Leadership Learning Across Generations

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A dissertation

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

University of Washington

2020

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Program Authorized to Offer Degree:

Education

University of Washington

Abstract

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Throughout the past two decades, there has been a significant expansion of leadership development programs for undergraduate college students. This growth has created an impetus for higher education institutions to understand how to best maximize leadership development outcomes for the valuable resources invested into these programs. Over this same period, the information revolution has produced extraordinary expansion in the use of information technology in all aspects of professional and social life. One of the unique characteristics of college students who have grown up during this technology revolution is that they have never known a world without information technology. For this reason, scholars and popular press authors have claimed that the generation of *digital native* students think and learn differently than previous generations. Many of these authors have argued that higher education institutions must transform education strategies in every field of study to accommodate digital natives' learning preferences. Within leadership studies, little is known about the ways generational differences impact the teaching and learning preferences of college students. To address this gap in the literature, this qualitative case study explores how college students have engaged in the teaching and learning of leadership in a peer-to-peer learning program across multiple

generational cohorts. This research adds to the leadership education literature by exploring ways digital native college students enact leadership teaching and learning which they believe to be most relevant for their generation. Findings from this case study reveal that while digital native students use significantly more technology than previous generations, these students prefer face-to-face small group interactions when engaging in learning leadership. The research also finds that digital native college students engage most frequently in learning leadership through the creation of peer-to-peer leadership communities. This study identifies the use of peer-to-peer communities of practice as an instructional pedagogy not currently identified in the existing college student leadership development literature. Findings are supported by well-established research showing the significant influence on peer interactions in supporting leadership outcomes and the application of communities of practice to develop expertise of individuals in educational and organizational settings. By leveraging the power of student-driven leadership development and communities of practice, higher education institutions can better engage student learning preferences and expand leadership development opportunities for all.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply grateful to all who asked me over the years "How's your dissertation coming?" My love for learning and desire to not let you down inspired me continue moving forward to complete this work. I am very grateful to my dissertation chair Dr. Edward Taylor for your wisdom and encouragement on this journey. Thank you for your kindness and support over the years.

I also want to convey my gratitude to my dissertation committee: Dr. Bradley Portin, Dr. Joe Lott, and Dr. Anthony Gill. Thank you for your thoughtful guidance and feedback throughout this project. I am very grateful to be able to work with a dissertation committee and chair who have done so much to contribute to the leadership development and learning of students at our university.

I feel so fortunate to have been able to be inspired, mentored, and supported by so many wonderful people at the University of Washington. Thank you, Dr. John Bransford for being a wonderful mentor allowing me to work, teach, and learn along-side you. I also want to thank Dr. Mike Knapp for your patience and guidance teaching me how to become a better researcher and scholar. To my friends from the college of education for the late-night study sessions and special thanks to Dr. Daniel Novak for your advice, support, and friendship. You are a wonderful role model and friend.

Finally, thank you to those who have devoted your lives to developing young leaders. To the advisors and students at the Associated Student of the University of Washington, I truly felt I found my home at ASUW. I am so grateful I was able to learn about leadership and service under your guidance. To Frank, Cordell, Colleen, Kate, John, Tyson, Mike, and Kendra. Serving in student government with you has been the best job I have ever had. To Lincoln Johnson who guided me in creating a leadership development program that has touched the lives of hundreds

of students over the years. Thank you for encouraging my passion to build community and inspire others towards service. Lastly, thank you to my wonderful wife Marla Kaufman, M.D. and my family for always being in my corner and for supporting my dreams.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all those in my life who have inspired my love for learning. To my grandparents, Mayo and Katona, who let me play in their library as a little kid and sparked a love for learning, creativity, and discovery. To my parents, Patricia and Dr. Ruben Barron, who made tremendous personal sacrifices immigrating to the United States to give our family the opportunity to live a better life. Finally, to all the friends, mentors and loved ones who have believed in my potential and provided guidance, encouragement, and love along the way. One of the most amazing gifts humans possess is the ability to learn. Through this learning we grow, adapt, and ultimately become more enlightened. Thank you to all who have supported my journey to greater enlightenment.

I. INTRODUCTION

Growth of College Student Leadership Development

Throughout the past two decades, there has been a significant expansion of leadership studies programs within higher education (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006). During this time, the number of leadership programs grew to well over a thousand across the United States (Brungardt et al., 2006; Jenkins, 2012). Prior to the significant growth of leadership initiatives in higher education in the latter part of the 20th and early part of the 21st century, the field of leadership education was primarily reserved for elite individuals deemed to have the characteristics for becoming effective leaders. For example, as far back as ancient Greece, philosopher Plato argued only three roles existed for people: soldiers, workers, and leaders. Plato's belief that no amount of training could overcome basic innate personality characteristics helped fuel the idea that some people are *born leaders*, a societal view that has been prominent for a long time (Day, 2011).

However, over the years, a shift has taken place in which access to leadership development has significantly expanded beyond those deemed to be born leaders to encompass larger and more diverse groups of people. To this point, there is theoretical and empirical literature that asserts that leadership is a capacity and an expertise that can be learned (Day, 2011; HERI, 1996; Northouse, 2010). The notion that leaders are made and not born likely continues to serve as a factor in the strong presence of formal and co-curricular leadership education in higher education institutions (Brown, Scott, & Lewis, 2004; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999a). The growing number of formal and informal leadership development programs indicates a move towards increasing access of leadership development so that it is available to broad numbers of young people in colleges and universities across the United States.

When one looks at most mission statements and leadership development offerings in higher education, it becomes clear that these institutions are not just preparing individuals for careers, but also preparing them to become active members of a democratic society (Astin & Astin, 2000). The data pointing to the rapid expansion of leadership education in post-secondary institutions creates an impetus to gain a deeper understanding of the ways in which these programs can more effectively develop leadership capacity in college students.

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) is one of the largest ongoing empirical studies of college student leadership programs, collecting data from more than 350 institutions and over 610,000 students (MSL, 2019). Empirical findings from several years of MSL data indicate that the most influential experiences that shape students' leadership outcomes involve learning from college peers (Dugan, 2011). The significant influence of student peers is documented by other researchers in the literature (Newcomb, 1962; Weidman, 1989). This research points to the important role that peer groups have in determining leadership education in higher education institutions. It also highlights a potential opportunity for higher education institutions to further leverage the talent, skill, and motivation of students to help with implementing and expanding leadership initiatives on college campuses. Involving students as partners in the creation, promotion, and implementation of leadership development creates the potential to provide valuable experiences to students on higher education campuses. Despite the growth of leadership programs and important research to improve these initiatives by leveraging peer groups, many students in higher education fail to take advantage of these powerful developmental opportunities.

Learning Preferences of Digital Native College Students

In 2011, a study using national data on college student leadership participation revealed that only about 35% of college seniors reported formally participating in a leadership development program while in college (Dugan et al., 2011). This research highlights that only a small number of students take advantage of leadership experiences during their time in college. In an academic and political environment characterized by a scarcity of resources and increasing public accountability, the lack of student engagement in leadership development opportunities ought to be a concern to higher education institutions investing resources into developing these programs (Dugan et al., 2011).

Some scholars and popular press authors have argued that postsecondary institutions struggle to engage students because they are out of touch with the learning preferences of a *digital native* generation that has grown up in a world dominated by technology (Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010; Tapscott, 2009). During the last two decades, as leadership programs have significantly expanded across the country, the characteristics of college students have also evolved as the millennial generation (born in the mid-1980s) and Generation Z (born after the year 2000) have made their way through higher education. Levine and Dean (2012) define the problem higher education faces in this way:

> The students of the 1990s were a transitional generation, straddling old and new world Analog and digital, national and global, industrial and information economies. In contrast, current students have their feet firmly planted in the new world. This poses an extraordinary challenge to most colleges and universities, which remain largely in the old

> world, educating an Internet generation in a culture of blackboards. Higher education lags far behind its students technologically and pedagogically and must transform itself if it is to educate current undergraduates for the world in which they will live (p. xii).

Research focused on understanding generational (e.g. silent generation, baby boomers, Gen X, millennials, Gen Z) characteristics found differences between these demographic groups in terms of personality traits, attitudes, and behaviors, which all impact the way people interact in the workplace (Kessler & Van Ullen, 2005; Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001; Twenge, Liqing, & Im, 2004). Furthermore, several studies supported the idea that each generation has its own key attitudes, values, and beliefs about leadership (Arsenault, 2003; Twenge et al., 2004; Wisniewski, 2010).

Empirical research to understand how generational characteristics impact teaching and learning preferences within leadership studies is sparse (Jenkins, 2016; Prensky, 2001; Wisniewski, 2010). Unfortunately, without a clear understanding of the ways digital native college students think about leadership learning, educators will be unable to effectively engage these students in large-scale leadership experiences in college. More importantly, a lack of understanding of this generation makes it very difficult for college educators and administrators to leverage the unique talents and perspectives of these students, towards improving leadership education in post-secondary institutions.

The information revolution made it possible for individuals like Bill Gates and Mark Zuckerberg to create transformational technologies like Windows and Facebook during their college years. Digital native students bring technology skills to college that allow them to access vast amounts of knowledge and tools that have not been available to any previous generation of college students. Because of this, educators want to better understand how to design learning

environments to support emerging digital native college students along their leadership journeys.

Established research on how people learn points to critical factors in the design of effective learning environments to respond to learners' needs. Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) reviewed over forty years of cognitive science literature to arrive at some of the key tenets of learning sciences. Some of the consistent findings from this research highlighted the importance of building upon learners' prior knowledge about a topic and actively involving individuals in learning that is supported through a community (Bransford et al., 2000). Learning sciences research points to a need for institutions of higher education to develop college student leaders by developing education experiences that incorporate an understanding of their values, learning preferences, and desire to build community (Black, 2010; Bransford et al., 2000). Indeed, scholars within and outside leadership studies have sounded the call for higher education institutions to adjust their teaching and learning practices to accommodate the technology-mediated learning preferences of digital native students (Levine & Dean, 2012; Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010).

Problem Statement

While it is undeniable that the growth of information technology has significantly changed the nature of communications and work within society, currently there is a lack of research data to understand the ways in which technology use has changed how digital native students engage in leadership learning (Wisniewski, 2010). Several research studies exist that analyzed the leadership teaching strategies utilized by faculty (Allen & Hartman, 2008a; Conger, 1992; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2013). Other studies explored the perceptions of students receiving leadership education (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007; MSL, 2019). Absent from the literature is the perspective of college students, not just as recipients of

leadership studies, but as active developers and teachers of leadership knowledge to their peers. (Buckwell-Nutt, Francis-Shama, & Kellett, 2014; Girvan & Savage, 2010; Hockings, 2009; Hoffman, 2009; Won & Choi, 2017). Therefore, the focus of this research is to explore the ways digital native college students engage in the teaching and learning of leadership studies within peer-group contexts.

Study Purpose and Research Questions

This qualitative case study explores the ways college students have engaged in the teaching and learning of leadership in an undergraduate student peer learning program across multiple generational cohorts. This research aims to add to the leadership education literature by exploring the following three questions regarding the ways digital native college students enact leadership teaching and learning that they believe to be most relevant for their generation:

1. What pedagogical approaches do digital native college students use to impart leadership knowledge in student peer groups and what values, beliefs, and assumptions regarding leadership learning prompt their pedagogical choices?
2. How do general understandings of leadership by digital native college students get enacted into the curriculum and instruction in a peer-group context?
3. In what ways do digital native college students use technology and other educational modalities for delivering leadership education in peer groups?

Unlike previous studies exploring pedagogical strategies of professional leadership educators and employing survey methods, this research applied a qualitative case study approach to go deep inside the leadership development experiences of digital native college student groups. In addition, this research is unique in that the focus was on gaining the perspective of

digital native college students, not as passive recipients of leadership education, but as active developers of their own leadership learning curriculum.

This research will help higher education institutions better understand leadership learning through the lens of digital generation learners. It will also uncover pedagogical strategies that are most prevalent in college student peer leadership development groups. By gaining a deeper understanding of the ways digital native students approach leadership learning, higher education institutions will be better able to understand how to engage with students in codesigning broad-scale leadership education experiences that benefit the entire campus community.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is presented in the following sections. The first section provides a review of literature within the area of college student leadership development. The review will discuss what is known from the literature on how college student leadership is defined and developed. In addition, I will review and critique studies exploring how generational characteristics impact leadership learning preferences. This section will conclude with the identification of key gaps in the literature on the leadership learning preferences of digital native college students. Following the literature review I will describe in detail the methodology, research case, conceptual framework and data analysis applied in this qualitative developmental case study. This paper will conclude by presenting the findings from the case study analysis and discussing the implications for researchers and practitioners from this research.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The broad literature on leadership development is derived from several fields, including political science, education, public policy, military sciences, and management (Brungardt, Gould, Moore, & Potts, 1997; Drath, 1998; Rost, 1991). The study of leadership development among college students, however, has not been given as much attention compared to leadership development research in other contexts (Astin, 1993). This lack of research is particularly surprising, given that some meta-analyses of leadership research estimate that over the last century, a majority of all published research on leadership utilized college students as the primary survey sample (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

To provide some context, this section begins with a high-level background and overview of the research conducted in college student leadership education. This brief introductory section is followed by an in-depth analysis of research exploring two central questions in the college student leadership development literature: (a) *What* should be taught in leadership studies and (b) *How* should leadership development be taught? (Allen & Hartman, 2009). This analysis will present what is currently known through the existing college student leadership development literature. The section will close by identifying knowledge gaps in the literature that this study aims to address.

