leaders had a greater perception of their abilities to influence their followers (idealized influence-attributed and behavior); to inspire and motivate (inspirational motivation), and to coach and mentor their followers (individualized consideration) than did male student leaders. Statistically significant differences were not found for the MLQ 5X scale for intellectual stimulation. This indicated that there was no difference between the perceptions of female student leaders and male student leaders on the MLQ 5X scale of Intellectual Stimulation. The results shown in Table 1 indicate that there is a significant difference between male's and female's particular transformational leadership skills.

Table 1. Characteristics of transformational leadership scores by gender

Characteristic of Transformational Leadership	n	M	SD	t
Idealized Influence (Attributed)				
Male	42	2.83	.59	-2.60*
Female	66	3.10	.48	
Idealized Influence (Behavior)				
Male	42	2.92	.56	-2.51*
Female	66	3.20	.58	
Inspirational Motivation				
Male	42	3.09	.68	-2.39*
Female	66	3.36	.51	
Intellectual Stimulation				
Male	42	2.98	.48	-0.92
Female	66	3.07	.51	
Individualized Consideration				
Male	42	2.83	.59	-3.15*
Female	66	3.17	.51	

Note: M=Transformational Leadership Scores; *p<.05

We also discovered that male student leaders had a greater sense of waiting for problems to arise before taking action [management-by-exception (passive)] than female student leaders. Statistically significant differences were not found for the MLQ 5X scales of contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and laissez faire approach.

These results point out that there was no difference between the perceptions of female student leaders and male student leaders on the MLQ 5X scales of contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and laissez faire approach which can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Characteristics of transactional leadership scores by gender

Characteristic of Transactional Leadership	n	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Contingent Reward				
Male	42	2.80	.56	-3.33
Female	66	3.12	.45	
Management-by-Exception (Active)				
Male	42	2.02	.63	1.16
Female	66	1.86	.73	
Management-by-Exception (Passive)				
Male	42	1.73	.63	3.53*
Female	66	1.30	.60	
Laissez-faire				
Male	42	1.05	.76	0.45
Female	66	1.00	.56	

Note: M=Transactional Leadership Scores; * $p < .05$

Conclusions Regarding Gender

These findings indicated that the Generation X females had a greater tendency to be more transformational leaders than men. This study supported the research of several authors (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Komives, 1991; Rosener, 1990) who found that females had more transformational leadership characteristics than males. Although the typical transformational leadership and gender studies have shown that women tend to be more transformational than men (Bass, 1998), it was surprising that, as noted by the Generation X references (Zemke, Raines, & Filipeczak, 2000), that men did not also display similar transformational tendencies.

As with the “older” generations, the Generation X men are more transactional than women. This conclusion continues to support Bass (1998) who stated that men were more passively management-by-exception and females were more actively management-by-exception. From this study, supporting evidence concluded that gender continued to influence the leadership style used by collegiate students.

Findings Regarding Organization

Another objective for this research was to identify whether the transformational leadership scores differ between two different collegiate organizations: COALS

Council and Class Council. A t-test for independent means was used to test this research question. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the five transformational leadership scores and four transactional leadership scores comparing Class Council and Ag Council members. The results of the analysis are represented in Tables 3 and 4.

There was no statistically significant difference between Class Council members and COALS Council members. This analysis indicates that Class Council and COALS Council members are similar in their transformational and transactional leadership activities. The organizational structures may vary slightly but the value that each student gained from their previous and current leadership activities were the same.

Table 3. Characteristics of transformational leadership scores by organization

Characteristic of Transformational Leadership	n	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Idealized Influence (Attributed)				
Ag Council	45	2.94	.57	-0.96
Class Council	63	3.04	.52	
Idealized Influence (Behavior)				
Ag Council	45	3.11	.58	0.16
Class Council	63	3.09	.59	
Inspirational Motivation				
Ag Council	45	3.14	.65	-1.68
Class Council	63	3.34	.54	
Intellectual Stimulation				
Ag Council	45	3.06	.43	0.33
Class Council	63	3.02	.54	
Individualized Consideration				
Ag Council	45	2.90	.64	-1.32
Class Council	63	3.10	.50	

Note: M=Transformational Leadership Scores

Table 4. Characteristics of transactional leadership scores by organization

Characteristic of Transactional Leadership	n	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Contingent Reward				
Ag Council	45	2.90	.59	-1.64
Class Council	63	3.06	.44	
Management-by-Exception (Active)				
Ag Council	45	1.88	.69	-0.55
Class Council	63	1.95	.70	
Management-by-Exception (Passive)				
Ag Council	45	1.38	.65	-1.18
Class Council	63	1.53	.64	
Laissez-faire				
Ag Council	45	.93	.61	-1.25
Class Council	63	1.08	.65	

Note: M=Transactional Leadership Scores

Conclusions Regarding Organization

The findings indicated that the type of organization did not influence whether an individual is a transformational or transactional leader. We acknowledge that we did not ask members of either organization if they were previous members of agricultural youth organizations. However, an association with agriculture youth organizations is often assumed for student leaders of Colleges of Agriculture. Therefore, many constituents identify agriculture students as those with developed leadership skills. We thought, perhaps, a clear distinction would be identified between a group of agricultural student leaders and non-agricultural student leaders. As noted in Boyd (1991), 4-H members perceived themselves as having developed a higher level of leadership life skills than non-4-H youth. However, in this case, the non-agricultural organization was no different from the agriculturally-based organization. In essence, then, the findings support Egan, Sarros, and Santora (1995) who found that leadership styles are independent of the organizational type. The individual decides on their preference according to their ability and life experiences.

Implications for Leadership Educators

Members of Generation X are the leaders of the future. This study was an attempt to link the Generation X to transformation and transactional leadership characteristics. As leadership educations develop programs, modules, classes, and references, they must begin to consider how generational differences affect their clientele. It would have been simple if this study supported the notion that Generation X members utilize transformational leadership as a result of their generational experiences. However, this preliminary study suggests that leadership may not follow generational lines. Generation X males are

transactional just as their fathers and Generation X females are transformational just as their mothers. In addition, because the agricultural student leaders are no different than their non-agricultural student leader peers, agricultural youth leadership organizations may need to accept that leadership is a very complicated activity affected by countless interventions.

When dealing with the newer generations, traditional observations still need to be maintained. Young leaders may be from Generation X but females still exhibit themselves as more transformational than males. With this perception females continue to bring an existing set of values to an organization. Organizations need to know that these attributes are present in order to effectively utilize both men and women. It is important that an organization be aware that women continue to have a greater tendency to influence their followers (idealized influence-attributed and behavior); to inspire and motivate (inspirational motivation), and to coach and mentor their followers (individualized consideration) while men will have a greater sense of waiting for problems to arise before taking action [management-by-exception (passive)]. Generation X women are stepping up to the challenge and responsibility of leadership.

Bass (1998) stated that leaders need to be both transformational and transactional. The collegiate population studied, although Generation X, continues to need training for maximization of these skills. As leadership educators it is important that males receive the necessary transformational skills and females receive the essential transactional skills. We recommend continuation of programs and courses that strictly focus on these skills for each gender.

Finally, this study found that organizational type does not necessarily effect individuals' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership skills. Although more organizational types need to be investigated, this study suggests that leadership styles are independent of the organization's structure. Leadership educators need to further examine if leaders select their style based on their own views and experiences rather than the setting of their particular organization. Generation X students are accustomed to team-based organizations (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). When these students enter the workforce they will be confronted with some organizations that do not foster change. It is vital as leadership educators to help these students adapt to the various dynamics they may encounter. It is also important to train and educate current leaders that are identified as part of the Baby Boomer generation on how to manage Generation X employees. Thus, as leadership educators train their clientele, it is critical, based on this study, that we continue to seek answers as to how generational dimensions link to leadership behavior. We must continue to evaluate best practices as the emerging generations become the leaders of the future.

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The Impact of Character Education Curricula on Youth Educators

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine degrees of internalization of character traits across two groups (K-12 teachers and Extension staff) with varying years of participation in character education professional and program development activities. An online survey was developed to collect data describing the 109 respondents, the extent of their character education professional and program development activities, and their degrees of internalization and behavioral change. Post-then-pre data comparisons revealed significant levels of change in behaviors, including considering other peoples' feelings and resolving conflict in a peaceful manner. All post-then-pre data demonstrated that respondents at least frequently lived their lives in accordance with the post-then-pre statements. Recommendations for future research included: marketing character education professional development opportunities to a broader audience; and increasing ongoing and intensive multicultural training of Cooperative Extension staff.

Introduction

Throughout a lifetime, one experiences numerous opportunities in which an individual's character is developed. Through successes and failures, a moralistic

foundation is then created. As one continues to experience life, additional values and character traits are implemented to strengthen this foundation. The foundation is continually relied upon as a background for important decision-making processes. However, these processes can warp due to outside, unethical influences. A close examination of current ethical societal trends indicates this warping is likely to be happening with increasing frequency. These trends as well as state statutes, the history of character education, and adult learning strategies provide the framework for this study of the internalization of ethical values by those teaching character education.

Ethical Trends in Society

Though evidence of crime and violence grab headlines, collective morality is also revealed by a willingness to lie and cheat. In a recent survey of more than 15,000 high school and middle school students conducted by the Josephson Institute of Ethics (2001a):

- 39% of middle school and 36% of high school students do not feel safe at school.
- 37% of middle school and 43% of high school boys “believe it is okay to hit or threaten someone who makes them angry.”
- 21% of high school and 15% of middle school boys “took a weapon to school at least once in the past year.”
- 60% of high school and 31% of middle school boys believe they could obtain a gun if necessary.
- 69% of high school and 27% of middle school boys believe they could obtain drugs if they so desired.
- 19% of high school and 9% of middle school boys “admit they were drunk at school at least once in the past year.”

State Statutes and Character Education

The picture painted by these findings suggests the need for a commitment toward enhancing the value individuals, as a society, place on traits such as respect and trustworthiness. However, throughout history, lawmakers consistently refer to the importance of character education in all age groups. Even though the Constitution of the United States of America fails to mention character education, one of its early writers, Benjamin Franklin, noted the importance of character education among youth in his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*: “On historical questions of right and wrong, justice and injustice, will naturally

arise, and may be put to youth, which they may debate in conversation and in writing” (Nebraska Department of Education, 2002).

The United States’ dedication to character education is further demonstrated in Nebraska law. In 1927, State Senator Allen S. Stinson of Knox County introduced legislation making reference to the necessity of character education in public and private school systems. More than 75 years later, the State of Nebraska continues to mandate the teaching of character education in all school systems grades K-12. According to Rule 21 of the Nebraska Department of Education (2000), in order to be issued a Nebraska Teaching Certificate, one must complete an approved human relations training course from a qualifying institution of higher education. The purpose of human relations training is to educate teachers in the areas of living and teaching in a pluralistic society and dealing with diversity issues (i.e., sexism, racism, prejudice, and discrimination). This diversity training aids K-12 educators in teaching character education to a pluralistic environment, thus presenting the opportunity to enact all Nebraska character education statutes.