Overview of College Student Leadership Development

Within higher education, efforts to conduct leadership development historically were aimed at improving those in leadership roles within the realms of student government and residence life (CAS, 2009). This leadership development focus was likely the result of an industrial paradigm of leadership where it was presumed that leadership ability was an inherent

characteristic of a person (generally white males) and therefore leadership education was simply a matter of developing an individual's existing potential (Rost & Barker, 2000).

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS, 2009) reported that leadership development has traditionally concentrated on students in athletic positions and student government. The CAS report also documented the realignment of leadership development efforts in colleges during the 1960s and 1970s (resulting from the sociopolitical climate of the time), which led to the expansion of leadership development opportunities for women and minorities and reenergized interest in leadership development for young people seeking to create social change. During the 1980s and 1990s, leadership development efforts expanded to incorporate perspectives such as cultural influences, experiential learning, service learning, spirituality, and social change (CAS, 2009). This evolution of leadership development in college sparked educators and scholars to explore models that had specific relevance to leading in the college context. During the 1980s and 1990s, older theories and philosophies were combined with newly developed leadership concepts (Klingborg, Moore, & Varea-Hammond, 2006).

In the 1990s, undergraduate leadership programs started to grow, and the focus shifted from developing effective leaders towards developing more leaders (Astin & Astin, 2000). Institutions of higher education began to expose the entire student population, including freshman, to leadership development opportunities instead of focusing only on students in specific positions or clubs (CAS, 2009). This period also brought an increase in leadership development education centers in postsecondary institutions such as the University of Richmond and the University of Maryland (CAS, 2009).

Howe and Freeman (1997), in their research aimed at benchmarking college leadership education, observed an expansion in leadership programs and their growing legitimacy in the academy, especially in single-course initiatives and programs conducted by the student affairs division. Since the 1990s, undergraduate leadership education (both curricular and co-curricular) has grown considerably on campuses (Brungardt et al., 2006; Sorenson, 2002).

Brungardt et al. (2006) conducted a qualitative study to explore the similarities and differences within the leadership majors in public and private universities in the United States (undergraduate enrollment at these institutions varied from 700 to more than 69,000). As part of this research, Brungardt et al. examined school profiles, program components, mission statements, curricula, and pedagogies. This analysis revealed significant differences in the size of programs, credit hour requirements, and host departments. Noteworthy findings from their study included: (a) leadership programs are not restricted to a specific type or size of institution; (b) a majority of leadership programs are situated in professional and adult studies programs, followed by colleges of arts and colleges of business and leadership; (c) all leadership programs in the study were established between 1993 and 2003; (d) careers of graduating students varied significantly, comprising occupations in government, social service, religion, business, and industry; (e) a striking majority of leadership programs were focused on both theory and application along with civic and organizational objectives; (f) many universities concentrated their learning objectives on cognitive theories; and (g) a few programs emphasized the development of skills and behaviors (only a minority of schools focused on service learning as pedagogy). The findings of this research highlight the wide breadth and depth of leadership education taking place in institutions around the country.

The early research conducted on college student leadership education highlighted the wide variety of programs and approaches to develop students' capacities in this area. Aside from general descriptive studies of leadership education presented above, researchers have placed significant emphasis on addressing two key questions in college student leadership development: (a) What should be taught in leadership studies? and (b) How should leadership be developed? (Allen, & Hartman, 2009). The following review analyzes the literature in these two important areas.

What Should Be Taught in Leadership Studies

Theories of College Student Leadership Development

Several theories of leadership have been developed specifically for college students. The most cited leadership models for student leaders are rooted in the postindustrial leadership paradigm that describes the purpose and nature of leadership by identifying it as a shared process centered on change and rooted in relationships (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978; Greenleaf, 1977). The postindustrial paradigm provides an alternative to the industrial paradigm that situated leadership as being inherent to the individual (often called "great man" theories) and viewed its outcomes as power, influence, and control (Caldwell & Wellman, 1926; Dunkerley, 1940; Hunter & Jordan, 1939; Katz & Kahn, 1951; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Several strands of theory arose from the industrial paradigm, including leadership trait theory (often traced to Aristotle), behavioral theories (psychology), and situational theories from organizational sciences (Chemers, 2000; Komives et al., 2007; Northouse, 2006).

Contemporary leadership scholars have critiqued the research behind industrial paradigm theories because the research samples for these studies included primarily white, upper-class, heterosexual, able-bodied males and did not account for women and people of color (Northouse,

2006). Unlike the broader leadership theories that are still significantly influenced by both industrial and postindustrial perspectives, the most often cited theories of college student leadership development are based on the postindustrial leadership paradigm centered on the relational and transformative nature of leadership (Komives et al., 2007). The most cited models in the literature include: (a) the leadership practices inventory (Posner, 2004; Posner & Brodsky, 1992), (b) the relational leadership model (Komives et al., 2007), (c) the leadership identity development model (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006), and (d) the social change model (HERI, 1996). These models for college student leadership development are described below.

The Leadership Practices Inventory

Developed by Kouzes and Posner (1988), the leadership practices inventory focused on providing students with feedback on their behaviors in comparison to behaviors identified by the scholars as exceptional leaders. Kouzes and Posner postulated that leadership could be conceived of as a set of skills that could be learned and applied by anyone. The leadership practices inventory is often used in conjunction with a leadership instrument such as the 360-degree feedback tool, which is commonly used in organizational environments (Kouzes & Posner, 2011). The inventory surveys five key behaviors: (a) modeling the way, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) challenging the process, (d) enabling others to act, and (e) encouraging the heart.

The Relational Leadership Model

The relational leadership model emerged from research conducted by Komives et al. (1998) that sought to understand the nature of college-student leadership development. Designed as a postindustrial, collaborative model, this approach emphasized leadership as, "a relational

and ethical process of people coming together attempting to accomplish 'positive change' (Komives, et al., 2006, p. 74)." This model defined leadership as being purposeful, inclusive, empowering, ethical, and process oriented. Komives et al. (2006) observed that some students self-identified as leaders and were very comfortable engaging in inclusive, collaborative group processes whether in positional or non-positional leadership roles.

Leadership Identity Development Model

Komives et al. (2006) followed up their work on the relational leadership model by conducting grounded theory research to investigate the leadership identity development process of college students. The sample for this study involved a diverse group of 13 students. The students participated in a series of activities and interviews to better understand how their identities as leaders emerged and evolved over time. This research resulted in the development of the leadership identity development model. This model identified the following six sequential stages of students' leadership development:

1) Awareness: Realizing that there are leaders who exist in society, such as political leaders, parents or professors.
2) Exploration: Engagement in group experiences with the objectives of making friends and learning from others.
3) Leader identified: Seeing leadership as the actions of a formal leader within a group and having a greater awareness of hierarchical relationships in groups.
4) Leadership differentiated: Viewing leadership as part of a shared group process that is non-positional.
5) Generativity: A commitment to influencing group goals and helping to develop leadership in others.

6) Integration: Internalizing identity as a leader in various contexts without having to hold a positional role (Komives et al., 2006)

The Social Change Model of Leadership Development

The social change model (SCM) of leadership development is one of the most widely cited student leadership models in the literature (HERI, 1996; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). The SCM was constructed explicitly for the college-student population and rests on two principles. First, leadership is assumed to be inherently related to social responsibility and is indicated as creating change for the common good. Second, the model is intended to increase individual levels of self-knowledge and capability to work with others in a collaborative manner (HERI, 1996). This leadership framework points students towards developing leadership on seven values: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship (HERI, 1996). These values interact dynamically across three levels: (a) individual (consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment); (b) group (collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility); and (c) society (citizenship).

The college-student leadership development models described above are the ones most cited in the literature. The different models conceptualize leadership as a set of skills (leadership practices inventory) for interacting with others and building social capital (relational leadership) or as ways of thinking about the self and values in relation to others (leadership identity development model and social change model).

Research on Outcomes of College Student Leadership Development

In addition to the research on theories about the nature of student leadership, scholars have conducted research on outcomes of leadership programs in order to better understand what

students acquire from these experiences. Unlike the theoretical studies, this strand of research seeks outcomes derived from students' participation in leadership programs to ascertain what students are learning from these experiences.

Bialek and Lloyd (1998) studied the influence of student leadership experiences and outcomes on the personal and professional domains of alumni three to five years after graduating. Their qualitative study identified six themes from alumni who had engaged in leadership experiences as undergraduate students. The themes included: (a) student leadership enabled them to meet and collaborate with a wide variety of people; (b) student leadership engagement amplified their leadership, management, and teamwork skills; (c) student leadership improved the feeling of pride in and connection to the university; (d) student leadership afforded them enhancement of their personal and professional interpersonal communication skills; and (e) the student leadership experience enhanced their self-confidence and professional poise.

Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt (1999a) also found that several individual outcomes could be traced to students' engagement in a leadership program. The outcomes that were identified included: (a) increased sense of social/civic/political awareness, efficacy, and activity; (b) enhanced commitment to service and volunteerism; (c) improved communication skills; (d) elevated sense of personal and social responsibility; (e) improved self-esteem; (f) enhanced problem-solving capabilities; (g) increase motivation for taking action; (h) enhanced desire for change; (i) improved ability to be issue-focused; (j) improved conflict resolution skills; and (k) greater communication with faculty.

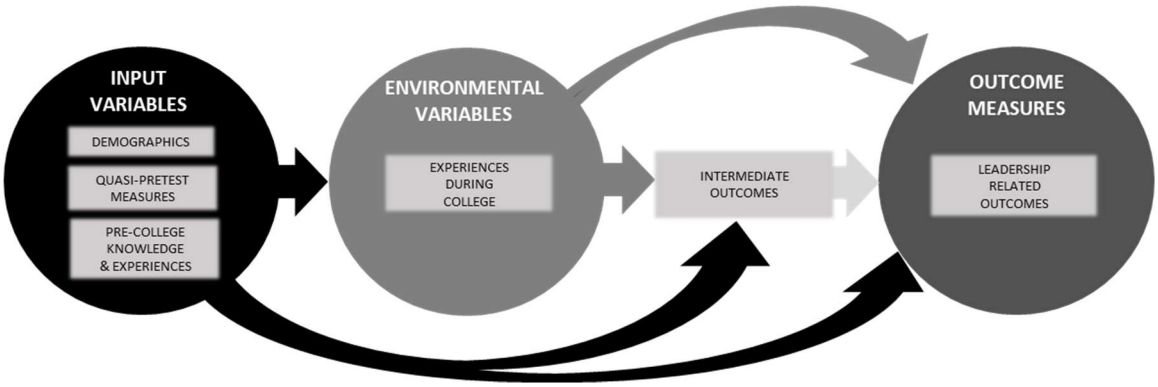
Bialek and Lloyd's (1998) and Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt's (1999a) research attempted to explore definitions of leadership by looking at student outcomes in leadership education programs. Two critiques of these studies are that they lack evidence of a broad

understanding of student outcomes associated with a theoretically grounded definition of leadership (i.e. not using one leadership definition) and that they did not contain a common set of measures to compare the same outcomes across higher education institutions (Dugan & Komives, 2010). To address methodological issues, Dugan and Komives (2007) launched the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) to establish normative data to study student leadership outcomes. Since its inception, the MSL has collected data on more than 350 postsecondary institutions serving over 610,000 students, making it the largest empirical research study exploring the factors that impact leadership development outcomes in college students (MSL, 2019).

The MSL applies an adapted version of Astin's (1991) input-environments-outcomes (I-E-O) college impact model as its conceptual frame. In the I-E-O framework, these leadership outcomes are impacted by students' demographics and activities prior to college (inputs) as well as the involvement of students in the college environment/experiences (See Figure 1).

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework: Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership



Note. From "The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership," by MSL, 2019. Retrieved from https://www.leadershipstudy.net/design#conceptual-model

In the original MSL research, leadership was defined using the SCM of leadership discussed previously. This SCM highlights eight values in college students: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, common purpose, collaboration, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change (HERI, 1996).

Critique of the Literature

Reviewing the various theoretical and empirical studies of college student leadership development, including the large body of empirical data from the MSL, revealed that there is no unified agreement by scholars on a definition of leadership (Allen, & Hartman, 2009). While the SCM of leadership is the most widely cited and provided the original definition of leadership for the MSL, this definition has also expanded. The definition now includes several other postindustrial leadership frameworks (emphasizing the relational and transformative nature of leadership) beyond the SCM, including authentic leadership, servant leadership, socially responsive leadership, emotionally intelligent leadership, leadership practices inventory, and the relational model of leadership (MSL, 2019).

The expanded definition of college student leadership witnessed in the evolution of the MSL is similarly found in the ever-expanding leadership literature, which provides an exhaustive number of definitions and frameworks for defining this complex construct (Bass, 2008). Unfortunately, in the review of the college student leadership literature, one struggles to find a cohesive resource other than the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education's student leadership programs that clearly identify what should be taught in this subject area (CAS, 2009). Several researchers have concluded that within the college student leadership literature there is no clear consensus of what should be taught in leadership education (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Northouse, 2006; Yukl, 2010).