Nebraska laws suggest the need for an increased emphasis on character training. Societal trends suggest the need for a commitment toward enhancing the value individuals place on traits such as trustworthiness and respect. It also suggests the need for an increased emphasis on character training. No longer can society rely on families to be the only, or even the primary, force in shaping the character of children. In the 1995 Survey on the Advancement of Teaching sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation, 70% of the U.S. parents questioned agreed that the family has the primary responsibility for developing values in children (Boyer, 1995). While U.S. families may strongly believe character education should occur at home, given the crime, violence and deception statistics, it is evidence that this “in home” approach needs support from other entities.

History of Character Education

The teaching of ethics and moral development has long been an interest of educators. Character education was often associated with education in general. Throughout history, the two goals of education were to help people become smart and to help them become good (Lickona, 1997). Acting on that belief, schools tackled character education through discipline, the teacher’s example, and the daily school curriculum. The *Bible* was the public school’s sourcebook for both moral and religious instruction. When struggles eventually arose over whose *Bible* to use and which doctrines to teach, William McGuffey, in 1836, offered the *McGuffey Readers*. McGuffey retained many favorite Biblical stories but added poems, exhortations and heroic tales. While children practiced their reading or arithmetic, they also learned lessons about honesty, love of neighbor, hard work, thriftiness, and courage (Lickona, 1997).

Another major force in the field of character education was the 18th century philosopher, Immanuel Kant. Kant wrote about the duties and obligations of

moral people. Kant believed that people should act in such a way that their actions become moral law. Kantian theory, later known as the Kantian Categorical Imperative, stated that each situation should be approached in the same manner, which would result in identical results, regardless of individual circumstances (Benninga, 1997).

The consensus supporting character education began to crumble. Darwin's introduction of evolution led people to see ideas, including morality, as being in discord with real-life issues and situations. No longer did society see issues as being black and white. Long-held beliefs about the real meaning of "truth" were questioned (Kohlberg, 1976).

In the 20th century, the philosophy of logical positivism, transmitting from Europe to United States colleges and universities, asserted a basic distinction from facts (which could be scientifically proven) and values (which positivism held were mere expressions of feeling, not objective truth). As a result of positivism, morality was relativized and privatized, becoming a subject unfit for public debate or transmission through the schools. Consequently, public schools retreated from their once central role as moral and character educators.

The 1970s saw a return of value-laden education, but in new forms: values clarification and Kohlberg's (1976) moral dilemma discussions. Values clarification stressed not imposing values, but rather helping students choose their values freely. The teacher was urged to be only a facilitator of the process and, for fear of influencing students, was to withhold his or her own personal viewpoints. Whatever values the students determined were to be respected by the teacher and society. Kohlberg's theory helped develop students' powers of moral reasoning so they could judge which values were superior to others. Kohlberg posited that individuals proceed through a sequence of six distinct stages of moral reasoning. Each stage expands ethically in an attempt to reach a final, altruistic way of life. According to Kohlberg, as individuals moved through the sequence of moral reasoning, they become more apt to exhibit ethical behaviors in everyday life. By systematically exposing students to moral conflict accompanied by the presentation of moral reasoning one stage above their own, researchers believed that students would be attracted to that reasoning and adopt it as their own (Leming, 1997).

Aside from Kohlberg's structured levels of ethical reasoning, virtue ethics began to resurface in the 1990's as a valid basis of ethical reasoning. Here, in virtue ethics, an ethical person is one who contains good virtues, or character traits, such as honesty and integrity, and models those traits:

Statman (1997) indicates that becoming a good person is not just a matter of learning or applying principles, but includes imitation of models. People learn virtuousness the same way they learn to dance, cook, and play football. They learn it by watching competent people and trying to do the same.

Based on this definition of virtue ethics, one can see a natural linkage between virtue ethics and character education programs. In character education programs, individuals serve as mentors to those attempting to further develop levels of character. These actions led to the formation of character education programs.

In 1992 the Josephson Institute of Ethics called together more than 30 educational leaders representing state school boards, teachers' unions, universities, ethnic centers, youth organizations and religious groups. The diverse group discussed how organizations might work together to help young people grow strong ethically. They agreed that a common language of values, used pervasively and consistently throughout a community, would be the most effective means of reaching young people. They found unanimous consensus in six essential ethical values (now known as the "Six Pillars of Character") that could be taught by public and private institutions without risk of socioeconomic, ethnic, political, gender or religious offense. These pillars are: trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring, and citizenship (Josephson Institute of Ethics, 2001b).

In Nebraska *Character Counts!* has been a prominent tool in shaping the moral development of youth, families, and their communities. To date:

- 1,900 youth and adults have been trained, equipping them to teach *Character Counts!* to others.
- 20,000 youth have been reached through *Character Counts!* programs involving at least 15 hours of programming.
- 123,000 youth have been reached through other *Character Counts!* programs including day camps, one-on-one contact with Kiwanis members, Family Community Education clubs, religious school classes, and employees participating in workforce training programs.
- Over 700,000 have been reached indirectly with information about character education through television and radio broadcasts; newspapers; newsletters provided to child care providers, 4-H members and parents of school children; and other media (Nebraska 4-H Department, 1999).

A recent survey of Nebraska educators demonstrated that *Character Counts!* has made a difference in the lives of students. Of those who responded:

- 85% reported an overall positive difference in the children they teach,
- 73% reported students using the language of the six pillars (trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring and citizenship), and

- 75% reported changing their own behavior as a result of teaching *Character Counts!* (Nebraska 4-H Department, 1999).

Behaviors most frequently seen as changed due to using *Character Counts!* included:

- Helping each other (61% reported increased frequency),
- Blaming others (55% reported decreased frequency), and
- Being truthful (50% reported increased frequency) (Nebraska State 4-H Department, 1999).

As unethical behaviors and violence continue to negatively influence life in the U.S., one can conclude that changes need to be made in an attempt to positively restructure the country's ethical systems. Increased character education is one alternative available to assist in remedying a declining moralistic society. Currently, research suggests a correlation between the character education of youth and positive ethical results throughout the United States. While these findings demonstrate positive changes experienced by youth audiences, to date, sparse research has been conducted on the effects of teaching character education programs on those individuals who implement the programs.

Adult Learning Strategies

To gain an appreciation for the problem at hand, it is also important to closely examine the learning strategies of adults. According to a University of Michigan study, individuals create their own new understandings, based upon the interactions of what they already know and believe, and the phenomena or ideas with which they come into contact (Richardson, 1999). This suggests that the internalization of concepts is a direct result of learning based on interactions and experiences.

When considering the moral upbringing of individuals, many feel that one's character is permanently formed during childhood. However, character education is, in fact, a lifelong process (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1997). While one experiences real world situations, internal psychological processes are expanded, thus leading to the internalization of taught concepts. Internalization can be defined as the incorporation of values or patterns of culture within the self as conscious or subconscious guiding principles through learning or socialization (Krippendorff, 1995).

In the same sense, teaching character education programs (direct experience) leads to the internalization of ethical principles found directly in character education. Internalized ethical principles result in increased moral behavior (Rest, 1997). Hence, one would assume that those teaching character education are more

likely to use the ethical principles and exhibit positive behaviors as a direct result of their teaching and implementation experiences.

A 2001 study by Harms and Fritz analyzed the internalization of character traits in the personal and professional lives of 53 Nebraska Cooperative Extension Staff. The study determined that *Character Counts!* had a major impact on Cooperative Extension staff. Professionally, 91% were more likely to emphasize the importance of *Character Counts!* principles with Cooperative Extension colleagues throughout Nebraska, while 93% were more likely to emphasize the importance of *Character Counts!* principles in Cooperative Extension programming efforts as a result of teaching *Character Counts!* (Harms & Fritz, 2001).

Personally, 77% of respondents were more aware of ethical dilemmas within their own personal lives as a result of teaching *Character Counts!*. In addition, 85% were more likely to institute ethical choices amongst friends and family as a result of teaching *Character Counts!* (Harms & Fritz, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

While the study by Harms and Fritz (2001) shed some light on the internalization of character principles by those teaching the program, further research was needed. The original study examined a homogenous sample (Nebraska Cooperative Extension Staff) when, in fact, the application and integration of character education is much broader than this audience. However, it is unclear if the internalization was similar in different contexts and periods of time. This study sought to address the research void by comparing degrees of internalization across two populations with varying years of character education training. The null hypothesis that was tested stated that there was no significant difference in the internalization of character traits between those teachers and Cooperative Extension Staff who took part in character education programs and those who did not.

Objectives

Specifically, this study analyzed the following:

1. Description of the sample (gender, age, position, years of involvement);
2. Extent of character education professional and program development activities;
3. Degree of internalization and behavioral change of character education; and
4. Comparison of character education items by position, age of participants, and years of involvement with character education.

Limitations

Because the respondents for this study were not randomly sampled from the population of those who have received character education training, the results

were not generalizable to a population. Therefore, findings, conclusions, and recommendations were limited to study respondents.

Method

Design of the Study

Target audience members were chosen based on their involvement in implementing character education with various audiences. The target audience for this study consisted of Nebraska K-12 teachers and all Nebraska Cooperative Extension Educators and Assistants involved with character education that received character education training via the Nebraska Department of Education and/or Nebraska Cooperative Extension. Based on this target audience, 109 individuals responded to the online survey.

The instrument was designed to address the study question: character education behavioral change by program educators (Ebmeier, 2001). The Six Pillars of Character from *Character Counts!* and the eight characteristics listed in the Nebraska statutes were used to develop the items for the survey.

The instrument contained 44 items that were grouped in four areas: character education involvement, character education integration, personal character education analysis, and demographics. The character education involvement section was composed of six questions with four-point Likert scale responses. A five-point Likert scale response was used for the nine questions of the character education integration section. A Post-then-Pre design was the basis for 18 questions of the personal character education analysis section (Rockwell & Kohn, 1989). According to Rockwell and Kohn (1989), a post-then-pre design identification of self-reported behavioral changes provides substantial evidence programmatic impact. To obtain information on the levels of character education implementation and demographic backgrounds of survey participants, multiple choice questions were utilized.

The instrument was tested for face validity with a panel of experts and was field tested by a group of eight secondary educators who were not in the study. Cronbach's alpha reliability tests were performed on the data, producing reliability coefficients of .80 (character education involvement), .95 (character education integration), and .93 (post-then-pre data).

An informed consent letter and survey were posted on the Internet. The population was notified of the study via e-mail on April 27, 2002. This e-mail contained a link directing participants to the survey site. The first page of the survey site consisted of the informed consent letter. Thus, participants were not able to complete the survey without first reading and agreeing to the conditions of the study set forth in the informed consent letter. By completing the survey on the second page, participants gave their consent to participate in this study. Follow-up

reminder e-mails were sent to the study population on May 8, May 15, and May 22, 2002. MANOVA comparisons of responses over varying response groupings yielded no differences.