Despite the lack of a unified definition of leadership in the literature, empirical studies revealed that other factors are more important than a definition in terms of influencing the development of student leaders. Examining the cumulative findings from MSL research conducted over several years revealed that regardless of the definition or theory of leadership being taught in a college program, the types of learning strategies employed in delivering the educational experiences for students were the most influential factors in developing leadership capacities (Dugan et al., 2011). In other words, the MSL found that *how* leadership development is taught to students is more important than *what* type of leadership definition or theory was being implemented (Dugan & Komives, 2010). The MSL (2019) found that the following types of education experiences were influential in developing student leadership:

- Academic-based experiences (e.g., study abroad, first-year seminars, research with faculty, internships)
- Involvement experiences (e.g., breadth and depth of involvement in both on and off-campus organizations)
- Civic engagement involvement (e.g., types and levels of involvement in community service-learning experiences)
- Leadership development experiences (e.g., levels of involvement in both curricular and co-curricular leadership programs)
- Interactions about and across differences and perceptions of campus climate
- Mentoring relationships (e.g., with faculty, peers, community members, employers, parents).

Given the strong empirical evidence from the MSL on learning strategies having an influence on college student leadership development, this review will now focus on describing and critiquing key research exploring *how* student leadership should be developed.

How Student Leadership is Developed

Learning-Based Approaches to Leadership Development

In the broader leadership literature, Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2012) proposed four learning-based approaches for conceptualizing leadership development. They argued that leadership development could be conceptualized as the following:

> (1) a specific way of thinking and developing cognitive frames (Lord & Brown, 2001; Lord & Foti, 1986; March & Simon, 1958).
>
> (2) developing expertise in a set of skills (Bransford & Schwartz, 2009; Chi, Glaser, & Farr, 2014; Ericsson, 2009; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000).
>
> (3) learning through experience (Bandura,1997; Kolb & Kolb, 2005; Weick, 1995).
>
> (4) developing social capital within groups, teams, and organizations (Day, 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).

Each of these conceptualizations of leadership learning described by Day et al. (2012) have a solid foundation in the broad leadership literature. As stated earlier, this broader literature draws from research in diverse disciplines including organizational studies, learning sciences, sociology, cognitive psychology, military sciences. and others (Drath, 1998; Rost, 1991). Given the wide variety of fields engaged in leadership research, the research methods have varied widely from quantitative survey methods and experimental designs to grounded theory developed within organizational and business contexts (Brungardt et al., 1997). Following the broad theories of leadership learning, scholars focused on leadership development in college

students and developed specific theories to define student leadership and what should be taught within a postsecondary context.

Research on Learning Strategies in Leadership Development

Findings from various studies using large MSL data sets point to the critical role of learning strategies (also referred to in the literature as instructional strategies or pedagogies) as the most significant predictor of leadership development outcomes in college students (Dugan et al., 2011; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kuh, 2009). Specifically, three types of pedagogical elements are significantly correlated with leadership outcomes in students. These elements, which will be discussed in detail in the following sections, are:

1) Leadership curriculum content must be presented in a sequential manner to meet the developmental stages of students

2) College students should engage in empirically validated, high-impact learning experiences (or pedagogies) that have been found to positively correlate with leadership development outcomes

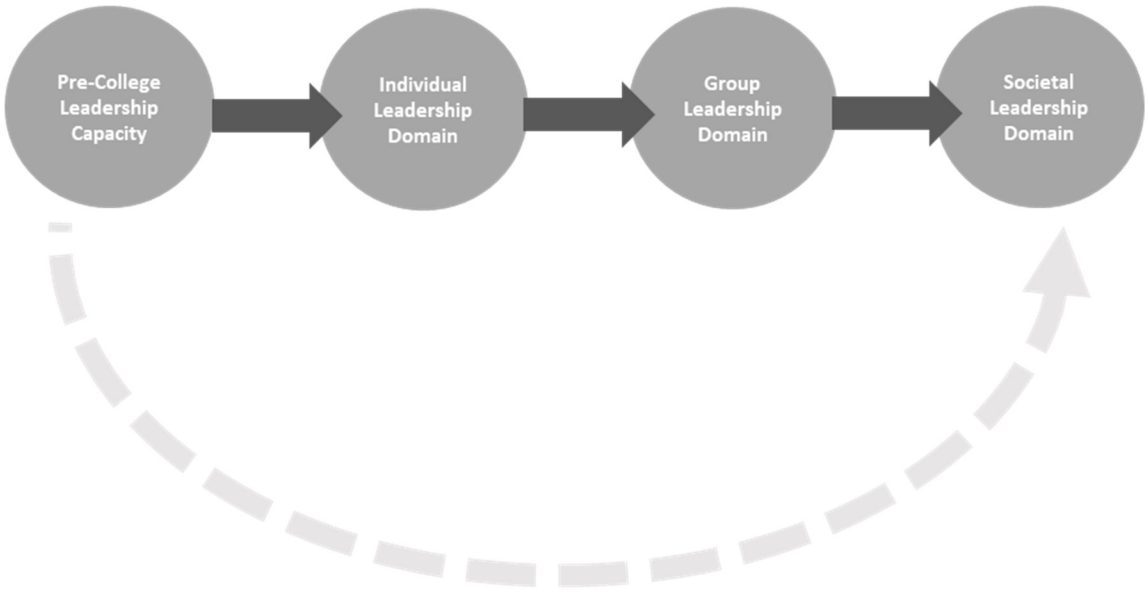
3) Learning experiences should include strategies that are demonstrated to help students build leadership self-efficacy, found to be positively correlated as a precursor to leadership outcomes.

Leadership Curriculum Content Must be Presented in a Sequential Manner to Meet the Developmental Stages of Students

Dugan et al. (2011) found that leadership development in students follows a linear process in which their individual capacities are first developed before they begin college. Individual capacities then impact the development of group and societal leadership capacities (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

Developmental Sequence of Social Change Model (SCM)

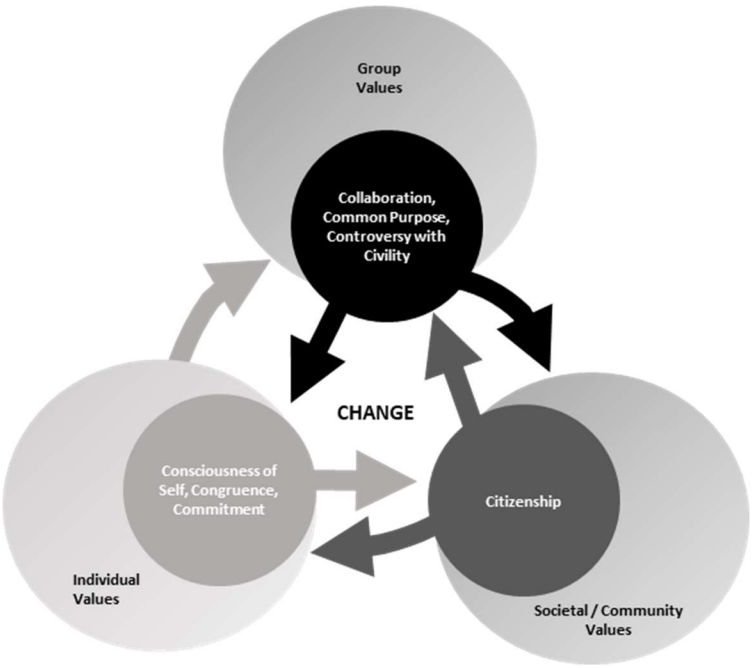


Note. From "The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership," by MSL, 2019. Retrieved from https://www.leadershipstudy.net/design#conceptual-model

Komives et al. (2006) also identified the sequential nature of college student leadership development as they explored the process of leadership identity development in college students. This finding from MSL research (Dugan et al., 2011; Dugan, Kodama, & Corrreia, 2013) contradicts the original theory from the social change model of leadership which hypothesized that the various levels (individual, group, societal) of leadership values could develop in students simultaneously as depicted in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Original Development Theory of the SCM



Note. From "The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership," by MSL, 2019. Retrieved from https://www.leadershipstudy.net/design#con).

MSL research confirmed via empirical data that leadership development (as defined by the SCM) followed a linear sequence. This linear sequence begins with the development of individual leadership skills, followed by group leadership competencies and only then arriving at societal leadership abilities. This research emphasizes the importance of designing curricular experiences for students to find the appropriate developmental sequence to increase leadership outcomes in students (Dugan et al., 2013).

College Students Should Engage in Empirically Validated, High-Impact Learning Experiences

In addition to their research on leadership development following a linear developmental sequencing, MSL researchers identified four types of learning experiences that consistently demonstrated a positive influence on college leadership outcomes. These learning experiences include: (a) engaging in socio-cultural conversations with peers, (b) partaking in mentoring relationships, (c) engaging in community service, and (d) being actively involved in off-campus organizations (Dugan et al., 2013).

Engaging in socio-cultural conversations with peers involves generating and facilitating formal and informal dialogues and interactions with other students about differences in life experiences, race, lifestyle, and social issues (Dugan et al., 2013). Also, college students who reported having one or more well-established mentors (faculty, staff, employees, or peers) consistently showed strong leadership outcomes (Dugan et al., 2011). Community service on or off-campus was also found to be correlated with leadership outcomes. Community service can include a one-time event or on-going engagements (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Finally, involvement in off-campus organizations, groups, and communities was also shown to have a strong correlation with student leadership outcomes according to MSL research (Kuh, 2009). These four learning experiences all involved interactions with others in and beyond the campus community. The strong social component of the four high-impact learning strategies identified by MSL researchers highlights the important role social connections have in shaping leadership capacity.

Learning Experiences Should Include Strategies that are Demonstrated to Help Students Build Leadership Self-efficacy

In addition to sequencing learning opportunities and engaging in high-impact development experiences, MSL researchers also found that leadership outcomes were strongly predicted by practices that helped students build confidence in their leadership potential, a concept known in the literature as leadership self-efficacy (LSE) (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). Leadership self-efficacy is based on the efficacy work of Bandura (1997), highlighting individuals' internal beliefs and assessments of their likelihood of success when engaging in a task. LSE is a key predictor of whether individuals implement leadership behaviors (Hannah et al., 2008). LSE has been found to contribute to supporting students in rejecting negative external feedback and stereotype threats that may prevent them (particularly women and students of color) from engaging in leadership behaviors (Dugan et al., 2013).

MSL researchers found that holding formal leadership positions in student organizations and engaging in socio-cultural conversations with student peers supported learners in developing LSE (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Once again, the findings from MSL research clearly point to the important role of peer social interactions as core component of leadership development in college students (Dugan et al., 2011). The role of peer-group interactions in student development is well established in the literature as informing the factors that impact student involvement and leadership.

Peer-Group Influence on Leadership Development

Even before significant research in college student leadership development began to take place, the concept of student involvement was a focus of research in higher education (Astin, 1993; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Research has been conducted

to understand how student involvement (i.e. student government, athletics, student interest groups) influences educational outcomes (Astin, 1993; Kuh, 2001; Pace, 1984).

Astin (1991) defined student involvement as the quantity and quality of the physical and psychological energy that students invest in their college experiences. Astin's work provided much of the theoretical framework for studies (including the MSL) on college student outcomes. MSL research found that learning experiences associated with social interaction were influential in developing leadership outcomes, as defined by the social change model of leadership (Dugan et al., 2011). These findings were consistent with early work by researchers who posited that the social groups students interact with significantly impact their overall college experience (Newcomb, 1962). Indeed, work done by Newcomb and later by Weidman (1989) suggested that peer interactions are one of the single most potent influences on students' attitudes and beliefs. Weidman's research highlighted the ways that peer pressure exerts influence on students' values, attitudes, and goals. The work by Newcomb, Weidman, and Astin and later echoed by MSL researchers pointed to involvement in peer groups as one of the strongest influences on student development.

Researchers also identified positive correlations between students' involvement in co-curricular groups and their leadership development (Astin, 1991; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). This positive influence of co-curricular group experiences on leadership development outcomes can potentially have significant implications for leadership development efforts in higher education (Dugan, 2011). The influence of peer-group involvement is especially important when looking at the large number of students already involved in some type of co-curricular group experience during their college years (NSSE, 2018). Leveraging the power of student peer groups could provide an opportunity for administrators and educators to scale leadership development

opportunities to a significant portion of the student population already involved in co-curricular groups on their campus.

While MSL research highlighted positive correlations between peer-group involvement and college student leadership development (Dugan et al., 2011), these quantitative studies, unfortunately, provided little direction for educators on how these practices can be used as instructional strategies. In order to explore further insights on learning preferences and instructional practices, what follows is a discussion of the literature on instructional strategies and pedagogies in college student leadership development.

Pedagogies in College Student Leadership Development

Despite an increase in leadership education research since the 1990s, only a few studies have explored the instructional strategies and pedagogy used in college student leadership education (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012; Jenkins, 2013). This section presents key research studies that relate to the application, implementation, and effectiveness of instructional strategies in undergraduate leadership education. It is important to note that the literature in this area uses the terms *instructional strategies* and *pedagogies* interchangeably. This is also the case in the MSL research which uses the terms *high impact learning strategies* and *pedagogies* to mean the same thing (Dugan et al., 2013). This section will also highlight gaps in the literature on peer-group interactions as instructional strategies, as this type of engagement has been shown to be a strong influencer of leadership outcomes in college students. (Astin, 1991; Dugan, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000).

One of the initial efforts to categorize instructional strategies in undergraduate leadership education was led by Conger (1992) who outlined four categories of leadership learning. Conger categorized the objectives of leadership development programs into four categories: personal

growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building (see Table 1). According to Conger, personal growth programs focus on the assumption that leaders are individuals who are connected to their personal goals and skills and who actively work to fulfill them. Conceptual understanding focuses on a cognitive understanding of a subject and its related concepts. Feedback experiences are used to help individuals assess their own behavior and provide constructive feedback to help individuals identify areas of improvement. Finally, skill-building programs are designed to enhance a person's ability to perform various competencies and build their expertise within a domain (Conger, 1992).

Table 1

Approaches to Leadership Development

Personal Growth	**Conceptual Understanding**
Programs that induce participants to reflect on their behaviors (such as their orientation toward risk or personal intimacy), values, and desires	Programs that foster a conceptual understanding of leadership… theory oriented by nature… focused on the issue of leadership development through a cognitive understanding of the phenomenon
Feedback	**Skill Building**
Programs where feedback constitutes a large portion of the time and emphasis is placed on measuring the participant's skill in a wide range of leader behaviors.	Program designers identify what they perceive to be the key leadership skills that can be taught. These are formulated into modules and introduced to participants who practice or model specific behaviors. Participant performance is critiqued, and feedback directs them to strengths and weaknesses. Participants then practice and refine their skills.

Note. Adapted from "Leadership Development: An Exploration of Sources of Learning," by S. A. Allen, & N. Hartman, 2008. *SAM Advanced Management Journal, 73*(1), p. 11.

Conger's (1992) descriptive research provided a basic framework to categorize the purpose of leadership education programs. While Conger's framework does not provide a specific definition of leadership, it points to four clear objectives of leadership programs.

Conger's four approaches to leadership development model has often been cited and other scholars have developed studies based on Conger's work in the college student leadership literature (Allen & Hartman, 2008a; Allen & Hartman, 2009, Hartman, Allen, & Miguel, 2015; Jenkins 2012; Jenkins, 2016). The methods section of this dissertation describes in further detail how this study also used Conger's framework to guide the exploration of instructional strategies used by students. In the following section, additional research that has extended Conger's conceptual framework will be described.

Building on Conger's (1992) work to categorize leadership pedagogy, Allen and Hartman (2008a) identified 40 commonly used sources of learning for leadership development. Allen and Hartman's work was one of the first comprehensive lists of leadership development instructional methods for undergraduate students (see Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000; London, 2002; Yukl, 2002 for methods related to other contexts). Allen and Hartman (2009) surveyed 171 undergraduate business students and 522 undergraduate leadership conference attendees. Their results confirmed the utilization of a variety of learning strategies cutting across various disciplines (see Table 2).

Table 2

40 Sources of Learning in Leadership Development

Sources of Learning	Description
360-degree feedback	Participants receive feedback from supervisors/advisors, direct reports, peers, and others in their sphere of influence.
Action learning	Participants work to solve real organizational problems and issues and reflect on the process, results, and learning.
Assessment centers	Participants are formally evaluated by trained observers on their demonstration of leadership competencies in a series of activities.
Assessment and instruments	Participants complete questionnaires designed to enhance self-awareness in a variety of areas (e.g., learning style, personality type, leadership style).
Athletic event	Participants take part in a competitive or cooperative physical activity, often as a team-building activity.
Case studies	Participants review written or oral stories or vignettes that highlight a case of effective or ineffective leadership.
Classroom-based training	Participants use the classroom as the primary location for learning about leadership.
Coaching	Participants work closely with a professional to develop their knowledge, skills, and abilities in a variety of ways (e.g., self-awareness, leadership).
Degree Programs	Participants engage in formal education programs (i.e. undergraduate major, undergraduate minor, certificate or graduate degree program) bound by a prescribed curriculum.
E-learning	Participants use the Internet or an intranet as the primary platform for learning about leadership.
Fellowships	Participants engage in intense learning and research experience, often focused on a specific topic of interest.
Film and TV clips	Participants learn about leadership theory through film or television clips.
Group presentations	Participants work on a prescribed presentation in a small group.
Group project	Participants work on a prescribed project in a small group.
Historical tour or reenactment	Participants attend a tour or reenactment of historical significance (e.g., Gettysburg).
Icebreakers	Participants engage in a series of relationship-building activities.
Individual development plan	Participants develop specific goals and objectives to foster continuous development.
Internships	Participants learn about leadership and organizational life through work experience.
Journal reflections	Participants develop written reflections on experiences.
Just-in-time training	Participants are provided with information at their time of need, often in an e-learning format.
Lecture	Participants attend a prepared discussion on some aspect of leadership, often given by an expert.

Low ropes or team activities	A series of experiential learning activities designed to teach students about various topics (e.g., group dynamics, problem solving, self-awareness).
Mentor and developmental relationships	Participants learn from a more experienced individual who can give guidance, share experience, and foster growth.
Networking with senior executives and organizational leaders	Participants have the opportunity to learn informally from individuals at various levels in the organizations.
Observation of a leader	Participants observe an individual leading others effectively or ineffectively.
Organizational vision statement or goal setting	Participants identify a desired future state at the organizational level.
Panel of experts	Participants listen to and interact with a panel of experts who share their experience as it relates to leadership.
Personal vision statement or goal setting	Participants identify a desired future state at the personal level.
Post-retreat activities	Participants continue their learning after a retreat or developmental experience (e.g., book clubs, progress meetings, or e-learning modules).
Research leadership	Participants actively research a leadership theory or topic and present findings in oral or written format.
Role-playing activities	Participants engage in activities designed to help them practice behaviors or skills.
Self-study	Participants read a book or complete a workbook, video, online module, or audio lesson/podcast.
Self-learning	Participants meet a need identified in their community and learn by connecting their experience with a structured learning component.
Simulation or game	Participants work to solve simulated organizational problems or issues and reflect on the process, results, and learning.
Skits and vignettes	Participants portray characters who do or do not embody a prescribed set of behaviors (e.g., conflict management, leadership).
Small group discussions	Participants take part in small group discussions on the topic of leadership or some aspect of group dynamics.
Small group reflection	Participants reflect on a completed activity; the purpose is to help them make connections and capture learning.
Story or storytelling	Participants listen to a story highlighting some aspect of leadership; often given by an individual with a novel experience.
Student organizations	Participants engage in student organizations that foster leadership opportunities.
Videotaped feedback	Participants can see themselves displaying behaviors that do or do not align with those associated with effective leadership.

Note. Adapted from "Sources of Learning in Student Development Programming," by S. A. Allen, & N. Hartman, 2009, *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(3), p. 8.

Hartman et al. (2015) added to their existing research with a survey of 66 experienced leadership educators from across the country. The objective of the study was to identify the most common instructional methods used for teaching college students. Participant responses revealed the following leadership educator perceptions: (a) small group discussion and film or television clips were effective in promoting conceptual understanding and (b) doing group projects and giving presentations facilitate skill building among students (Hartman et al., 2015).

Adding to the literature in this field, Jenkins (2012) built on Allen and Hartman's work (2008a) by specifically exploring *signature pedagogies* in the leadership discipline. According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies are those learning strategies most commonly used when educating individuals in a specific discipline. While the signature pedagogy framework has been applied in researching multiple disciplines including legal, accounting, and clergy, it had not been utilized in exploring leadership studies in higher education (Jenkins, 2012).

Jenkins' (2012) signature pedagogy research involved a national survey of 303 leadership instructors in institutions of higher education across the country and explored the pedagogies most frequently used by leadership educators to teach academic credit-bearing classes for undergraduate students. Jenkins incorporated Allen and Hartman's (2008a) sources of leadership learning framework into his own survey instrument for leadership educators.

Findings from this study suggested that class discussion was the most common (signature) pedagogy used in undergraduate leadership education (Jenkins, 2012). While projects, presentations, self-assessment instruments, and reflective journaling were used frequently, discussion-based pedagogies were the most common. Jenkins found that reflective journals, self-assessment instruments, media clips, and case studies were also used frequently.

Critique of the Literature

The base of leadership literature clearly points to the idea that leadership can be developed in college students (Brown et al., 2004; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999b). The findings from MSL researchers highlight students' involvement in co-curricular group experiences were strongly correlated with educational and leadership outcomes (Dugan, 2011). Within these group experiences, researchers identified that the most influential relationships students had shaping their college choices were the influences from their peers (Dugan, 2011; Newcomb, 1962; Weidman, 1989). Summarizing the significance of their research findings on learning strategies Dugan et al., 2011 wrote, "Institutions interested in effectively leveraging student learning would do well to focus less on offering an abundance of different types of programs or simply replicating untested 'best practices,' and instead emphasize the infusion of high-impact learning strategies (p. 77)." The MSL researchers pointed to a need for better understanding of how these high impact learning strategies involving mentoring and peer conversations are implemented (Dugan et al., 2011). Unfortunately, one of the limitations of the MSL research, which utilized large data sets from student surveys, is that while it pointed broadly to learning strategies that work for developing student leadership, it provided little direction for educators and administrators as to how these learning strategies and experiences are effectively implemented. The literature on instructional strategies in leadership development specifically highlighted the difference between pedagogy focused on developing leadership in individuals and pedagogy focused on leveraging learning in groups and social contexts (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day et al., 2012). According to Allen and Hartman (2009), some sources of learning were better suited for group settings while other sources were more appropriate for individual development. Several scholars identified a need for more research to better help

educators understand how to implement these practices in leadership programs, as no single source of learning is always appropriate (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; Jenkins, 2013).

The research on instructional strategies preferences conducted by Hartman et al. (2015) and Jenkins (2012), provided a deeper level of understanding of the pedagogies most often used in college student leadership education. These scholars found that class discussions were the most common pedagogy used by instructors in college leadership studies. While these studies show the current state of leadership instruction, there are some limitations in this literature.

One limitation of these studies is that while they documented several types of pedagogies used in leadership education, the focus of the studies was not designed to specifically explore how pedagogies are used in student peer-group contexts. Despite the strong empirical evidence of peer-group engagement as a medium for developing leadership, less is known about exactly how specific instructional strategies contribute to shaping the leadership efficacy and capacity of college students (Campbell et al., 2012; Dugan et al., 2011). Pedagogical preferences in student peer-group environments is an area that the literature does not adequately address.

A second limitation of the instructional strategy preference studies conducted by Jenkins (2013) and Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2009) is that these studies focus on the pedagogical preferences of instructors and not on preferences of college students. Findings from Jenkins' (2013) study, for example, identified group conversation as the most common pedagogy in leadership education. This finding from this research potentially lends credibility to the argument by some scholars and popular press authors that higher education institutions are out of touch with today's college students who have strong preferences for learning through active

constructivist pedagogies and technology tools much more so than previous generations (Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010; Tapscott, 2009; Wisniewski, 2010).

The instructional strategy research conducted by Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2009), Jenkins (2012, 2013) and MSL researchers (Dugan et al., 2011) does not focus much attention on the use of technology in leadership education or explore the topic of how generational differences might impact leadership instructional preferences of college students. To further explore these issues, the next section of the literature review presents research that explores the ways generational characteristics may impact the instructional preferences of students involved in leadership education.

Generational Characteristics and Teaching and Learning

Research studies exploring the ways generational characteristics impact student leadership development are relatively sparse. However, a few key studies are often referenced in the literature. For example, a qualitative study by Shertzer and Schuh (2004) found that students holding formal leadership positions in student organizations had more postindustrial (trait-based) understanding of leadership than students without formal leadership roles. In another study, Komives et al. (2006) discovered that over time, students' definitions of leadership became more relational and moved from hierarchical to much more collaborative. In one mixed methods study using the MSL data set, Haber, Allen, Facca, and Shankman (2012) found that traditional age college students had more collaborative perceptions of leadership while older students had more hierarchical perceptions of leadership. This finding directly conflicted with Komives et al.'s research (2006) theorizing that age progression is associated with more collaborative perspectives on leadership. While these studies did not specifically focus on generational

characteristics, the findings point to the idea that a student's age may play a factor in how a student perceives leadership.

Studies by Haber et al. (2012); Komives et al. (2006); and Shertzer and Schuh (2004) also examined the impact of race, gender and other demographic variables on college students' perceptions of leadership development. Komives et al.'s (2006) leadership identity development research supports the notion that college students of color tend to have more relational views of leadership than their white peers. Additionally, this research along with other studies suggested that many students of color did not self-identify as leaders (Arminio et al., 2000).

The findings from the qualitative studies like the ones described, indicate that students' leadership styles and behaviors differ in part due to demographic factors like age, gender, and race (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008; Haber & Komives, 2009; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). These findings, backed by research outside of the college student context assert that generally people of color and women tend to have more communal perspectives on leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Ely et al., 2011). These studies also highlight that age may influence the way individuals understand and practice leadership (Day et al., 2012; Lord & Hall, 2005).

To date, research specifically focused on understanding generational characteristics has found many differences among these groups in terms of typical or dominant personality traits, attitudes, and behaviors (Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001; Twenge et al., 2004). For example, Arsenault (2003) surveyed 790 respondents (covering four different generational cohorts) to identify their favorite leaders and the leadership traits they admired most. While members of all generations consistently ranked honesty as the most admired trait, the various rankings for all other characteristics and leadership figures (ranging from Winston Churchill to Bill Gates) differed significantly between generational cohorts. Arsenault's research findings

supported the idea that each generation forms its own definitions, attitudes, values, and beliefs about leadership.

Researchers like Arsenault (2003) and Twenge (2006) have argued that generational differences should be considered a distinct diversity issue (like race, gender, and sexual orientation) that organizations need to take seriously and research further. The research by Arsenault and Twenge illustrates that individuals from different generations have distinct perspectives about leadership. Scholars like Jackson and Woolsey (2009) and Skiba and Barton (2006) have extended this claim to propose that how people learn leadership is also different depending on one's generational cohort.