Survey results were entered into a Microsoft © Excel database for analysis in SPSS-PC. Means, frequencies, and standard deviations for all relevant items were run, and significance for the study was set at $\alpha=.05$. To minimize the risk of a Type I error in the post-then-pre section, an alpha level of .005 was adopted (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). Paired T-test comparisons were also made to analyze post-then-pre responses. ANOVA comparisons were performed to determine any relationships between categorical responses (position, age, and years of involvement with character education).

Results of questions 17 and 18 were lost via data transfer, creating a limitation to this study. In addition, results of post-then-pre questions for 30 respondents were lost via data transfer, creating an additional limitation.

Results

Description of Sample

The study sample was composed of 109 individuals involved in character education, including 64 (59%) teachers and 45 (41%) Cooperative Extension staff. Of the 109 respondents, 91 (83%) were female and 17 (16%) were male. One respondent did not identify his/her gender. Thirty (28%) were between the ages of 20-35, while 39 (36%) fell in the 36-50 category. Forty (37%) respondents were between the ages of 51-65. When considering respondents' years of involvement with character education, 23 (21%) respondents were involved less than 2 years, 48 (44%) were involved from 2-5 years, and 37 (34%) were involved more than 5 years. One respondent did not identify years of involvement with character education.

Degree of Internalization and Behavioral Change

When analyzing the mean scores, character education involvement reinforced respondents' value systems quite a bit ($M=1.47$) (see Table 1). In addition, involvement with character education made respondents somewhat ($M=1.77$) more aware of telling little white lies in daily life, while respondents were somewhat ($M=1.61$) more aware of treating others in the same manner they would like to be treated. Respondents were somewhat ($M=2.01$) more aware of laws, such as speeding and littering. When working with diverse populations, respondents found it somewhat ($M=2.06$) easier as a result of character education involvement. In addition, respondents increased their participation levels somewhat ($M=2.18$) in community-based activities as a result of character education involvement.

Table 1. Personal Awareness of the Impact of Character Education Involvement

Statement <i>n=109</i>	Quite a Bit	Somewhat	Very Little	Not at All	M ^a	SD
	1	2	3	4		
Reinforced your value system?	64 (58.7%)	40 (36.7%)	4 (3.7%)	1 (0.9%)	1.47	0.62
Made you more aware of "little white lies?"	40 (36.7%)	56 (51.4%)	11 (10.1%)	2 (1.8%)	1.77	0.70
Made you more aware of treating people the way you would like to be treated?	52 (47.7%)	48 (44.0%)	8 (7.3%)	1 (0.9%)	1.61	0.67
Made you more aware of laws (speeding, littering, etc.)?	29 (26.6%)	57 (52.3%)	16 (14.7%)	7 (6.4%)	2.01	0.82
Helped you work easier with diverse populations?	23 (21.1%)	58 (53.2%)	26 (23.9%)	2 (1.8%)	2.06	0.72
Increased your participation in community activities? ^b	22 (20.2%)	51 (46.8%)	29 (26.6%)	6 (5.5%)	2.18	0.82

^aNote: 1 to 1.49 = Quite a Bit; 1.50 to 2.49 = Somewhat; 2.50 to 3.49 = Very Little; 3.50 to 4 = Not at All.

^bOne missing response.

Mean scores for all character education integration responses ranged from 3.76 to 4.41 (Agree category). Statements included: I am better able to win or lose gracefully (M=3.76); I am better able to respect the authority of others (M=3.89); I realize the importance of community (M=4.12); and I try to model character building behavior (M=4.41) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Attitudinal Impact of Character Education Integration

Statement <i>n=109</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Sometimes	Agree	Strongly Agree	M ^a	SD
As I integrate Character Education into my teaching curricula:	1	2	3	4	5		
I am better able to win or lose gracefully.	4 (3.7%)	7 (6.4%)	24 (22.0%)	50 (45.9%)	24 (22.0%)	3.76	0.99
I am better able to think about the consequences of my conduct before I act. ^b	6 (5.6%)	4 (3.7%)	17 (15.7%)	52 (48.1%)	29 (26.9%)	3.87	1.03
I am more concerned about finding a solution rather than identifying the fault.	4 (3.7%)	3 (2.8%)	21 (19.3%)	56 (51.4%)	25 (22.9%)	3.87	0.92
I am better able to respect the authority of others. ^c	3 (2.8%)	7 (6.5%)	19 (17.8%)	48 (44.9%)	30 (28.0%)	3.89	0.98
I am more likely to take personal responsibility for my actions. ^b	5 (4.6%)	4 (3.7%)	10 (9.3%)	54 (50.0%)	35 (32.4%)	4.02	1.00
I realize the importance of the community.	5 (4.6%)	4 (3.7%)	5 (4.6%)	54 (49.5%)	41 (37.6%)	4.12	0.99
Treating public property with care is important to me. ^b	5 (4.6%)	3 (2.8%)	5 (4.6%)	39 (36.1%)	56 (51.9%)	4.28	1.01
I realize the importance of standing up for what is morally right.	6 (5.5%)	3 (2.8%)	1 (0.9%)	40 (36.7%)	59 (54.1%)	4.31	1.03
I try to model character building behavior. ^c	5 (4.7%)	2 (1.9%)	2 (1.9%)	33 (30.8%)	65 (60.7%)	4.41	0.98

^aNote: 1 to 1.49 = Strongly Disagree; 1.50 to 2.49 = Disagree; 2.50 to 3.49 = Sometimes; 3.50 to 4.49 = Agree; 4.50 to 5 = Strongly Agree.

^bOne missing response.

^cTwo missing responses.

Paired T-test comparisons of post-then-pre responses to general behaviors exhibiting character indicates involvement in character education programs was significantly effective (p=.005) in producing positive behavioral changes. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected. Specific behaviors found to be influenced as a result of participation in character education programs include:

- Considering other peoples’ feelings
- Valuing people for who they are
- Resolving conflict in a peaceful manner
- Using a plan of action for making tough decisions
- Being self-discipline
- Admitting when a mistake is made
- Including everyone in activities

- Informing the cashier when given too much change
- Voting
- Seeing both sides of the story when opinions differ
- Apologizing
- Listening carefully and not interrupting others
- Winning and losing gracefully
- Standing at attention for the Pledge of Allegiance and the National Anthem
- Being dependable
- Keeping promises
- Considering others' feelings
- Respecting others' opinions (see Table 3)

Table 3. Paired T-test Results of Character Education Pre-Post Statements

Statement		n	M ^a	SD	t statistic	Prob.																																																																																																																																																		
I try to consider other peoples' feelings as I interact with them.	POST	84	4.54	0.5	4.12	0.000*																																																																																																																																																		
	PRE		4.27	0.7			I try to value people for who they are, not for what they can do for me.	POST	83	4.52	0.6	3.78	0.000*	PRE	4.24	0.8	I try to resolve conflict in a peaceful manner.	POST	85	4.52	0.6	3.96	0.000*	PRE	4.29	0.8	I use a plan of action for making tough decisions.	POST	84	4.07	0.8	5.12	0.000*	PRE	3.65	0.9	I am self-disciplined.	POST	82	4.38	0.7	2.89	0.000*	PRE	4.15	0.7	I admit when I make a mistake.	POST	83	4.27	0.6	4.28	0.000*	PRE	3.98	0.7	I make an effort to create an atmosphere that includes everyone in whatever I am doing.	POST	84	4.44	0.8	2.4	0.000*	PRE	4.29	0.9	When I make a purchase, I inform the cashier if I am given too much change.	POST	84	4.51	0.7	2.19	0.000*	PRE	4.42	0.8	I vote to participate in the public decision making process.	POST	83	4.47	0.6	4.28	0.000*	PRE	4.18	0.7	When opinions differ, I try to see both sides of the story.	POST	80	4.54	0.7	2	0.000*	PRE	4.41	0.7	I apologize when I've said or done something to hurt someone.	POST	83	4.12	0.7	5.68	0.000*	PRE	3.75	0.8	I listen carefully and do not interrupt when others are speaking.	POST	84	4.6	0.6	3.31	0.000*	PRE	4.43	0.6	Winning and losing gracefully are character traits I admire.	POST	83	4.87	0.3	1.92	0.000*	PRE	4.81	0.4	I stand at attention for the Pledge of Allegiance and the National Anthem.	POST	83	4.77	0.4	3.49	0.000*	PRE	4.59	0.6	Others can depend on me to complete what I have promised to do.	POST	83	4.55	0.6	4.17	0.001*	PRE	4.22	0.7	I make an effort to keep promises even when it is difficult.	POST	83	4.29	0.7	4.13
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^aNote: 1 to 1.49 = Almost Never; 1.50 to 2.49 = Rarely; 2.50 to 3.49 = Sometimes; 3.50 to 4.49 = Frequently; 4.50 to 5 = Almost Always.

*p <.005 to minimize the risk of Type I Error.

Comparison of Character Education Items by Position, Age, and Years of Involvement with Character Education

When making ANOVA comparisons between attitudinal impact of character education integration and position, comparisons were run on teachers and Cooperative Extension staff only. No significance was found when comparing attitudinal impact of character education integration by teachers and Extension staff.

ANOVA comparisons between personal awareness of character education involvement and age yielded no significant difference. In addition, ANOVA comparisons between attitudinal impact of character education integration and age yielded no significant difference.

ANOVA comparisons between personal awareness of character education involvement and age indicated a significant difference ($df = 1$, $F \text{ Value} = 11.58$, $p = .001$) between teachers and Cooperative Extension staff responses to the question "Has your involvement with Character Education helped you work easier with diverse populations?" There was a -0.47 mean difference between teachers and Cooperative Extension Staff, with teachers being able to work somewhat easier with diverse audiences ($M = 1.92$, $SD = .67$) as a result of character education involvement when compared to Cooperative Extension staff ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .77$).

ANOVA comparisons between personal awareness of character education involvement and years of experience with character education yielded no significant difference.

ANOVA comparisons between attitudinal impact of character education integration and years of involvement with character education resulted in one significant difference. A Tukey HSD follow-up indicated the difference was between those respondents involved with character education for less than two years and respondents involved with character education for five years or more, and "As I integrate Character Education more and more into my teaching curricula, I try to model character building behavior." There was a -0.49 mean difference between respondents involved with character education for five years or more and respondents involved with character education for less than two years. Those individuals involved with character education for a longer period of time focus more ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 0.88$) at modeling character building behavior than those respondents involved with character education for a lesser period of time ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.08$).

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this study, the female respondents outnumbered male respondents five to one. This mix is congruent with a previous character education study by Harms and Fritz (2001).

Mean scores for personal awareness and attitudinal impacts of character involvement and integration data showed positive attitudinal and behavioral changes as a result of character education involvement and integration. These results support conclusions from research by Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1997) that character education is a lifelong process, continuously strengthened by real-life situations.

Teachers and Cooperative Extension Staff in this study perceive they are internalizing character traits and improving their own character behavior. This is congruent with research by Rest (1997). Additionally, this research suggests the longer someone has been involved in character education, the more likely they are to model character building behavior. This supports the Sprinthall and Sprinthall's theory (1997) that people continue to learn throughout their lifetime and can modify their behaviors.

Although still in the "somewhat" range, teachers in this study reported working with diverse populations as easier for them than Cooperative Extension staff. This may be attributed to teachers' continuous awareness of diverse audiences needs through required human relations training courses, as required by the Nebraska Department of Education (2000). While Cooperative Extension is continuously broadening their focus to include more diverse audiences, it is unclear whether similar training is mandated.

Increased ongoing and intensive multicultural training is recommended to assist Extension staff when dealing with diverse audiences. This training may have programming implications beyond character education.

While collecting this self-reported data provides the character education field with information about respondents' character education behaviors and internalization, it may give only a one-dimensional view. Researchers are encouraged to strengthen subsequent research by including reporting of co-workers, supervisors, and peers of respondents.

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A Multifaceted Approach to Leadership Education: CUNY's Institute for Virtual Enterprise

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Abstract

Leadership education is offered in a variety of options at numerous colleges and universities: freestanding courses, seminars or within a program, case studies, on-line instruction, and umbrella leadership courses within various majors. This paper is about the Leadership Program at the City University of New York (CUNY). The Institute for Virtual Enterprise (IVE) is a CUNY Special Initiative charged with implementing a broad leadership program for the diverse student body found within all 17 CUNY campuses. IVE instituted a multifaceted approach to leadership education with an emphasis on having students apply their newfound leadership skills in the real world. This paper discusses the underlying theory, the curriculum design, and the events that occurred during the first run of the leadership program in 2003. It does not advocate for a particular best practice, but merely relates what worked best for the diverse student body of CUNY.

Introduction

The age-old question remains: "Are leaders born or can they be made?" Educators have varied ideas about whether or not leadership can be taught. As educators, we know we cannot guarantee that we can make a leader, but we can give students who study leadership the skill sets and tools that successful leaders use every day. There are many different ways to approach leadership education. Some

universities have complete leadership curricula while others have seminars (Notre Dame). Some universities offer leadership courses within a program (NYU) whereas others offer a leadership “umbrella” course where all students are invited to apply leadership skills to what they have learned throughout their specialized course of study (CUNY). Finally, some universities offer leadership via the case study method, and even some are bold enough to offer leadership education via online instruction (Harvard). This paper does not argue for a best practice in leadership education, but rather looks at the program instituted at the City University of New York (CUNY) by the Institute for Virtual Enterprise (IVE).

The Institute for Virtual Enterprise is a CUNY Special Initiative (IVE) (refer to www.ive.cuny.edu). IVE was adopted in May 2002 as a way to spur applied learning teaching methodologies throughout the CUNY system. IVE primarily started as a way to provide business and entrepreneurial skills to CUNY students in the global marketplace known as Virtual Enterprise. However, the core product of what IVE offers is applied learning techniques for a variety of academic disciplines. In February of 2003, IVE created its first leadership program, the Institute for Virtual Enterprise Leadership Program (IVELP). This was no easy task as the students at CUNY are highly diversified as well as geographically disbursed over 17 CUNY campuses. How could anyone create a program that was intensive enough for students to feel that it was worthwhile, asynchronous enough to allow for students to do their work at anyplace, anytime, palatable for a variety of various academic disciplines, research and writing intensive to satisfy Writing Across the Curriculum mandates, provide case studies for real-life scenarios, and available online to maximize student participation? And, there had to be an applied practice component for all students, because we believe, as did Dewey, that educating students should have an applied, experiential piece attached to academic learning in order for students to be successful.

Course Design

Many educators and industry leaders believe that leadership education should focus on teaching an array of various skills (Heifetz & Sinder, 1991). We designed the IVELP to adhere to four approaches of leadership education: trait, situational, contingency, and transactional. Trait theory suggests that leaders are born and have leadership qualities that are inherited, such as extrovertedness and being decisive (Stratton, 2002). The situational approach suggests that leadership style is based on the needs of followers (Robbins & Langton, 2000). The contingency approach suggests that the interaction of leaders, followers, and the situation determines which leadership style to use (Fiedler, 1971). Finally, the transactional approach is a social exchange between the leader and the expectations of followers (Heifetz & Sinder, 1991).

Blackboard.com

Since we were developing a blended learning program, and CUNY has a variety of students dispersed throughout the New York area, we needed an online component that would allow students to keep up with the stringent demands of the program. To fulfill our needs for an asynchronous course and online availability for students, we secured server space at CUNY Headquarters and offered the course to all CUNY students via Blackboard.com. Blackboard is an instructional platform that allows students to access and submit their work asynchronously. Students were required to sign onto Blackboard for a minimum of five hours per week. When students accessed the site, they were required to do the following: (a) read a book of a well-know leader, (b) participate in discussion board topics, (c) write reaction papers based on what they learned, and (d) find a leadership related case study that conformed to their discipline. Since all CUNY students were given the opportunity to participate in the program, we had students from social, economic, business, and political areas as well as a variety of other interests.

By assigning students to read about a leader, we addressed the situational component. Students were able to read for themselves how a particular leader acted in meeting real challenges. Students learned from their readings and gauged for themselves how their chosen leaders acted and related those actions using “virtual classrooms” (VCs). VCs are another aspect of Blackboard that allowed students to “come together”, online, synchronously to discuss their leaders and the leadership topics we assigned as part of the course. The VC has also provided direct access to professors and allowed students to discuss problems they were having with the coursework. Thus, enabling further clarification they required about leadership topics.

The weekly reaction papers were implemented to fulfill Writing Across the Curriculum mandates that CUNY had instituted a year earlier. Writing Across the Curriculum requires instructors to add writing components into their courses. Students had to write about leadership topics posted to the Blackboard web site. This requirement addressed the contingency component because students evaluated their own leaders and were able to discuss whether their leaders acted appropriately. Students actively traded ideas through their interactions. They were able to learn from each other as well as from their chosen leader. Additionally, the trait approach theory was incorporated because students discussed whether they thought their leaders were, in fact, born with their leadership skills or gained them through circumstance.

Finally, students were required to find and post a leadership case study to the Blackboard web site. The reason for this was twofold: (1) to give students the different perspectives of leadership styles, and (2) to increase their research skills. Since students were from various disciplines, their leaders acted differently from each other. For example, students recognized that a social leader would probably not act the same way a business leader would. This is what we hoped students

would learn. All of these Blackboard components allowed us to design the application piece of the course with greater ease.

Applied Leadership Components

Students received leadership theories, tactics, traits, topics, social exchange, skills, and situations through the Blackboard component of the course. We then devised the application part of the course. Students were to complete the following: (a) a roundtable discussion about leadership, (b) identify a real-world problem that required leadership to solve, (c) a leadership conference, and (d) a summer incubator wherein they would implement their leadership skills on the problem they identified.

The leadership roundtable discussion allowed students to meet each other and their instructors for the first time, face-to-face. Putting a face to a name was vital for completing the rest of the course and this was the ideal time and place to do it. Next, the roundtable discussion enhanced student's ability to communicate their ideas more clearly. A good leader is able to communicate effectively and the roundtable discussion allowed students to discuss their leaders and trade leadership theories and topics with each other. Finally, by participating in the roundtable discussion students gained critical thinking and interpersonal skills. Students formulated whether the leadership theories and tactics used by Bill Gates were the same as the ones used by Kofi Anan. Students were ultimately able to discuss the different styles of effective leadership.

The leadership conference was the most difficult piece to arrange because it required help from outside industry leaders. We wanted to assemble as many leaders as we could from the various disciplines represented by our students. We managed to gather Hays Steilberg, the Director of Executive Development for Bertlesmann North America, Mr. Theodore Kheel, the noted labor attorney who is the Director of the Carriage House, a non-profit organization concerned with environmental issues, and Mr. Neil Kleinman, the Director of The Center for an Urban Future.

The first half of the leadership conference enabled students to hear from these leaders firsthand about how they approached the topic of leadership. This is the basis of Bandura's Social Learning Theory. Students were able to hear how these leaders used their leadership skills throughout their careers. By learning how these leaders acted, students were able to learn effective leadership skills. In the second half of the conference, students articulated what they learned in the IVELP. Students presented their papers to the leaders in attendance and devised plans to solve their problems using the leadership skills they acquired through the IVELP. Some of the topics included: social, environmental, political, educational, and business issues. It was at this point that students displayed some of the characteristics of true leaders. Students were able to: communicate their vision and ideas, listen actively, provide constructive feedback, build relationships with

peers and subordinates, set goals, negotiate, solve problems, enhance their creativity, and use their analytical skills. Some of the students may have possessed these skills before the course even started, but we believe that based on pre- and post- observations of students, they all gained leadership experience through the program.

The final part of the program was the summer incubator. The summer incubator allowed students to put their ideas into actual practice. Students were given a small stipend to set their projects in motion. Remaining students met on a monthly basis to update their progress and provide insight to other students who may have been having problems. Some of the results include a culinary program for underprivileged children, a bookstore in an underserved area, help for the homeless, an online distribution system for Ugandan farmers, and minor educational and political reforms in certain areas. This was truly an indication that the leadership program worked.

A Brief Statistical Overview

Although this paper is a program design essay, we felt it was necessary to give a brief overview of student participant statistics. Due to the stringent demands of the course, we did not expect a huge turnout of students interested in participating in the IVELP. These students were taking full course loads at their respective institutions and the IVELP was not a credit-bearing course. Our first gathering was on a very snowy February morning. To our surprise, approximately 60 students from CUNY's 16 campuses showed up to hear about the program. We were able to sign up 43 students to participate in the online component. Of the 43, 32 students participated in some way in the online portion of the course, but because of their heavy course load, only a small student cohort completed all program requirements.

Interestingly, we had some students who asked to participate in as many activities as they could, knowing they would not be eligible for the summer incubator stipend. That meant there were varied amounts of students participating in the case study, roundtable, conference and leadership day respectively. Finally, we had eight students complete the course in its entirety. All eight of those students implemented their leadership projects in some way, shape or form.

Conclusion

Leadership education programs are abundant. They exist in many colleges and universities throughout the world. Many pedagogies and curriculum designs embrace leadership education in some form. The administrators of the Institute for Virtual Enterprise, a City University of New York Special Initiative, have designed a multifaceted approach to leadership education. Using case studies, roundtable discussions, a conference, and a full day dedicated to honing

leadership skills, we believe we have found the right mix to engage students and mold the future leaders of tomorrow.