Learning Preferences of Digital Native College Students

As stated earlier, one of the most unique generational characteristics of digital natives, comprised of millennials (Howe & Strauss, 2003), born after 1980, and Generation Z (Dimock, 2019), born after 2000, is that these individuals have never known a world without information technology (Levine & Dean, 2012; Thomson 2013). Some authors and scholars have speculated that because individuals from these generations were born into the information revolution, their approaches to thinking and learning are different than those of previous generations (Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010).

Prensky (2001) and Rosen (2010) argued that because they were immersed in technology during childhood, digital native students prefer multitasking and social learning. Other authors claimed that institutions of higher education must urgently adapt their curriculum and instruction to meet the needs of digital natives to prepare them to operate in a technology-driven world (Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010; Tapscott, 2009).

As Prensky (2001) and others have highlighted, it is crucial to consider how the learning environment has evolved over time, especially in identifying and accommodating new and unique learning preferences that were perhaps not present in previous generations (Jackson & Woolsey, 2009). Research has highlighted that digital native college students have an expectation that technology will be used in their college education. Jackson and Woolsey (2009) noted, "Their familiarity with electronically delivered information shapes their expectations about classrooms and the abilities of their professors to deliver information over the Internet, on demand, with up-to-the-minute media enhancement" (p. 1).

Folley (2010) also described the significance of higher education evolving alongside student demands by reconsidering the tendencies of colleges to use classroom lectures as the dominant form of instructional delivery. Folley went on to state that although technology-based methods are not the only way that students should learn, the integration of technology is essential for digital native students' learning. Indeed, digital native college students have had access to technology their whole lives with computers, mobile phones, and the Internet. In fact, some research asserts that digital native college students at times prefer communication via technology instead of face-to-face interactions (Elam, Stratton, & Gibson, 2007).

Over the years, higher education institutions have sought to expand access to education by using technology and blending it with traditional forms of instruction (hybrid courses) or creating stand-alone e-learning courses such as massive open online courses (MOOCs). However, just because technologies are available, does not mean they have effectively been included as instructional strategies for educating students. Prensky (2001) stated that a gap exists between faculty and student technology learning preferences. He described this gap by

framing millennial and Generation Z students as digital natives, and teachers (from previous generations) as digital immigrants.

Members of the millennial and Generation Z cohorts are natives to technology in that they have a matured understanding of digital technology and platforms and utilize digital language as a part of daily life. Meanwhile, older faculty members have acquired their digital understanding through education or training after technology's diffusion into popular culture; that is, they have had to learn a whole new language to connect with their students effectively (Prensky, 2001). The significance of higher education fostering educators who can change and adapt to students has been recognized by other researchers (Jackson & Woolsey, 2009; Prensky, 2001; Skiba & Barton, 2006). For example, Skiba and Barton (2006) concluded that, information technologies have become so pervasive on campus, that faculty cannot ignore their use in the instructional process. Levine and Dean (2012) argued that while faculty have difficulty trying to resist the imminent changes that are happening within higher education, many of them have limited experience learning in a classroom where technology is as heavily utilized as it has been in recent years. These findings point to a need for research that can support faculty's learning and effective use of technologies to engage and develop digital native college students.

While a growing body of online and electronic learning literature exists, little research is available on how technology innovation can be used specifically for college students' leadership education (Jenkins, 2016). As technology continues to influence many areas in higher education, leadership development might also benefit from the implementation of technology. For example, Riggio (2008) stated:

> In our world of a continuous growing and expanding dependence on technology, one can foresee that in the future times, with the application of interactive web-based technologies, future leaders will be able to train and sharpen their leadership skills in an extensive diversity of simulated virtual organizations (p. 387).

Indeed, technology has expanded access to educational opportunities for many individuals and combined with the familiarity and affinity that college-age students have towards technology, it could be a powerful pedagogical tool to significantly scale and improve leadership education. To explore this issue further, the next section discusses literature that explores the application of technology-based instructional strategies used in college student leadership education.

Technology-Based Leadership Development

Only a few studies have investigated technology as an instructional strategy used in leadership education (Avolio, Sosik, Kahai, & Baker, 2014; Boyd & Murphrey, 2001; Cini, 1998; Jenkins, 2016; Jenkins, Endersby, & Guthrie, 2015; Newberry, Culbertson, & Carter, 2013; Phelps, 2012; Saks, 2009) or explored specific online instructional strategies such as the use of blogs (Gifford, 2010; Giraud, Cain, Stedman, & Gifford, 2011), and social media (Odom, Jarvis, Sandlin & Peek, 2013; Steves et al., 2011).

Jenkins (2016) published a study that concerned the instructional strategies used in online university-sponsored leadership development courses. His research included 118 participants (81 graduate-level and 37 undergraduate-level instructors) who taught a credit-bearing online leadership course within the past two years. The research found that while some variation existed in the instructional strategies used for online leadership courses, most instructors used varying forms of discussion boards, group discussions, self-assessment instruments, case studies, and reflective journals or blogs as their main methods of instruction. Conversely, online

instructors of leadership studies rarely used computer-based learning, social networking, and web-based games (Jenkins). One pertinent finding was that group projects were used far less often by instructors in online environments than by those teaching in face-to-face contexts. Jenkins argued that instructors perhaps knew less about how to facilitate group interactions in a technological environment than in a live course setting.

In addition to Jenkins' (2016) research, a variety of social media applications have been documented in higher education classrooms including blogging (Gifford, 2010), wikis (Laru, Näykki, & Järvelä, 2012), social annotation (Novak, Razzouk, & Johnson, 2012), and social media such as Facebook and Twitter (Settle, Telg, Irani, Rhoades, & Rutherford, 2011). These researchers revealed that a thoroughly planned application of a social media tool can have an impact on student learning and engagement with study material (Gifford, 2010; Laru et al., 2012; Novak et al., 2012); these findings could have implications for the implementation of learning material in the leadership classroom.

For example, Gifford (2010) examined a model for utilizing blogs in a leadership course to increase students' critical thinking capacity by providing adequate reflection opportunities. Gifford administered his experiment over the course of two academic semesters implementing Watson's (2001) *What? -So What? -Now What?* inquiry model, which provides guiding questions for students to reflect on their experiences. Gifford's study showed that students using the Watson model for a blogging reflection exercise, on average, received higher grades on the assignment than students who had not been given guiding questions. However, one criticism of this research is that while Gifford explored blogging technologies in the leadership classroom, the primary focus of the study was on the use of the Watson model of a reflection framework

(pedagogy) as opposed to the effect of blogging technology (medium of instructional delivery) itself.

Beyond the use of blogs, Steves et al. (2011) reviewed the literature on various uses of social media platforms in student learning. Their conclusions portrayed these tools as fundamental to achieving social influence among individuals, and therefore as critical tools for educators to prepare future leaders who will be operating in an information- and technology-based society (Steves et al.).

Another study of social media by Odom et al., (2013) surveyed leadership students about their perceptions and degree of comfort with various social media tools. Of the seventy-nine students who were surveyed, the majority reported that Facebook was the social media platform they were most comfortable with and used most frequently. This study also found that students believed that social media helped to increase the quality and efficiency of communication with their instructor. They also believed that these tools would make collaboration easier and create stronger social connections with other students. The students in this study viewed their lack of access to social media tools while at the university as the major impediment to maximizing their learning (Odom, et al.). The Odom et al. (2013) study is unique in that researchers sought data to understand the student perspective of learning technologies used in leadership education. This contrasts with studies by Jenkins (2013) and the majority of other studies mentioned in this literature review that focused on the use of technology through the lens of college leadership instructors, but not college students.

Beyond the use of technologies as tools for individual reflection or communicating with peers, another body of research explored the educational application of online games as a tool for leadership development. Video games have been progressively accepted in an educational

context (Chaplin, 2010; Chen, Sun, & Hsieh, 2008; DeMarco, Lesser, & O'Driscoll, 2007; Deubel, 2006; Prensky, 2001; Reeves, Malone, & O'Driscoll 2008; Yee, 2003; Yee, 2006). Prensky (2001) was one of the first scholars to explore the concept of digital game-based learning (DGBL). Prensky (2006) examined the learning aspects of video games and defined DGBL as, "putting games and learning together" (p. 1). In addition to Prensky's early work, several other researchers have investigated the possible advantages of video games in education (Chaplin, 2010; Deubel, 2006; Skiba & Barton, 2006; Villano, 2008).

The proliferation of massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) beginning in the late 1990s changed the way video games were used to meet educational objectives. As individuals engaged in games that had the option to communicate with other users in a more meaningful manner, the possibilities for education grew to use these as interactive instructional tools (Skiba & Barton, 2006). This led some researchers to explore ways that video games involved digital native learners (Deubel, 2006; Skiba & Barton, 2006; Villano, 2008).

Skiba and Barton (2006) examined the interaction of digital natives when engaging in the process of learning via online simulation. The researchers observed that the application of simulation technologies to guide the learning of students led to a positive impact and allowed immediate feedback that was valued by the digital natives. In addition to Skiba and Barton's work, several other researchers have explored the impact of leadership development for digital native students utilizing video games (Reeves et al., 2008; Wolf, 2007; Yee, 2003; Yee, 2006).

Reeves et al. (2008) compared the leadership characteristics displayed in MMOGs to the four central capabilities for effective leadership described in the Sloan Leadership Model (sensemaking, relating, visioning, and inventing). For this study, the researchers used a broad sample that involved observation, interviews, and surveys of individual "guild leaders." The

researchers found that all four capabilities were demonstrated in varying degrees by research participants involved in MMOGs. They observed more emphasis on the inventing and relating elements of the leadership model and found evidence of greater risk taking by guild leaders in these games. The researchers argued that the challenges faced by players who act as the game leaders in big community games are like those encountered by leaders in real-world organizations. The authors concluded that leadership was made easier in the online environment, which they correlated to crucial in-game leadership features such as intercommunication facilities, and clear objectives and guidelines needed to succeed in the game (Reeves et al., 2008).

In another study, Kaplancali (2008) assigned 48 undergraduate college students (aged 18 to 22 years) to participate in small teams in an organization called Infiniteams. With randomly selected leaders in each team, these individuals completed tests prior to playing the games that measured motivation to lead and leadership self-efficacy (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). For this study, the team members engaged in two back-to-back, 30-minute online games followed by post-test ratings of the team leader, applying Bass and Avolio's (1997) multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). The researcher found a lack of consistent evidence to show that the game activities performed by the team leaders increased self-efficacy, future motivation to lead, or other transformational leadership behaviors as measured by the MLQ questionnaire.

In a similar study, Lisk, Kaplancali, and Riggio, (2011) investigated transformational leadership amidst players of popular MMOGs. Participants who were subscribers to *World of Warcraft* (WOW; n = 41), *EVE* (n = 573), and *Guild Wars* (GW; n = 80) reacted to recruitment posts in online forums (Lisk et al., 2011). Participants responded to questions relating to their guild's structure, their leadership role in their guild, and their self-rated transformational

leadership behavior (as measured by the MLQ). Like Kaplancali (2008), Lisk et al. (2011) found only a small difference in MLQ scores between game leaders and those not involved in a leadership role at all.

The findings from the studies by Kaplancali (2008); Lisk et al. (2011); and Reeves et al. (2008) exploring leadership outcomes from online video games are inconclusive about the effectiveness of these technologies as pedagogical tools for teaching leadership to digital native students. One of the key challenges of these studies was that they were focused on exploring leadership learning in recreational gaming environments as opposed to informal curricular or co-curricular programs in higher education. The fact that the individuals playing the games and the games themselves had no deliberate leadership-learning objectives may have impacted how study participants reported learning from their gaming experiences. Despite the lack of evidence on the efficacy of online multiplayer games as teaching strategies, one of the important facets of the online game research was that it focused on analyzing leadership learning within peer-group contexts. As described earlier, MSL research on college student leadership development clearly highlighted social interactions with peers and groups as the most influential predictor of leadership efficacy and outcomes (Dugan et al., 2011). The previously mentioned studies examining leadership in online games are some of the few looking at leadership learning of digital native students in peer-group contexts.

Critique and Gaps in the Literature

The literature on instructional strategies in leadership development specifically highlighted the difference between pedagogy focused on developing leadership in individuals and pedagogy focused on leveraging learning in groups and social contexts (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day et al., 2012). According to Allen and Hartman (2009), some sources of learning were

better suited for group settings while other sources were more appropriate for individual development. These and other scholars pointed to the need for more research to better help educators understand how to implement these practices in leadership programs, as no single source of learning is always appropriate (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Campbell et al., 2012; Jenkins, 2013).

The findings from MSL researchers highlighting students' involvement in co-curricular group experiences were strongly correlated with educational and leadership outcomes (Dugan, 2008). Within these group experiences, researchers identified that the most influential relationships students had shaping their college choices were with their peers (Dugan, 2011; Newcomb, 1962; Weidman, 1989). The MSL researchers pointed to a need for better understanding of how these high-impact learning strategies involving mentoring and peer conversations are implemented (Dugan et al., 2011). Unfortunately, one of the limitations of the MSL research, which utilized large data sets from student surveys, is that it pointed broadly to learning strategies that work for developing student leadership, but provided little direction for educators and administrators on effective implementation of these learning strategies and experiences. Despite arguments by some researchers about the influence of mentoring and other types of peer-group engagement as a method for developing leadership, there are gaps in understanding how the curriculum and instruction contribute to shaping leadership efficacy and capacity in peer-group contexts (Campbell et al., 2012; Dugan et al., 2011).