Of course, no curriculum design is perfect. We have taken into consideration the feedback from all student participants, educators, and private sector partners. In the second iteration of the IVELP in 2004, students worked together in teams and worked on a specific problem within their communities. This adjustment built teamwork skills and allowed students to feed off each other even more than they did in the first run of the program. Additionally, more enhancements have been made, including the awarding of elective credits for students throughout CUNY, and assigning specific leadership mentors to individual students. For more information about the IVELP, or to follow its progress, go to www.ive.cuny.edu.

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Reel Leadership II: Getting Emotional at the Movies

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Abstract

Emotional intelligence (EI) is emerging as an area of interest in leadership development. Recent research stresses how valuable strong EI skills are to the success of the person, team, organization, and society. Unlike IQ emotional intelligence skills can be improved with focused training, coaching, and lifespan experiences. Effectively used, film can be a worthy instrument for educators, facilitators, trainers, and coaches to bring to their professional toolboxes to assist in EI skill building efforts.

Introduction

We present a sequel to last winter's *Journal of Leadership Education* article entitled, *Reel Leadership: Hollywood Takes the Leadership Challenge* (Graham, Sincoff, Baker and Ackermann, 2003). "Reel Leadership" focused on the application of film to leadership practices from Kouzes and Posner's popular book, *The Leadership Challenge*. In *Reel Leadership II: Getting Emotional at the Movies*, the long-standing interest in emotional intelligence (EI) motivates us to combine the use of film with applied leadership development through EI skill building. "Guided viewing" (McFarland, 2001) with movies is our focus, and we structure it according to the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) model developed by Reuven Bar-On (Table 1). We discuss practical issues and conclude with an EI resource for guided viewing of movies (Table 2).

Opening Credits: Background on Emotional Intelligence (EI)

We express cognitive ability as IQ (Intelligence Quotient) and define it as executive functions such as the ability to concentrate, plan, organize, articulate, comprehend, assimilate and interpret facts, and as including memory, reasoning, recall, symbolic thinking, and visual-motor performance (Stein & Book, 2000).

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a term formally introduced by Yale researchers Salovey and Mayer (1990). Confirming its broad appeal, emotional intelligence is the topic of one of the most widely read Harvard Business Review articles. It was written by Daniel Goleman in the mid-1990s (Stein & Book, 2000).

The roots of emotional intelligence theory go back further. In the 1920s, American psychologist Thorndike discussed the existence of “social intelligence.” Two decades later, Wechsler expanded this concept by proposing that emotionally related skills are determinants of personal success (Stein & Book, 2000).

Several other researchers explored the early concepts of EI from the 1950s to the 1980s, notably Albert Ellis and his study of understanding emotions in a reflective, cognitive way – the source of his Rational Emotive Therapy (Stein & Book, 2000). In the early 1980s, emotional intelligence gained widespread recognition as representative of one of the distinct areas of education professor Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences – specifically, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences that reflect non-intellectual abilities (Epstein, 1998).

Salovey and Mayer continued their research in the early 1990s, and Goleman further established EI in the public’s awareness with subsequent books about the topic (Stein & Book, 2000). Emotional intelligence integrates now into the academic, corporate, and social mainstream as both an area of research and a recognized skill set that individuals develop.

Reuven Bar-On’s research in the 1980s established a model for emotional intelligence. His in-depth, longitudinal study of emotional competencies as factors in achievement shaped his definition (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). He developed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) instrument to measure scales of emotional competencies (EI) distinct from the cognitive domain (IQ) (Bar-On & Handley, 1999).

Table 1 shows Bar-On’s identification of five realms from the EQ-i instrument containing 15 scales of emotional intelligence. He defines them as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, as cited in Stein & Book, 2000, p.14).

Plot Summary: Why Should We Care About EI Skill Building for Leadership Development?

We acknowledge the self as the starting point for leadership development (Greenleaf, 1970). Our emotions, infused as they are with our inner development, factor into our leadership ability. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) echo the findings of George and Bettenhausen as well as Ashkanasy and Tse when they declare “leaders’ emotional states and actions do affect how the people they lead will feel and therefore perform. How well leaders manage their moods and affect everyone else’s moods, then, becomes not just a private matter, but a factor in how well a business will do” (p. 18).

Research findings in business case studies detail positive outcomes linking leadership success and strong emotional intelligence competencies (Cherniss, n.d.). Stein and Book (2000) cite studies that indicate on average 6% of job success relates to IQ, whereas EI predicts from 27% to 45% of it. Goleman (1995) suggests that IQ level may gain employment for oneself, but that one’s EI level accounts far more for career advancement. As Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) affirm, “The glue that holds people together in a team, and that commits people to an organization, is the emotions they feel. How well leaders manage and direct those feelings to help a group meet its goals depends on their level of emotional self-intelligence” (p. 20).

We consider high emotional intelligence integral to leadership ability. Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al. (as cited in Northouse, 2002) developed a skills-based model of leadership with components that include competencies and individual attributes that complement the Bar-On model of emotional intelligence (Stein & Book, 2000). The problem-solving and social judgment skills of the first model reflect similarities to several of Bar-On’s realms and scales of emotional intelligence competencies, including flexibility and interpersonal skills (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., as cited in Northouse, 2002; Stein & Book, 2000).

Table 1. BarOn EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory) realms and scales

Emotional Quotient Inventory		Emotional competencies defined as:
Realms	Scales	
Intrapersonal the state of the “inner self” regarding feelings, and life direction	1. Emotional Self-Awareness 2. Assertiveness 3. Independence 4. Self-Regard 5. Self-Actualization	Understanding one’s own feelings Expressing and standing up for oneself Being self-directed and self-controlled Acceptance of oneself as good Attaining one's full potential
Interpersonal relating and sustaining with others	6. Empathy 7. Social Responsibility 8. Interpersonal Relationships	Awareness and understanding others’ feelings Cooperative and constructive member of one’s social group Establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationships
Adaptability comprehension of and flexibility to demanding situations	9. Problem Solving 10. Reality Testing 11. Flexibility	Defining problems with effective solutions Congruency in subjective emotions with objective reality Adjusting to changing situations
Stress Management managing duress and maintaining control	12. Stress Tolerance 13. Impulse Control	Coping successfully with adversity and strong emotions To resist or delay an impulse, drive, or action
General Mood life attitude and mental outlook	14. Happiness 15. Optimism	Enjoyment and satisfaction with one’s life and oneself Positive attitude, especially during adversity

Source: Stein & Book (2000). *The EQ Edge*. Toronto, CA: Multi-Health Systems.

The skills-based approach, like the Bar-On model, assumes that personal capabilities are acquired over one’s lifespan, thus allowing individuals the capacity for leadership development (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., as cited

in Northouse, 2002). Therefore, in contrast to IQ, which peaks and stabilizes after age 17 (Stein & Book, 2000), EI improves throughout adulthood (Bar-On, as cited in Stein & Book, 2000; Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Stein and Book (2000) maintain that because emotional intelligence is “made up of short term, tactical, dynamic skills that can be brought into play as the situation warrants...individual building blocks of emotional intelligence – and its overall structure – can be improved by means of training, coaching, and experience” (p. 21).

We use Bar-On’s Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptability, Stress Management, and General Mood realms and their scales in Table 1 (as cited in Stein & Book, 2000) as our framework to show how we may enhance emotional intelligence competencies for leadership development through film viewing experiences.

Intermission: Movies as the Bridge to Developing Emotional Intelligence

Empowered leadership and management skills require self-awareness, personal strength, and relationship-building abilities – all components of emotional intelligence (Kruger, 1999; Drucker, 2001). Movies are an ideal framework to illustrate EI competencies.

Why use movies as a training tool to deliver a strong focus in leadership education? Our backgrounds are in organizational leadership education, assessment, and training. Our knowledge of adult education and student development reinforces for us the benefit of looking for qualities of design involving choices in novelty and variety – that is, effective, accessible methods and tools to engage learners at all levels (Schlechty, n.d.; Kuh, 2002). Movies are a universal experience for participants in leadership development and educational environments. The environments range from youth activities to adult education, from classrooms to community service groups, and from college-level student leadership programs to leadership degree curricula.

According to Higgins and Striegel (2003), “What movies do more than anything else is to provide a fictional situation that can be translated into a hypothetical situation in the workplace. They serve as launching points for discussions about real life cases” (p. 4). Movies, therefore, are learning conduits that bring focus to issues dealing with the human aspects of an organization (Graham, Baker, Sincoff & Ackermann, 2003).

We explore why movies appeal to people as a popular learning application. As Hofman (2000) states, people praise “films that grapple with ethical and personal quandaries played out by realistically nuanced characters”, allowing viewers to “vicariously gather the life experience that is crucial to the exploration of [EI skill] formation” (Frank & McBee, 2003, p. 5).

Leadership educators communicate to learners that movies offer a bridge to learning capabilities that affect their personal and professional growth. Thus, we support that:

- EI skill development is elemental to individual and organizational growth.
- EI skills are improved with targeted training.
- Movies are an entertaining and persuasive way to boost EI learning.

The remainder of our article shares recommendations for facilitators of leadership programs. Readers will find a table of select movies matched to EI competencies to apply as a teaching resource in their development of leaders.

Action! Using Movies to Develop Emotional Intelligence

Guided Viewing

- **Definition and Purpose:** The “guided viewing of film” facilitates the lesson for participants (Hebert & Spiers Neumeister, 2001, p. 33). Viewers watch movies or selected scenes, and structured questioning explores the concepts observed. People relate the movie content to aspects of their own lives, and “the information and understanding engendered by this interaction may then be used to cope more effectively with difficult situations or emotions” (Frank & McBee, 2003, p. 5).

The prerequisites to such learning are: (a) adequate preparation by the presenters prior to the guided viewing, which leads to (b) skilled, focused facilitation during the process. It is, however, the knowledge of the process, enthusiasm for the audience, and integration of the EI learning objectives that make facilitators effective. Learners respond to this use of movies and, in turn, significantly enrich their grasp of the targeted concepts.

- **Process:** Learning takes place during the viewing, mid-point, and the final debriefing process (McFarland, 2001). According to Shrodes (as cited in Frank & McBee, 2003), the stages of the guided viewing process are the same as those used for guided reading. While observing the actors and scenes in context to themselves, viewers may experience:
 1. Identification (seeing similarities).
 2. Catharsis (experiencing the emotions depicted).
 3. Insight (reflecting on their identification).
 4. Universalization (employing newfound concepts to their own relevant scenarios).

Our experience with students confirms that when they are debriefed in class after viewing the movie clips, their concepts emerge for discussion. Some of the ideas were not grasped by *all* students at first. However, after continued discussion of the scenes, these varying concepts became clearer for all.