In addition to gaps in the literature on leadership development in peer-group contexts, there is a gap in understanding how generational characteristics impact the teaching and learning preferences of digital native college students. Research on generational differences in leadership has shown that while the World War II and baby boomer generations generally look up to

political, civil rights, and military leaders, individuals born during the technology revolution also look to tech entrepreneurs as leadership role models (Arsenault, 2003).

Indeed, the information revolution has made it possible for undergraduate students like Bill Gates and Mark Zuckerberg to use technology tools to create billion-dollar companies from their college dormitory rooms that have transformed our society. Like Gates and Zuckerberg, digital native students bring to college a technology fluency that allows them to access vast amounts of knowledge and tools that have not been available to any previous generation of college students. For these reasons, college administrators and scholars have argued that institutions of higher education must adjust their teaching and learning practices to address digital native students' new ways of thinking and learning (Levine & Dean, 2012; Prensky, 2001; Rosen, 2010). While it is undeniable that the growth of information technology has significantly changed the nature of communications and work in our society, there is a lack of research data to understand how generational characteristics impact teaching and learning preferences broadly (Bennett & Maton, 2010; Bennett, Maton, & Kervin, 2008; Enyon, 2010; Jones & Czerniewicz, 2010; Thompson, 2013) and specifically within leadership studies.

Very little research on leadership studies explores how generational characteristics impact the teaching and learning of leadership (Haber et al., 2012; Wisniewski, 2010). Several studies that have been presented in the literature suggest that age may play a role in how individuals understand and practice leadership (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2012 Komives et al., 2006; Lord & Hall, 2005). Findings from these studies indicated an opportunity to further explore and expand the understanding of how generational characteristics impact the definitions, practice, and learning of leadership (Haber et al., 2012; Wisniewski, 2010). Unfortunately, the few studies that focused on leadership education for digital natives, paid significantly more

attention to specific technologies (i.e. blogs, video games, and social media) than on how these students construct meaning and practice leadership in a way that is most relevant for their generation. In addition, while some research looked at various instructional strategies of leadership studies for digital native college students, the majority of these analyzed the curriculum taught by faculty (Allen & Hartman, 2008b; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2013) or the perceptions of students receiving the leadership education (Allen & Hartman, 2008b; Jenkins, 2012, Dugan et al., 2011).

Absent from the literature is the perspective of college students as active creators and teachers of leadership knowledge themselves (Buckwell-Nutt et al., 2014; Girvan & Savage, 2010; Hockings, 2009; Hoffman, 2009; Won & Choi, 2017). This study attempts to fill the gap in the literature by exploring whether the rise of technology use in this generation of digital native college students has changed the definitions and approaches to leadership learning.

Research Questions

Based on the two identified gaps in the literature, this research seeks to further the MSL empirical studies highlighting the importance of peer interaction in leadership development by exploring the ways digital native college students engage in the creation of leadership curriculum and instruction in peer-groups. In order to fill the identified gaps in the literature, this research answers the following questions:

1) What pedagogical approaches do digital native college students use to impart leadership knowledge in student peer groups and what values, beliefs, and assumptions regarding leadership learning prompt their pedagogical choices?
2) How do general understandings of leadership by digital native college students get enacted into the curriculum and instruction in a peer-group context?

3) In what ways do digital native college students use technology and other educational modalities for delivering leadership education in peer groups?

This research is unique because it allows educators to gain an in-depth understanding about instructional strategy learning preferences from the perspective of digital native college students. This knowledge is significant because it will allow higher education institutions to design leadership learning experiences with a deep understanding of the learners they are intending to support (Haber et al., 2012). By incorporating a better understanding of how digital native students approach leadership learning, post-secondary institutions will be able to increase the access and engagement of students in learning these important skills. In an academic and political environment characterized by a scarcity of resources and increasing public accountability, administrators and educators must focus their efforts on practices that have been demonstrated to increase leadership development outcomes in students (Dugan et al., 2011). By understanding how digital native students apply peer-to-peer learning and technologies into leadership development, scholars and educators can incorporate these powerful learning pedagogies and tools into formal leadership programing that can reach more students. Ultimately, the findings from this research will help higher education institutions to engage with digital native college students as partners in codesigning education experiences that benefit the entire campus community.

III. METHODS

Research Design

To best address the lack of research and inadequate understanding of digital native college student leadership development in peer groups, I employed an interpretive qualitative case study methodology. Qualitative methods are appropriate for understanding an area where little is known or where limited understanding exists about the nature of a phenomenon (Morse & Richards, 2007). One of the limitations of most studies on college student leadership instructional strategies is that the methods used for exploring this phenomenon involved the use of data gathered from self-reported individual interviews.

The authors of several studies acknowledged the limitations of these methods that often relate to assumptions about what students mean and how their definitions agree with survey terms (Beyer, Gillmore, Fisher & Ewell, 2007; Dugan, 2011; Jenkins, 2013). Indeed, even MSL researchers have encouraged the use of qualitative research methods to add depth of knowledge to the empirical findings of their research (Dugan, 2011). Dugan stated, "Qualitative inquiry into the nature of effective individual leadership experiences could provide greater insight into how high- impact strategies are best integrated into learning experiences" (p. 78). One of the key gaps in the MSL literature was an in-depth exploration of how high impact learning strategies are implemented within student peer groups. Therefore, qualitative study can help deepen the knowledge of how these influential learning strategies are enacted in student leadership peer groups in the college context.

Qualitative research is also an appropriate method for this study because of its ability to help researchers gain a rich understanding of events from the perspectives of those involved in them.

Merriam (1998) writes:

> Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed; that is, how they make sense of their world and the experience they have in the world…In contrast to quantitative research, which takes apart a phenomenon to examine component parts, qualitative research can reveal how all the parts work together to form the whole (p. 6).

Qualitative methods allow for witnessing evidence of what digital natives actually do when it comes to teaching and learning leadership in a group context. Many factors are involved in understanding teaching and learning within student leadership development; qualitative methods allow for a deeper exploration of this complex process.

This research employs an interpretive case study approach to gain an in-depth understanding of a situation and to capture the meaning of those involved within a bounded system (Merriam, 1998). This case study approach is relevant in an environment where the variables involved in the phenomenon (digital native college student leadership teaching and learning) cannot be easily separated from the context (peer groups at the university). The aim of this research is to explore the instructional strategies used by digital native students within the context of a university student peer group, engaged in leadership teaching and learning. The combination of factors involved in the case study approach provides a more complete picture of how definitions and practices of leadership development in groups among college students have changed across generational cohorts.

An interpretive case study guides a strong design for use in this situation since many of the gaps in the literature suggest a lack of understanding of how peer groups engage in practices shown to increased leadership efficacy and outcomes. MSL researchers (Dugan, 2011) identified

a series of learning practices (sociocultural peer conversations, mentors, community service, engagement in off-campus organizations, sequenced curriculum building of leadership self-efficacy) that influence leadership outcomes, however there are still gaps in the literature to explicitly describe how these practices are implemented within college student peer groups.

The interpretive case study approach is well suited to provide rich descriptions of a phenomenon under investigation that can help researchers and practitioners better understand the details of such learning strategies. In addition, a case study is a rigorous methodology for exploring potential innovations or unique practices in leadership development applied by digital native students that would not be easily identified with other forms of investigation (Merriam, 1998).

While the qualitative case study approach is a viable method of inquiry within multiple disciplines (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 1989) it is not beyond criticism. Among the key criticisms of the case study approach are the lack of representativeness and generalizability to other situations outside of the specific case being studied (Merriam, 1998). These are very valid concerns and applicable in instances where the research question seeks to generalize findings to a specific population. However, in this instance, the research questions seek to explore a unique understudied phenomenon (how groups of digital native students design and implement leadership education in peer groups) and not generalize findings to all college students. While data gathered in the case study was taken from only one institutional context, some researchers argued that the general similarities in students and higher education institutions do not create major obstacles to generalization to similar institutional settings (Yin, 2013). Therefore, these scholars

argued that insights gained from one college context can (with an understanding of limitations) be applicable to other similar settings.

Case Selection and Setting

This qualitative case study chronicles the evolution of the curriculum and instruction of a student-designed and taught peer-to-peer leadership studies program at a large research university over a 20-year period. The case study at the center of this research is the U-Lead Program (ULP).[1] This program was conceived and launched by a group of undergraduate student government leaders (including this researcher) in 1999 at a major state-funded university on the west coast. This large research university has over 35,000 students and offers many different formal and informal classes, groups, and associations where students are actively engaged in leadership activities (Beyer et al., 2007).

The ULP operates during the university's academic year from September through June. All design and implementation of the leadership development curriculum for this program are performed by undergraduate students. Based on foundational documents of this program, the intent of the ULP is to provide educational and experiential opportunities for undergraduate students to develop their leadership skills towards service at the university and in the community. These documents also highlighted that the program is intended for undergraduate students who have little or no exposure to leadership development. This case study presents an analysis of the evolution of learning strategies used in this program since its founding in 1999 (fully designed and facilitated by non-digital native students) to 2019 (fully designed and facilitated by digital native students). This analysis helps determine how generational characteristics of students

1 All program and participant names have been changed to preserve the anonymity of the study participants.

influence the teaching and learning of leadership within peer groups. The ULP program was selected as the case for this research for three reasons detailed in the following sections. The first reason for selecting the ULP is that the program offers a critical case (Yin, 2008) for understanding the ways that undergraduate students engage in leadership development and work in peer groups. As was highlighted earlier, one of the gaps in the literature on instructional strategies is the perspective of students as facilitators and instructors of leadership studies (Buckwell-Nutt et al., 2014; Won & Choi, 2017). As a student-designed and operated group, the ULP provides a critical case for uniquely exploring the way undergraduate college students engage in leadership teaching and learning.

The leadership teaching and learning were explored from the students' perspective as to what they believed to be most relevant to their generation with minimal influence and constraints from higher education personnel or institutional requirements. Therefore, this case allowed me to witness the students' understanding and definitions of leadership in action as they shared this subject with other peers through the program's curricular and instructional activities.

The second reason for selecting this case was because this particular group of students conducts leadership development activities on a daily and/or weekly basis, providing an information-rich case that manifests the phenomenon of leadership development more intensely than other student organizations (Patton, 1990). While colleges and universities across the country offer many formal and cocurricular courses and organizations where leadership is learned and practiced, I chose to focus my research on a student group directly involved in the practice of leadership development as its core

function. One of the key sampling choices made in this research was to avoid researching leadership perceptions and learning from the typical university student. Instead, this study identified students who were deliberately engaged in leadership development work on a regular basis. These students, many of whom have been engaged in developing and delivering curriculum for the ULP over several years, are reasonably theorized to have a more complete understanding of college student leadership development than a typical university student.

The deeper level of understanding and practice of leadership development by students in this program allowed for richer data insights into how they approached leadership teaching in groups. In addition to providing a richer understanding of how students define and practice leadership education, students in this case study can also reasonably be considered members of a "lead user" (Von Hippel, 1988, p. 18) community, which involves constantly evolving and creating innovation in its practices. By conducting a case study on this type of college leadership development "lead user" communities, it might be possible to uncover innovative approaches that digital native students apply to the teaching and learning of leadership they believe to be most relevant for their own generation.

The third reason for the case selection is that, as the founder of this leadership program under study, I had a unique context and historical background from which to examine the evolution of instructional strategies over time. As the original developer and implementer of this program I possess documentation, access to relationships with other founding members, and personal experience of the ULP since its original launch in 1999. From this original implementation of the program by students representing Generation X, I am well positioned to compare, and contrast the program's instructional strategies used by digital native students with those used by digital non-native students during the program's founding in 1999. Therefore, the

ULP provides an excellent case to observe how the definitions of leadership from students (across multiple generational cohorts) are manifested in the curriculum and instructional practices in a student group environment.

Finally, the ULP is operated at a university that is one of the higher education institutions participating in the MSL. Given the intent of this research to deepen an understanding of learning strategies from MSL findings, it was appropriate to select a case in an institution that is actively applying practices to develop leadership experiences for its students.

In summary, the case selected for this study has the attributes of being a unique phenomenon for the research to address (critical case of leadership peer-group instruction), providing rich sources of data (information rich case of sustained leadership instructional practice), and allowing the researcher (as founder of this program) a way to leverage his own intimate knowledge of this case to conduct an analysis of the evolution of instructional methods over time at an institution participating in MSL research. The combination of these factors made this the ideal research case to address the study's questions and provide data on a population that permits logical generalization of the findings to other similar populations (i.e., other undergraduates at large universities) in similar settings (Patton, 1990).

Data Collection

Since this is a case study focused on the evolution of the ULP program curriculum, data was collected that documented instructional practices across various periods along the 20-year lifespan of the program from 1999-2019. The first set of data collection provided documentation of the program's first three years of existence,

spanning from 1999-2001. This period marked the foundational structure of the program curriculum and instruction in which I was personally involved. This period marked a time when the participating students encompassed Generation X (non-digital natives) and implemented curriculum based on their ideas of leadership teaching and learning. For the purposes of distinguishing this initial phase of the program's life, I will refer to this time period as the program's *foundational phase*.

The rest of the data collected for this study covers the program's development between 2002-2019. I will refer to this time period as the *evolution phase*. Data collected and analyzed during the evolution phase of the program was then compared with that same data during the foundational phase of the program to see program changes/development over time. Under ideal circumstances, it would have been possible to conduct observations, complete interviews, and gather organizational documents for every single year of the program's existence from 1999-2019. Unfortunately, data from every single program year was not available for review. This is particularly true of formal classroom observation, which only took place from 2018-2019. Therefore, I compiled my findings from various sources of data (documents, student and administrator interviews, workshop observations) documenting the history and evolution of program curriculum from 1999- 2019.

My research was carried out onsite at the university campus where this program is operated. All observations, site visits, and interviews were carried out by me personally. The direct interaction I have had with the program and its participants over multiple years since helping launch it in 1999 was important for developing trust with the study participants and witnessing their leadership development activities formally and informally over a period of time. These factors helped me analyze and draw conclusions from the data by observing participants in

a variety of leadership development activities and therefore minimized the risk of overgeneralizing their activities based on limited exposure to the case under study (Merriam, 2009).

Data Sources

To answer the research questions of this study, different types of qualitative data were collected including interviews, observations, and document analysis (see Table 3).

Table 3

Data Sources Summary

Data Sources Used in the Research
Document Analysis: Analysis of course materials including course planning documents, instructional material, and student assignments representing the following academic years: 1999-2004 & 2011-2019 **Student Interviews**: 12 semi structured interviews with student leadership instructors representing the following academic years. 1999-2002, 2005-2006, 2007-2008, 2010-2019 **Administrator Interviews**: 5 interviews with student affairs administrators overseeing the program between 1999-2019 **Formal Workshop/Activity Observations**: 6 workshop and leadership activity observations in 2019

The variety of data sources ensured that the case provided an accurate and rich representation of the phenomenon under investigation. In addition, the use of multiple data sources, or triangulation, also helped to avoid over-reliance on any one source of information and to understand the subject of the case study. Triangulation refers to using various types of data sources and methods to develop a well-rounded understanding of the subject matter (Patton, 1999). All the interviews, observations, and documents

provided rich sources of data to analyze students from different generations enacting leadership teaching and learning in a peer group. Below, I detail each of the data collection methods deployed in this study.

Document Analysis

Data collection involved analyzing ULP documents that detailed development and delivery of the program curriculum. Access to these documents was obtained with permission from student activity office administrators and student directors of the ULP. Documents detailing the history and founding of the ULP were collected from original program founders (including this researcher) and from the university's archival collections. Documents detailing the evolution of program curriculum were collected from the ULP program offices, computer files, and online web resources. The types of documents collected for analysis included the following:

- Program manuals and descriptions
- Program promotional materials (fliers and presentations)
- Program application and selection documents
- Leadership workshop topics, descriptions, and session materials
- Agendas from ULP retreats and planning meetings
- Photos of participant retreats and program events
- Program feedback notes from student participants for directors
- Program webpages

Individual Interviews

To add to the data collected from the document analysis, I conducted interviews with students in charge of delivering the curriculum and instruction for the ULP and with university

staff in charge of overseeing the overall program. One-on-one semistructured interviews were conducted with ULP students in charge of coordinating the program and with those teaching leadership workshops. Finally, additional semistructured interviews were conducted with university administrators who have overseen the program development and evolution since its inception (in 1999) to 2019.

The flexibility of the semistructured interview method allowed me to engage with the subjects using broad, open-ended questions with opportunity for developing impromptu follow-up questions to explore emergent themes and concepts (Merriam, 1998). This type of interview methodology is well suited for uncovering the concepts of leadership development pedagogy in college students, which has not been widely studied (Katherine, 2011). Each interview was conducted over the phone or in person. Most of these interviews lasted between 45-60 minutes.

Observations

To supplement the document analysis, data was also gathered by conducting observations of ULP leadership workshops and program activities in 2019. Workshops and activities were randomly selected to gain exposure to a variety of leadership workshop topics and group activities. This in-depth immersion into witnessing students' engagement in leadership development work provided rich data to help better understand how students enact leadership curriculum and instruction within this student peer group. Observations also allowed for gaining a better understanding of the environments (locations) where these leadership experiences took place. During these observations, I took notes on the session and recorded my observations in a standard observation protocol (see Appendix E) focused on observing the curriculum and instructional

practices used by students in delivering the leadership workshops. In addition to the formal observations conducted in 2019, as a founding member of this program, I have observed and participated in several other leadership ULP workshops since 1999. While my earlier observations were not conducted as formal data gathering sessions, they do provide context for the formal observations conducted as part of this study.

Analytical Framework

This study explored leadership the teaching and learning practices through the lens of sociocultural theory. From the sociocultural perspective, human cognition is a complex process involving the mind, body, activity, and interaction with others (Lave, 1998). From this perspective, learning (leadership, or other subjects) is postulated to be developed through continued, complex social negotiations with others and is situated in activity, context, and culture (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Scholars like Vygotsky, Leontiev, Luria (Engeström, 1999) emphasized that human cognition is culturally mediated by artifacts (tool, signs) and enacted by human activities involving multiple actors and structures (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). Lave and Wenger (1991) also stipulated that learning is achieved through situated practice, or what they called *legitimate peripheral participation* within communities. Given these definitions of learning, when viewed through the sociocultural perspective, it is reasonable to conceive that evidence of generational characteristics can be embodied within the artifacts (curriculum, course materials), practices (learning activities), and narratives of leadership education developed by digital natives.

Sociocultural theory was applied to the analysis of this ULP case study using activity theory (Engeström, 1999) to describe the case study. In addition, Shulman's (2005) signature pedagogies of instruction and Conger's (1992) approaches to leadership development were used

as a conceptual framework for this study. Each of these framework components is useful in analyzing the teaching, curriculum learning, and instructional practices of digital native college student groups. The frameworks have been used in research studies in the field of education (Barab, Barnett, Yamagata-Lynch, Squire, & Keating, 2002; Basharina, 2007; Berge & Fjuk, 2006; Engeström, 2015; Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999).

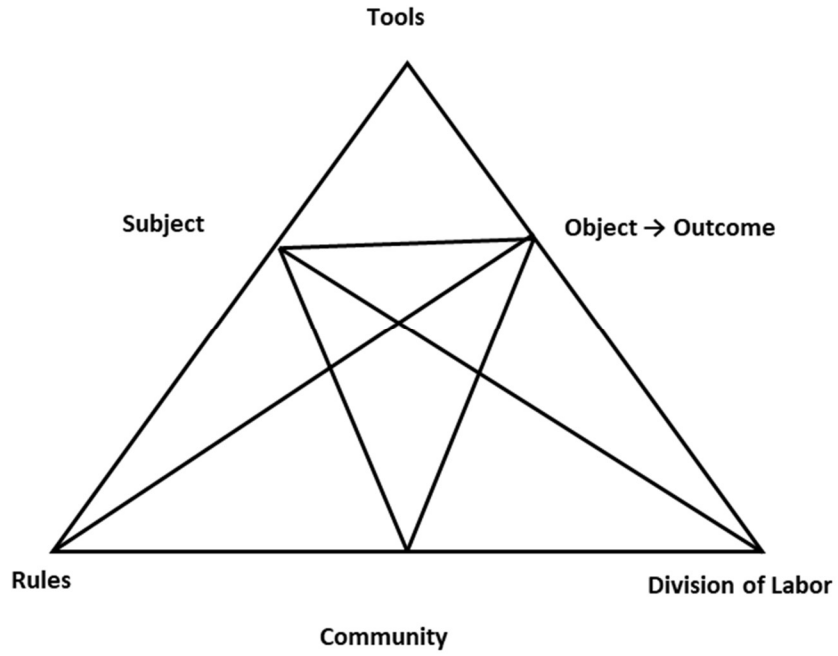
In this research, activity theory is used as a sociocultural descriptive tool (Nardi, 1996) to categorize programmatic elements of the ULP case study. Activity theory is used to highlight digital native students' teaching and learning practices, the tools they use, and contextual relationships among participants. Activity theory originated from the philosophies of Kant and Hagel, which focused on the active and constructivist role of humans (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). Intellectuals and scholars including Marx, Engels, Vygotsky, Leontiev, and Luria have all contributed in various ways to the development of activity theory (Engeström, 1999). Activity theory has been used to analyze sociocultural phenomena in a variety of disciplines including psychology, sociology, management sciences, and education (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy 1999).

In education, activity theory has been used in several case studies analyzing changes in instructional practices resulting from the introduction of new technologies into the curriculum (Barab et al., 2002; Basharina, 2007; Berge & Fjuk, 2006; Murphy & Rodriguez-Manzanares, 2008). This application of activity theory in case study research makes it a useful and appropriate descriptive tool for the ULP case study, which focuses on analyzing instructional practice changes based on the learning preferences of digital native college students who are theorized (based on the literature described earlier) to favor using technologies for teaching and learning.

In this study, activity theory was used as a descriptive tool to define the case parameters of the ULP program under analysis. The framework allowed for the exploration of changes in activities, tools, and relationships of this leadership program over time. The descriptive model of activity theory that I used to analyze this case study was based on the one formulated by Engeström (1999). Engeström's model (see Figure 4) includes the interactive components of subject, object, rules, community, division of labor, and instruments (tools, artifacts), which are each described in detail below.

Figure 4

Activity System Diagram



Note. From "Activity Theory and Individual and Social Transformation," by Engeström, 1999, In Y. Engeström, R. Miettinen, & R.-L. Punamäki (Eds.), *Perspectives on activity theory,* pp. 19-38. Cambridge University Press.

The interactive components of subject, object, rules, community, division of labor, and instruments (tools, artifacts), are each described in detail below.

• **Subject** of an activity system is the group (or person) whose perspective is adopted for the analysis (Kuutti, 1996). In this case, the subject is the college student leadership program.

• **Object** refers to the intent that all activities are focused on in the activity system (Cole & Engeström, 1993). In this case, the entire activity system for the leadership group is aimed at producing a programmatic outcome that develops student leadership.

• **Rules** can be explicit and or implicit that define the boundaries for actions and interaction in the activity system (Kuutti, 1996). In this instance, the rules are ones governing the development and implementation of a student-led, leadership program in a higher education environment.

• **Community** encompasses all the individuals involved in an activity system, who are focused on accomplishing the same objective (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). For this case study, community includes students, and university and community professionals involved in designing and executing the leadership program.

• **Division of Labor** is defined as the various roles, tasks, and positions of individuals engaged in the activity system (Engeström, 1999). In the ULP there are multiple formal roles that students are responsible for in the development and implementation of the program.

• **Instruments** are tools that mediate the object of activity (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). They can be external, material (e.g., a textbook, a computer, curriculum) or internal, symbolic (e.g., language). For this case study, instruments include curricular

activities, artifacts, and technology tools used by ULP participants in all program activities.

Conceptual Framework

In addition to applying activity theory as a tool to organize the teaching and learning components of this leadership case study, I applied Shulman's (2005) signature pedagogies of instruction and Conger's (1992) approaches to leadership development as a conceptual frameworks to explore the most frequently employed instructional strategies used by digital native college students to deliver leadership education in peer groups. The signature pedagogies identified through this framework used by digital native students were then compared to the signature pedagogies used by previous generations of students who founded the ULP.

Signature Pedagogies of Instruction

According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies are the forms of instruction that first come to mind when thinking about preparing members for a discipline or profession. Examples of these pedagogies might include conducting clinical rounds in medical schools or presenting intense case discussion in law schools. These pedagogies are pervasive within the discipline and across educational institutions over time. Signature pedagogies define what constitutes knowledge or expertise in each field and the ways students learn to think, and perform in that discipline (Shulman, 2005). For this study, the signature pedagogies framework was used to conceptualize and analyze what counts as knowledge, how things become known, and the ways students practice leadership development within peer-to-peer groups.

Scholars have applied Shulman's framework in the study of several professions including clergy (Foster, Dahill, Golemon, & Tolentino, 2006), lawyers (Sullivan, Colby, Wegner, & Bond, 2007), nurses (Benner, Sutphen, Leonard, & Day, 2010), engineers (Sheppard,

Macatangay, & Colby, 2009), and physicians (Cooke, Irby, O'Brien, & Shulman, 2010). In addition, other case studies and observation research has applied the signature pedagogies framework to explore teaching and learning in the humanities, arts, and social and natural sciences (Ciccone, 2012).

At the time of this writing only one study had applied the signature pedagogies framework to explore leadership education for undergraduate students. Jenkins' (2012) signature pedagogies research involved a national survey of 303 leadership instructors in institutions of higher education across the country and explored the pedagogies most frequently used by leadership educators to teach academic credit-bearing classes for undergraduate students.

Findings from Jenkins' (2012) study suggested that class discussion was the signature pedagogy for undergraduate leadership education. While projects, presentations, self-assessment instruments, and reflective journaling were used frequently, discussion-based pedagogies were the most common (Jenkins).

A signature pedagogy is a multi-dimensional instructional form that is prominent across educational disciplines and professions. According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies can be identified at three distinct levels including surface structures, deep structures, and implicit structures, which are described as follows:

1) **Surface structures** are observable acts of teaching and learning within pedagogical practices

2) **Deep structures** are the set of assumptions, often found in program descriptions, curricula, and guides that describe how teaching and learning should occur

3) **Implicit structures** are the set of beliefs and philosophical ideals (often unspoken and unexamined) that provide the basis for values, attitudes, and disposition of individuals.

Signature pedagogies within these three dimensions exhibit certain common characteristics (even across different disciplines), that distinguish them from other instructional strategies not rising to the level of a signature pedagogy.

According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies are:

- **Pervasive** and are shared by multiple instructors within and across a field of study or profession.
- **Routine and habitual** occurring during each class or even multiple times within each class.
- **Visible and accountable** that require students to make their thinking and learning visible to instructors and other students through public activities or performances that provide opportunities for formative assessments of student learning.
- **Unchanging** and are consistent over time. According to Shulman (2005), despite any pedagogical shortcomings, the normative values of a profession and society allow the continued practice of pedagogies that stakeholders view as legitimate.