- Method: Viewing the films follows this typical sequence:
 1. Pre-screen movies and selected scenes for the EI skills highlighted.
 2. Plan for the movie scene(s) selected to run, usually five to 15 minutes.
 3. Cue the DVD or videotape to the start point ahead of time.
 4. Set-up the scene: Introduce content, characters, relationships, and EI points to observe.
 5. Break at “pause points,” if needed, to reflect and discuss (McFarland, 2001).
 6. Follow with a debrief session of questions targeted to EI learning outcomes.
(Graham, Baker, Sincoff & Ackermann, 2003; McFarland, 2001)

- Benefits using movies via the guided viewing process: There are several benefits, including:
 1. The media are easily available and inexpensive to rent or buy. This includes videotape, DVD, cable subscription, or internet download rental for one-time viewing.
 2. The ease of administration and simpler technology appeal to us since our environments are becoming increasingly multi-tasked and overloaded.
 3. Movies are tailored to the audience and setting since they represent a variety of EI competencies and interactions.
 4. Movies appeal to visual learners, who engage several senses.
 5. Popular movies hold audience interest readily because of the pervasiveness of them as an entertainment form in our culture.
 6. Movies are inspirational, challenge thought, and stimulate free-flow discussions that promote learning.
(Clemens & Wolf, 1999; Frank & McBee, 2003; Higgins & Streigel, 1999; Jones, 2002).

Selection of Movies and Scenes

- Movie Genres and Range of Selections: Decisions, Decisions: Facilitators and viewers are receptive to recognizable, easy-to-find movies full of scenes that are great discussion starters in guided viewing sessions. Movies that are recent offer a fresh perspective on emotional intelligence since well-known, older films are used extensively in management and leadership training environments.

Hollywood filmmakers deliver the majority of popular films used in training applications. Drama, comedy, adventure, and animation are a few of the film genres that facilitators select, ranging from classic to contemporary movies.

Locate lesser-known movies, such as independent (“indie”) or international productions, by scouting online and print reviews or word-of-mouth recommendations. They yield scenes, as well, that are worth seeking out.

- Audience: Who’s Here? The learning audience may influence your effective selection of movies. Is the group representative of a corporate, non-profit, or dot.com culture? Is the session for youth programming (e.g., 4-H clubs) or university-level programming (e.g., college student leadership programs).

The generational mix can be evenly distributed across the generations or weighed toward a particular type, such as the 1950s and 1960s “Boomers” or the 1970s and 1980s “Gen-Xers.” Pop culture media like movies influence generations and organizational groups differently (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Consider, for example, *It’s a Wonderful Life* (1946), *Star Wars* (1977), or *Miracle* (2003). Which of these movies will speak to your audience? Our criteria for selecting the best choice of film include choosing classic, fantasy or reality-based movies to motivate better group interaction.

- Criteria for Scene Selection: Who Views? Facilitators consider scenes that reflect an appropriately matched use for the training objectives, setting, and participants. While the Motion Picture Association of America (MPAA) movie ratings of G to PG-13 lend themselves to most training environments, critically acclaimed movies with more restricted view ratings may contain scenes that are valuable and appropriate for viewing by general audiences.

Copyright Considerations: Yes and No: Facilitators benefit by remaining aware of copyright regulations and fair use guidelines. Recording videotaped or digitized media for personal or educational use has a fine line of protection or restriction that may vary by circumstances. If unclear, facilitators may do best to rent, buy or otherwise gain the appropriate permissions or institutional policy interpretations for using videotapes, DVDs and other media versions of movies for educational or non-commercial, professional purposes.

- Technological Realities: Glitches Happen: As always, back-up training materials are advisable when using technology-reliant training approaches since technical mishaps may prevent movie viewing. As usual, having alternate internet access, back-up discs, overhead transparencies, and appropriate printed handouts safeguard the presentations.

One Tool for the EI Toolbox: Movie Guide Showing EI Competencies

In Table 2 of *Reel Leadership II: Getting Emotional at the Movies*, a movie resource guide presents EI competencies as defined by Bar-On (1999). It is based on the following points:

- Table 2 applies attention to EI competencies based on the Bar-On model (as cited in Stein & Book, 2000) applied for the first time here, rather than more widely used leadership and management themes.
- The film focus is beyond the standard and often overused films (e.g., *Dead Poet’s Society*, *Apollo 13*, and *Norma Rae*). Movies tied to EI competencies are presented that are more recent (2002 and later) than those usually seen in leadership and management applications.

Table 2. Movies selected for an emotional intelligence (EI) focus for guided viewing based on the BarOn EQ-i model

Movie Title (2002 and later)	BarOn EQ-i Emotional Scales	Plot Summary with EI Focus
Amelie	Happiness Optimism	A whimsical film wherein the protagonist overcomes a lonely childhood and consciously brings joy and kindness to the lives of others in an inventive and surprising fashion.
Antwone Fisher	emotional self-awareness, self-regard impulse control	A young man with gifted abilities gains understanding on the origins of and control over his temper. Aided by his Naval psychiatrist, he achieves closure for himself and his family members. Based on real events.
Around the World in 80 Days	Independence problem solving flexibility	Around-the-world, fantasy adventure. Independence, flexibility, and innovation are shown by misfit travelers on a voyage of inventions and discovery of inner strengths.
Changing Lanes	Social responsibility stress tolerance impulse control	A failure of several emotional competencies results when a traffic encounter turns to confrontational, then into a vendetta when two people face critical business and personal deadlines on the same day.
Master and Commander: The Far Side of the World	Independence self-actualization problem solving	A well-crafted, historical sea adventure with a comparison and contrast of the emotional and intellectual competencies of two leaders – the ship’s captain and the ship’s surgeon/naturalist.

<p>The Matrix Reloaded</p>	<p>social responsibility problem solving stress tolerance</p>	<p>Philosophical, high-action science fiction sequel regarding the heroic efforts of embattled inhabitants to save their world down to the deadline in this futuristic setting. Personal and team relationships.</p>
<p>Miracle</p>	<p>Assertiveness self-actualization stress tolerance</p>	<p>Based on the USA 1980 Olympic gold medal hockey team, it gives a notable perspective on the concepts of team building and leadership strategy, centered on the character of its coach. Inspired from the coach's life story.</p>
<p>Seabiscuit</p>	<p>emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationships, problem solving</p>	<p>With intuitive recognition, strongly held beliefs, and unwavering commitment, a team of three men transforms an underdog racehorse of questionable pedigree and ability to an inspiration for the nation and as the winning, best-loved sports legend of the 1930s Depression. Based on real events.</p>
<p>Secondhand Lions</p>	<p>Assertiveness interpersonal relationships, reality testing</p>	<p>A boy's summer with two uncles with colorful backgrounds leads to their trust and understanding of one another. The uncles' empathy responds to their nephew's needs. Under their care, he learns to assert for himself what he needs as an individual.</p>
<p>Something's Gotta Give</p>	<p>Emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationships</p>	<p>Self-realization and relationship development are the focus for a mature couple in this lighthearted comedy.</p>
<p>Spider-Man 2</p>	<p>self-regard social responsibility reality testing</p>	<p>Explores the person behind the hero's mask, including doubts, angst, and frailties. Emotions are shown which impede self-regard, and how even superheroes overcome bad days for better ones.</p>

The Terminal	Empathy problem solving flexibility	A foreign traveler left with no country or passport must adapt with ingenuity and flexibility to inhabit the safe zone of an airline terminal while avoiding officials and deportation.
Under the Tuscan Sun	Independence problem solving happiness/optimism	A newly divorced American woman establishes outward independence and finds inner strength after transplanting herself to the Tuscany region of Italy, where she transforms her forsaken home, her friendships, and herself into something better and beautiful.
Veronica Guerin	Assertiveness social responsibility stress tolerance	Based on the life of the Irish journalist assassinated for exposing the extent of the organized drug trade in mid-1990s Dublin. Her death galvanized public response and forced major changes in Parliamentary law.
Whale Rider	Assertiveness self-regard self-actualization	A young, Maori girl comes of age in present-day New Zealand, challenging the segregation of tribal rites and traditions of leadership for males. She defines her role within herself and for her Maori community.

Sources: Stein, & Book (2000). *The EQ Edge*. Toronto, CA: Multi-Health Systems.

The Internet Movie Database (<http://www.imdb.com>).

The Closing Scene

Because people are storytellers at heart (Thornburg, 2003), movies were created as just one of many forms used for telling human stories. They serve to bridge emotionally significant insight and personal growth. Our learners construct personal meaning through this medium on their journey of leadership development. Their enhanced emotional capabilities extend from inside themselves outward to each other and their communities.

Ultimately, we hope to encourage leaders who are not only cognitively intelligent, but also emotionally wise. With that wisdom, they may seek out organizations “worthy of their respect...where their intelligence is exploited in the right way,

where it is put to its best use, while it is appreciated and rewarded” (Daughten, 2004, D-2).

So dim the lights, hand out the popcorn, and pass the tissues. Now settle back and encourage your leaders that there really is something to get emotional about at the movies!

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Modeling Service Learning for Future Leaders of Youth Organizations

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Abstract

This project provides instructors seeking to integrate Service Learning (SL) into collegiate level courses a model for future use and adoption. Approximately 60 students in a collegiate youth leadership course and two collegiate student organizations participated in a SL project at an environmental center in West Philadelphia. The majority of students who participated were enrolled in either the youth leadership development course or in a special topics course on SL. In both instances students were exposed to service learning from an historical and operational perspective and participated in guided reflection at the completion of the project. The SL project allowed the instructors to model a unique experiential learning strategy that could be adopted by future agricultural education instructors, 4-H youth development educators, collegiate or youth organizations.

Introduction

Service learning is more than conducting a community service project like picking up trash in a park or volunteering at a local food bank. Service learning involves connecting individuals with the community. It is more than just doing a one time project where you go in and provide a service for others. It is systematic process that takes place through a structured framework and involves the community in the planning, implementation, and evaluation. Academicians note that service learning provides hands-on-experiences for students while connecting academic theory to the real world (Zlotkowski, 1998). Historically, chapter FFA advisors and 4-H club leaders have utilized community service and/or service learning to support community needs and contribute to local, state, national, and international initiatives. These community based efforts reflect some of the core philosophical

components of these organizations. For example, the motto of the FFA is “*Learning to Do, Doing to Learn, Earning to Live, Living to Serve*” (National FFA, 2004). The 4-H pledge states, “*I pledge My head to clear thinking, My heart to greater loyalty, My hands to larger service, and My health to better living, For my club, my community, my country, and my world*” (Pennsylvania 4-H, 2004). Additionally, there are numerous opportunities for youth and collegiate groups to secure reward and recognition for their involvement in a service learning project.

Anderson (1998) defines SL as both a philosophy and instructional strategy. He believes that from a philosophical perspective SL helps students develop a sense of civic and social responsibility. From an instructional approach he notes SL engages students in real community needs through active engagement and experiential based learning. Furthermore, the value of exposing future educators to SL has been associated with positive attitudes about community participation during their internship experience (Wade, 1995) and resulted in gains in their professional attitudes and values (Root, 1997).

From a multicultural perspective Segiel (cited in Anderson, 1998) noted that pre-service teachers who participated in a service project as part of a diversity course increased their sensitivity on diversity issues and showed more depth about their responses to diverse students. Building community among diverse learners can help future educators attain culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2002). Boyle-Baise and Sleeter (1998) feel that community service/service learning can provide pre-service teachers with opportunities for cross-cultural engagement and teacher development, however, they caution that these programs must be well planned, part of an on-going learning process, and contain multiple opportunities for education and guided reflection.

Service learning is an excellent means to model and involve students in an active learning experience and help meet community needs. Bonwell and Eison (1991) strongly support integrating active learning in higher education. They conclude that “a thoughtful and scholarly approach to skillful teaching requires that faculty become knowledgeable about the many ways strategies promoting active learning have been successfully used across the disciplines” (p.1).

Methods

During the fall semester 2003, 65 individuals spent a weekend participating in a service learning project at Cobbs Creek Community Environmental Education Center in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Cobbs Creek Park is comprised of approximately 300 acres of riparian forest, meadows, flood plains, and waterways in West Philadelphia (Cobbs Creek Park, 2004). The facility is one of three environmental education centers located in Philadelphia’s 8,900 acre Fairmount Park system. The Fairmount Park system began when a track of land was purchased in 1855 and was then dedicated as a public park. As Philadelphia began to rapidly expand the city realized land needed to be set aside for recreation and to

sustain the environmental quality of the surrounding water supply (Fairmount Park, 2004).

Participants included students enrolled in *AEE 311 – Developing Youth Leadership*, student members of the Pennsylvania State University MANRA (Minorities in Agriculture and Natural Resources Association) chapter, Pennsylvania State University Collegiate FFA members, graduate students, and faculty members from Agricultural and Extension Education. As part of the course(s) students were provided with information on how to incorporate SL into youth organizations/programming. This included the importance of providing participants background information on the SL issue, providing a level of involvement, and securing commitment by the participants. Information on sources of resource attainment, funding, and recognition for service learning projects was also shared. The value and process of guided reflection following completion of the project was modeled and shared with the students.

Purpose

The goals of this project were twofold: (1) to involve students in a service learning project so they could replicate the components within their collegiate organizations and when they were youth advisors or club leaders, and (2) to work with others in a multicultural environment.

Results

Upon arriving at the environmental center, participants were given a brief historical background and tour of the facility. The projects and tasks assigned to the group were determined by the staff at Cobb's Creek. All students were given instruction on the safe and proper use of hand tools and identification of poisonous and invasive plants. The staff outlined the day's activities and split the group into teams. The activities that were to be performed were: collecting trash and debris, digging trenches for erosion control, working in a riparian forest removing invasive plants, clearing an area for planting shrubs and trees, and planting approximately 120 native trees and shrubs. Later that day the students had the opportunity to visit historical sites in the center of the city of Philadelphia. The group ate dinner together that evening and left for home the next morning. This project was funded through a College of Agricultural Sciences Seed grant that was secured by the authors. Student meals, transportation, lodging, and snacks were included in the grant.

Once the group returned to campus students participated in a guided reflection session, developed a reflection paper and a poster/web site based on their experiences with the project. Students were guided through questions that asked about their feelings and attitudes toward the project, their experiences in working with others from a different background or race, and what they were committed to doing now that the event was over.

Overall comments about the SL project were positive and included statements like “I enjoyed working with everyone from the project. I started making friends and talking with people as soon as I entered the van.” – “I didn’t realize that Philadelphia had an environmental focus. It was weird going into the “city” and seeing that they face some of the same issues that we face in rural areas.” – “I would like the FFA chapter and the MANRA chapter to get together on campus. This should not be end of us doing something together. We need to take this experience and build upon it.”

Suggestions for future SL projects include “We should go to a rural area next time so that others can see our perspective and where we come from.” – “We should have stayed longer and had the opportunity to visit and see more things within the Philadelphia area.” – “We need to do something to the State College area. We have a lot of stuff around here that we could do to show the diversity within Central Pennsylvania.” Future plans include incorporating the SL project into the course and to continue to collaborate with the MANRA chapter and Collegiate FFA.

Conclusions

Student comments could be categorized into the two distinct areas: exposure and continuous action. Comments made by students before and during the event seemed to support the idea that there needs to be greater opportunities for learning about others. Students’ suggestions supported the notion of in-depth activities that allowed for individuals to move out of their comfort zone. Situations such as these will possibly assist the learning process and as students commented, “will make you really think about who you are and where you come from.” The second theme, continuous action was seen as integral part of the exposure process. Students as well as the community organizers supported this idea with remarks that this should not be a one time event. Single exposure activities only help to reinforce negative stereotypes by giving students a glimpse of other cultures and not providing mechanisms to discuss and reflect on the activity and observed environment. Essentially, when activities are a part of an organization's structure, it is incorporated into the social fabric. Events that are incorporated into classes or clubs help to institutionalize concepts and beliefs.

Comments and suggestions from the students and faculty involved were summarized and taken into account for the fall 2004 semester service learning component in the course. For example, the decision to work locally was incorporated into the planning. In 2004, collegiate organization members and the class will work with the county United Way to participate in a “Day of Caring. The focus of the United Way event will focus on service to military families in the area. To include additional youth leadership organizations an invitation to participate with the class was extended to the collegiate 4-H chapter at the institution. A review of course evaluations yielded numerous positive comments

about the service learning component both from participant and future youth organization leader perspectives.

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Women and Negotiations: Unveiling Some Secrets to Success

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Abstract

Effective leaders are decision makers, strategic planners, calculated risk-takers, and highly skilled negotiators. Interestingly, the critical skill of negotiating is not one that most women naturally demonstrate. Because the majority of women in the workplace do not negotiate, they often do not advance as quickly as they should, nor do their salaries increase as rapidly as those of their male counterparts. In this article, the authors will talk about some of the “secrets of negotiating success” that have been used for decades by those who have reached the top of their career ladders. These “secrets” include three critical attitudes and 15 strategies that may help to position women for success in the bargaining arena. In addition, the authors challenge leadership educators to develop experiences, courses, and modules for women to enhance their negotiating skills.

Introduction

In today’s competitive job market the race for leadership positions has already begun before many women get to the starting gate. While the number of women in the labor force increased from 43% to 60% from 1970 to 2002 and the percentage of women in managerial and professional positions increased from 22% to 34% from 1983 to 2002, professional women’s salaries still represent only 75% of men’s salaries (U.S. Department of Labor, 2004). While *some* of this inequity can be explained by the types of jobs that women enter – more stereotypically “female” occupations with lower salaries – much of the disparity can be explained by the fact that women simply do not negotiate very well (or at all) for what they deserve in terms of salary, bonuses, fringe benefits, and

perquisites on the job. As Rose and Danner (1998) noted, women are “underbenefitted,” particularly in terms of salary.

In fact, Babcock and Laschever (2003) found that only 7% of female master’s degree graduates, compared with 57% of male master’s graduates, negotiated for a higher salary than was originally offered by the employer. The male graduates were able to successfully negotiate 7% higher salaries than the female graduates, translating into a lifetime of reduced earnings for the females. Thus, the effects of “not negotiating” surface immediately in the workplace and are compounded daily throughout a woman’s career. In this article, we define the term *negotiations* and look at some of the particular problems and issues faced by women as they enter the negotiating arena. Further, we discuss three attitudes that are critical to women’s ability to negotiate effectively, followed by an overview of the “essentials” involved in the negotiating process itself.

Negotiations Defined

Negotiations has been defined as “all cases in which two or more parties are communicating, each for influencing the other’s decision” (Fischer, 1983, p.183). It “permeates the interactions of almost everyone in groups and organizations” (Robbins, 1998, p. 449). In fact, according to Wyatt (1999), “the ability to negotiate plays a key role in one’s professional and personal life” (p. 22).

We cannot escape it. Negotiation is inevitable and a constant. We negotiate with our partners or spouses over what to eat or what television program to watch. We negotiate with our children over the amount of their allowance. We negotiate with co-workers over the schedule for vacation days. However, when it comes to negotiating our own salaries and benefits, something goes awry. Women bristle at the thought of “fighting” for what they deserve and are often willing to settle for what is offered to them at the outset (Miller & Miller, 2002). This is frequently quite a bit less than the employer is willing to pay. In fact, “women may unduly penalize themselves by failing to engage in negotiations when such action would be in their best interests” (Wyatt, 1999, p. 22).

Problems and Issues Women Face in Negotiations

Women hold a number of beliefs that prevent them from engaging effectively in negotiations. Not the least of which is anxiety about the process itself (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). Women tend to undervalue themselves, suffer from a low sense of personal entitlement (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Bierema, 1999; Rose and Danner, 1998), expect less for themselves, and do not believe they deserve any more than they are offered (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Whitacker & Austin, 2001). In Bierema’s (1999) study of women executives, one woman talked about the “grateful” factor. Women so devalue their talents that they are grateful to have been “given” a job which they often attribute to sheer luck. With regard to this “gratitude attitude,” Miller and Miller (2002) indicated that women “tend to be

flattered by the mere offer of employment and are afraid to do anything that might jeopardize it. Often, this rules out the possibility of asking for anything else” (p. 167). In essence, when women ask for too little, they reduce their worth in their superiors’ eyes (Heim, 1993). In fact, “employers may think less of you if you do not negotiate” (Miller & Miller, 2002, p. 168). Whitaker and Austin (2001) put it this way, “Your perceived value goes up if you show your new employers you’re prepared to negotiate” (p. 78).

To make matters worse, women are typically unaware of their value in the marketplace (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Rose & Danner, 1998) and may be unsure of what kind of counter proposals to make when an initial offer is “on the table.” What happens then, is that when they do ask for more, “they ask for too little” (Miller & Miller, 2002, p. 167). Furthermore, when women take the time to conduct market research and make comparisons, many compare themselves only with other women who are also undervalued (Rose & Danner, 1998; Tannen, 1994; Walsh, 1997). This compounds the negotiating problem even more. The outcome of not starting at the highest salary level possible is a lifetime of net income loss that is compounded each year (Miller & Miller, 2002).

In Western society “money is related to status and success” (Heim, 1993, p. 232). It stands to reason, then, that in the workplace, employers view candidates with higher compensation histories as being more capable employees (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Rose & Danner, 1998) whether this perception has any basis in reality. Historically, women have firmly believed that if they are nice, work hard, and follow the rules, advancement and salary increases will follow (Bierema, 1999). Therefore, they wait to be noticed, rather than ask for what they want because they feel that their meritorious work will ultimately be rewarded (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). Yet, in the workplace the “squeaky wheel usually gets the grease.” So employers promote men to higher positions, increase their salaries, and give them bonuses or other perks because they ask and because they do not want to lose valuable male leadership talent to other companies (Babcock & Laschever, 2003).

One of the biggest problems women have to overcome as they negotiate is their fear of harming or destroying their relationship with the person with whom they are negotiating (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). From childhood women are socialized to believe that relationships are important, even personally defining, and are to be cherished. So, as negotiators, women are extremely concerned about maintaining their personal and professional relationships, being assertive but not too aggressive, and yet getting the job done through “hard-nosed” focused bargaining (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). Miller and Miller (2002) added that women use a “relational” style of negotiation, and that men negotiate using a “competitive” style. They concluded that women consider it rude to jump right into negotiation without first engaging in social conversation, while men want simply to build their credibility, followed immediately by the negotiation.

Unquestionably women must be aware that negotiation is an essential aspect of being an effective leader. They need to recognize the advantages and disadvantages of using different negotiating styles. In addition, women must be equipped with the tools and skills to negotiate effectively. Based on current trends and research, a women's lack of competitiveness in the negotiating arena continues to be problematic. Consequently, we must communicate essential negotiating skills and attitudes to women leadership students as a means of ensuring their ability to move into progressively more responsible positions in their organizations and to do so with the resources they need to be successful.

Essential Attitudes for Negotiations

Identified below are three absolutely critical attitudes that women must internalize if they are to become successful negotiators and leaders. These attitudes form a solid foundation for personal and professional negotiations.

- *You must want, but not need the job.* This attitude is the most important and over-riding one that women must take into a negotiating session. If she needs the job for any reason (e.g., financial, positional authority, prestige, etc.), she will likely accept less in terms of salary, benefits, perquisites, and other perks (Mcgrath, 1988). Then she will feel badly about herself and her relationship with the organization from the outset; moreover, she will likely make poor decisions in order to keep the position. If she “wants” the job (e.g., to make a difference), she can negotiate more objectively. She can also reject the offer if it is not in line with her expectations.
- *Always be honest and true to yourself.* Also keep in mind that employers usually start their salary negotiations at the low end of the salary range (Miller & Miller, 2002) so there is room to ask for more money. Research the market from time-to-time to see what you are worth and use that information when asking for a salary increase (Miller & Miller, 2002). Remember, however, that if you suggest you have a job offer from a competing institution, you must be ready to accept it because your current employer may be delighted to see you go. Remember that you always lose credibility when you bluff.
- *You are in charge; Act like it.* Remember that you are in the best position to negotiate what you want and are worth *before* you sign on the dotted line, not after.

The Negotiating Process

Once women adopt the appropriate attitude, they can and should enter the negotiations arena prepared for a collaborative discussion. In fact, according to Babcock and Laschever (2003), in order to avoid the anxiety typically associated

with negotiations, women should view the process as an opportunity to problem solve with the opposite side. With that said, here are some of the strategies women should use as they negotiate:

- *Research the organization comprehensively* (Rose & Danner, 1998). In fact, she should know more about the institution than those who are employed there. Here are just a few of the issues about which she should be thoroughly familiar.
 1. Salaries –
 - What are the salaries of people in comparable positions?
 - How do salaries “fit” within national, state, and regional norms?
 - What is the impact of state/local income tax and the cost of living on your take-home pay?
 2. Fringe Benefits –
 - What does the benefit package include?
 - How much of base salary (percentage-wise) is the benefit package?
 - How much does the organization contribute to retirement, health coverage, etc.? What will you be expected to contribute?
 3. Policies on Promotion –
 - Can you negotiate early review toward promotion?
 - What are criteria against which you will be judged?
 4. Moving Expenses –
 - Are moving expenses covered?
 5. Signing Bonus –
 - Is a signing bonus feasible?
 6. Salary Increases –
 - How are salary increases determined? Merit? Across-the-board? Combination?
 - What perks are available for peak performers?
 7. Typical “Golden Parachute” or Exit Conditions –
 - When you are ready to leave the institution, what conditions will prevail? If possible, negotiate your exit from the position when you accept it (i.e., when nobody is frustrated or angry).
- *Complete an accurate, comprehensive assessment of your skills based on the organization’s needs.* An objective overview of her strengths and weaknesses will enable her to articulate for her prospective and current employer why she is worth the salary, benefits, promotional opportunity, etc. she is requesting (Moore, 2000; Rose & Danner, 1998; Whitaker & Austin, 2001).
- *Do absolutely NO negotiations until you are the candidate-of-choice.* Her first effort is to make the employer want her to join the organization. She should work hard to demonstrate that she is the right person for the job and that the organization will not be able to reach maximum potential without her involvement. Do not talk about salary expectations until a finalist (Rose & Danner, 1998).

- *Practice and use a coach.* Practice answers to questions, particularly those about salary and the need for additional resources, with a coach. In other words, write and rehearse a script (Whitaker & Austin, 2001) so that the language needed to use in negotiations becomes part of one's repertoire. Project an air of confidence and knowledge presenting self to the prospective employer.
- *Throughout the process, emphasize your interest in the position and your "fit" with the organization.* Be enthusiastic about working in the organization and do not badmouth former employers. Employers want people who feel good about the organization to work there (Babcock & Laschever, 2003).
- *Salary is the most critical factor in your negotiations.*
 1. List expected salary as "negotiable" on applications and during the interview.
 2. Negotiate salary first because it is the critical variable. You can waste valuable time on incidentals and then not reach agreement because the institution will not pay what one expects or deserves.
 3. Base your salary negotiations on market value and not on your current salary (Miller & Miller, 2002). "Knowledge is power" (Babcock & Laschever, 2003, p. 59). So make sure that you have adequately researched the market and know the market value of the position you are negotiating, not just for women in similar positions, but for both men and women (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Moore, 2000; Whitaker & Austin, 2001). Use every available resource to research the market so that you know and understand the compensation packages for others in your field. Use your research skills such as the internet, search consultants, professional organizations, trade bureaus, and networks to determine current market value (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Heim, 1993; Moore, 2000).
 4. Do not be the first to give a salary figure because you set a baseline for the remainder of the negotiations (Heim, 1993; Moore, 2000; Whitaker & Austin, 2001). Instead, respond with, "I am sure we will be able to work out an appropriate salary package," or ask what the hiring authority was contemplating as an appropriate salary.
 5. If the hiring authority is concerned that your salary will be higher than others (particularly women) in the organization, respond that you realize salary differentials are sensitive, but you can deal with any concerns through excellent performance. Basically, you should help others recognize that if your salary is high, an opportunity is created to improve the salaries of others in the organization. Remember you can always negotiate a salary offer down but *never* up.
 6. Ask for an early performance review, tied to a salary increase, as a means of moving your salary higher.
 7. Never lose a penny of your existing salary. You should not consider taking a job making less total compensation than you earn now.

- *Know what resources you need to be successful in the position* (Rose & Danner, 1998). Know what resources are already available. Ask staff members what they need to perform more effectively and efficiently. Negotiate and secure at least one or two new needed workplace accoutrements that will make life easier for your staff (e.g., travel money, office equipment, laptop or desktop replacement computers, specialized software, additional secretarial or technical support). Make sure that the people with whom you work recognize that you can and will bring resources back for them, too.
- *Do not make demands or present lists.* Talk calmly and confidently about what you need and briefly why (Rose & Danner, 1998). Always be professional, yet firm. Additionally, never burn bridges because the person with whom you are negotiating may surface again later in your professional life.
- *Never accept a job on the spot.* You need time to review the offer (Whitaker & Austin, 2001). However, you should not request time to talk with a spouse or partner because such an appeal will make you look weak and indecisive. Appear very appreciative of the offer and indicate that you will think carefully and respond to the hiring official by a particular time (e.g., 48 hours). Then, respond in a timely manner with a counter offer and always make one.
- *Ask for a final visit to talk with key staff in the organization and make sure the “fit” is right. Also, complete your final negotiations in person, if possible.* These person-to-person visits are critical to establishing solid future working relationships. Moreover, while you are negotiating, other candidates are either waiting or accepting other job offers. Thus, as time passes, the field of candidates may get smaller, giving you a distinct advantage.
- *Never resign your current position until every detail is in writing.* Make sure that you confirm and accept the position and attach lists of all variables you have negotiated. Make sure that the employing official signs the confirmation (i.e., acceptance letter) and keep a copy in your files because you may need to refer to it (or demonstrate that agreement was reached). Having an officially signed document will be particularly important if you negotiate with someone who then leaves the organization. Remember, “It’s not an agreement until it’s written and signed” (Whitaker & Austin, 2002, p. 84).
- *When you assume your position, produce – produce – produce.* Make the individuals who hired you happy that they did.
- *Make and keep an up-to-date “wish list” of resources that you and staff in your unit need to be successful.* Once you achieve initial success, you will likely have the opportunity to ask for additional resources, so always have some items in mind (Miller & Miller, 2002).

After having demonstrated your productivity within the organization, some of the individual perks you may be able to negotiate instead of money include the following: (a) Better title (e.g., from assistant-to-the vice president to assistant vice president), (b) extra vacation time, (c) flexible working hours, (d) early performance review, (e) leased car, (f) assigned parking space, (g) living allowance, (h) entertainment budget, (i) travel allowance, and (j) professional memberships. In terms of unit resources, use your creativity, but consider ideas such as one-time bonuses for extraordinary individual or team performance, loaned executives, exchange programs, supplemental travel funds for high performers, awards for creative leadership, etc.

Conclusion

Women need to understand that nothing is impossible and that “negotiations are inescapable. Learning something about the negotiation process is a must” (Moore, 2000, p. 122). While styles differ and how we negotiate reflects who we are as leaders and as individuals, everyone negotiates. *Failure to negotiate* makes women appear weak, ignorant, and clueless albeit grateful and well behaved in the workplace.

Traditionally, educational programs have not emphasized gender differences in negotiations, so most women have muddled along *without* thinking they were being disenfranchised in the workplace. With the mere suggestion that if they asked, they might receive, some pioneering women have broken the mold and negotiated quite successfully.

What does all of this information this mean for the future? As leadership educators we must now develop courses for women in negotiations. We must create modules in courses focused on helping women understand gender issues and barriers to negotiations. We must provide opportunities for women to practice negotiating. And, at a minimum, we must foster discussions throughout campuses among women students regarding strategies for negotiating successfully. Imagine what the workplace will be like when everyone is on the same playing field playing with skill and confidence when we negotiate! A pipe dream? We think not.

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Le Culminant

The Editor wants to remind any interested authors to submit articles to:
leader@tamu.edu as soon as possible for review in the Summer 2005 issue.

Note that the style guidelines for JOLE have undergone revision for this issue. Those changed are reflected on the JOLE website. One of the key changes that we'll be rolling forward with is an attempt to host an ejournal that is accessible to the vision impaired. Be looking for these changes soon and a total conversion of the back issues to the current format. As always...suggestions to the Editor are welcomed and they are often implemented!

"Say not, "I have found the truth," but rather, "I have found a truth."

*- Kahlil Gibran, *The Prophet**