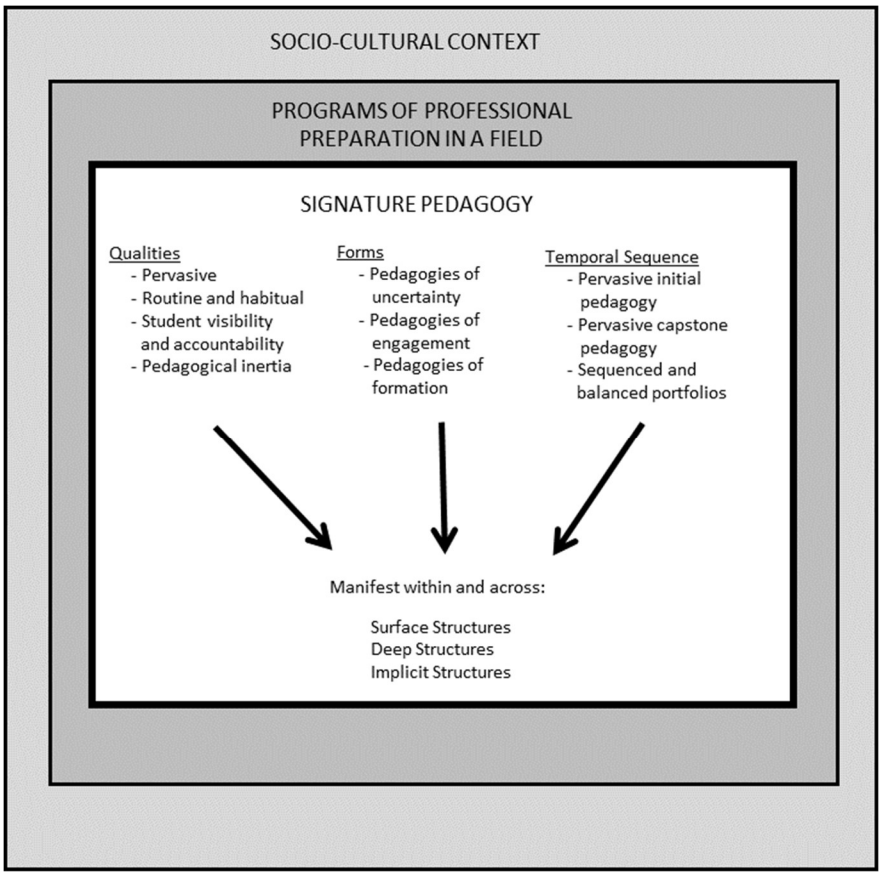
In addition to these basic shared characteristics, Shulman (2005) described other elements that are common among signature pedagogies in a discipline or profession (see Figure 5) as follows:

- **Pedagogies of uncertainty** are instructional practices with variable and unpredictable paths of instruction. This unpredictability may be the result of the types of work students are asked to perform.

- **Pedagogies of engagement** are instructional practices that require students to be active in their learning (i.e. completion of a practicum).
- **Pedagogies of formation** are instructional processes used to teach students the habits of "heart, mind, and hand" (p. 56) in their chosen field. It is through pedagogies of formation that students learn to think like, act like, and feel like the professionals they wish to become.
- **Pervasive initial pedagogy** is an instructional form where the signature pedagogy is dominant at the beginning of a program of professional education. After time, pervasive initial pedagogy gives way to varying instructional forms or a capstone.
- **Pervasive capstone pedagogy** is an instructional practice that is dominant at the end of a program of professional education.
- **Sequenced and balanced portfolios** is a pedagogical form where the signature pedagogy is dominant throughout the entire course of a program.

Figure 5

Sociocultural Perspectives and Signature Pedagogies of Instruction



Note. From "In Search of Signature Pedagogies for Teacher Education: The Critical Case of Kodály-inspired Music Teacher Education," by P. J. Baumann [Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland]. UMD Theses and Dissertations. https://drum.lib.umd.edu/handle/1903/10322

While most of the research using signature pedagogies explores teaching across various institutions, this study applied this analytical framework for identifying the most commonly used instructional strategies by digital native college students within the ULP over time. The signature pedagogies construct offers detailed descriptions of elements that make up instructional

practices in peer-to-peer student leadership groups, which have not been adequately addressed in the college student leadership literature to date.

Four Approaches to Leadership Development

In addition to the signature pedagogies framework, this analysis is guided by applying Conger's four approaches to leadership development, since this model has been used for multiple studies which have been detailed in the literature review section of this paper. As described in the literature review section, Conger (1992) categorized the objectives of leadership development programs into the following four categories: personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building. Any leadership development program can aim to achieve one or more of these objectives using its instructional strategies.

As stated previously, according to Conger (1992), personal growth programs focus on the assumption that leaders are individuals who connect with their personal goals and skills and who actively work to fulfill them. Conceptual understanding focuses on a cognitive understanding of a subject and its related concepts. Feedback experiences are used to help individuals assess their own behavior and provide constructive feedback to help other individuals identify areas of improvement. Finally, skill-building programs are designed to enhance a person's ability to perform various competencies and build expertise within a domain (Conger). Conger's basic framework is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Conger's Four Approaches to Leadership Development

Personal Growth	**Conceptual Understanding**
Feedback	**Skill Building**

Note. Adapted from "Leadership Development: An Exploration of Sources of Learning," by S. A. Allen, & N. Hartman, 2008. *SAM Advanced Management Journal, 73*(1), p. 11

Conger's descriptive research provided a basic framework to categorize the purpose of leadership education programs. For the purposes of analyzing and categorizing instructional strategies used by digital native college students, I will use an adaptation of Conger's four sources of learning framework developed by Allen and Hartman (2008a). Allen and Hartman's research organized various instructional pedagogies (sources of learning) most used in college leadership programs into Conger's four approaches to leadership development (see Table 5). This conceptual framework will also be used in the analysis of the data to understand the objective of leadership development pedagogies most frequently used in the ULP program.

Table 5

Four Approaches to Leadership Development with Sources of Learning

Personal Growth	Conceptual Understanding
Journal reflections Small group reflection Personal vision statements Service learning Informal networking	Case studies Film and TV clips Lecture Panel of experts Attend a tour Listen to a story Observation Articles or book Research leadership
Feedback	**Skill Building**
Assessment and instruments	Low ropes or team course Icebreakers Simulations or game Role playing activities

Note. Adapted from "Sources of Learning in Student Development Programming," by S. A. Allen, & N. Hartman, 2009, *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(3), p. 8.

Data Analysis

Data collected in this research during various time periods of the ULP case underwent three phases of analysis: (a) open coding, (b) analytic coding using categories from the analytic and conceptual frameworks, and (c) inductive analysis of data outside both conceptual and analytical frameworks to explore additional or unique themes revealed by the case study. Open, analytic, and inductive methods were selected because they are common in qualitative research (Merriam, 2009) and because they allow for focused, yet comprehensive examination of the case study phenomenon. Specific to this research, analytic coding allowed for a comparison of pedagogies over time, while inductive analysis allowed for the exploration of factors that could help explain the nature and evolution of pedagogies in college student leadership development.

The first step in the data analysis process involved open coding, where I focused on *listening* for interesting concepts or themes that naturally emerged from the data (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). During this phase I applied a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) where each unit of data from documents, observations, and interviews was compared and analyzed for recurring regularities in the data. I accomplished this by reviewing each piece of data and making notes on copies of case study documents and creating separate memos documenting themes I found. During this phase of analysis, data were grouped broadly into three categories relating to the three research study questions focused on (a) leadership definitions, (b) pedagogical strategies, and (c) instructional modalities. Within these broad categories, the constant comparative method was again employed (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to allow for further sorting of data into emerging themes and subcategories corresponding to the overarching research questions.

The second level of analysis involved going back over the initial open codes to group them into activity theory categories (subject, object, instruments, division of labor, community, and rules). This process was applied for ULP program activities during the program's *foundational phase* (1999-2001) and the *evolution phase* (2002-2019). This analytic coding allowed for the comparison of program curriculum, activities, and structure across the entire 20-year period of the ULP since its founding in 1999. Once the data was sorted into the activity theory categories, the data was then analyzed using Shulman's signature pedagogies framework and Conger's approaches to leadership development in order to compare instructional strategies of student peer-to-peer leadership groups over time. This second phase of analytic coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2014) allowed me to group instructional strategy data collected in the program over the various periods to explore which instructional practices achieved the level of

signature pedagogies as described by Shulman's framework (2005). during the foundational phase of the program and then compare this to the pervasive pedagogies found in later years under the direction of digital native college students.

During this analytic phase, the data from the case study was reviewed specifically for instructional practices in college student peer leadership that displayed the following characteristics defined previously in this chapter from the signature pedagogies framework (Shulman, 2005):

- Pervasive
- Routine and habitual
- Visible and accountable
- Unchanging (pedagogical inertia)
- Pedagogies of uncertainty
- Pedagogies of engagement
- Pedagogies of formation
- Pervasive initial pedagogy
- Pervasive capstone pedagogy
- A sequenced and balanced portfolio

This phase of data analysis also involved the categorization of the activities in the program (through activity theory) and then the exploration of dominant forms of instructional strategies (signature pedagogies) found in the program over time. This categorization allowed for a comparison of the similarities and differences of pedagogical practices of this student leadership peer group during various time periods.

Additionally, once I identified the key pedagogies used in this program, I categorized these using Conger's four approaches to leadership development framework. This step allowed me to explore the leadership program objectives of the ULP based on the pedagogies of the program. This analysis is presented in the findings section of this study.

In the final phase of analysis, I returned to the original data and specifically coded for emergent themes that were outside the categories of conceptual and analytical frameworks used for this study. Given that research on pedagogies of college student leadership development is in its early stages, it was important to look at the data carefully and explore other naturally emerging categories that were not yet identified in this nascent literature. To accomplish this, I used an inductive method of data analysis as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). This method reduced the risk of confining the data to an existing category of the frameworks used in this study that could have hindered the generation of new categories this research might have uncovered.

While MSL research and other studies of college students defined the concept of leadership using a specific model (e.g. relational leadership, social change model), the aim of this research was to uncover how college student peer instructors define this concept through their teaching and learning practices. Therefore, the inductive method of analysis was appropriate for making inferences (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) about leadership definitions and instructional practices in college student peer groups that emerged from the data.

Reliability, Validity, and Researcher Positionality

Reliability of a qualitative study refers to the extent that the results of the research are consistent with the data that was collected, while validity deals with how study findings match with reality (Merriam, 2009). In order to ensure the reliability and validity of this case study

research, the following strategies were employed (a) clarifying researcher positionality, (b) triangulation, (c) member checks, and (d) peer examination (Merriam, 1998; Morse & Richards, 2007).

According to Merriam (2009), since the researcher is the means by which all data is interpreted in the qualitative method, a researcher's positionality and reflexivity are important parts of surfacing any biases and assumptions the researcher may bring to the interpretation of the data. It is important to examine and reveal both the researcher's orientation and selected theoretical orientation at the outset of the study (Merriam, 1998). I recognize that my past and current experiences as both a practitioner in higher education and a leadership professional have shaped my perspectives on the topic of undergraduate leadership development education. Additionally, as stated earlier, as the original founder of the ULP (which served as the central case for this study), I have a specific understanding of the program's original core components and practices when this program was launched in 1999. While this familiarity with this program provided me unique access to data and insights to analyze the evolution of this student peer leadership program, this deep knowledge of the program also likely impacted my own investigation and analysis (Peshkin, 1988).

Like any researcher, I have my own biases as to how I define leadership and how I think it is best learned. Some of these biases can be specifically seen in the way I originally conceived of the ULP program as articulated in the program foundational documents. The original curriculum and instructional methods that will be specifically detailed in the findings section include my own ideas and assumptions on leadership teaching and learning that I used in designing the ULP as a college senior in 1999.

While my own assumption of leadership teaching and learning are present in the original ULP program design, the curriculum evolution and methods over the past 20 years have been developed by subsequent generations of students with their own beliefs and ideas about how leadership is developed in college students. To further limit my biases and influences on the selection and analysis of this study and to increase the validity and reliability, I employed triangulation, member checks, peer examination, and an audit trail (Merriam, 1998; Morse & Richards, 2007).

There were several steps I followed in generating the conclusion of this study. Once I completed my initial data gathering and the three steps of data analysis described earlier, I developed a set of preliminary findings for each of the research questions in the study. Areas selected for key findings in the study had to be present in multiples sources of data collected (interviews, documents, and observations). This method of triangulation helped ensure that there were multiple sources of data supporting each of my findings and thereby avoiding bias that could be present in any one of the data sources collected (Patton, 2002).

The interview, document, and observation data collected were shared with ULP participants and program administrators to ensure that my interpretation of the program components and activities were accurately represented. This member checking and debriefing processes were also used to also minimize my own potential basis in reporting on this research (Xu, 2006). I also shared the data and findings with colleagues, to receive feedback on my analysis and conclusions from the data. I used this peer debriefing process (Merriam, 2009) during the preliminary findings to minimize my own potential bias prior to arriving at the final study conclusions.

Study Limitations

While care was taken to ensure the validity and reliability of study findings, as with any piece of research, this case study had its own set of limitations. The research findings are intended to provide a snapshot of leadership development in a college student leadership development peer group. As with many qualitative case studies, it is important to note the findings are linked to the context where they will emerge (Cameron, 2003). The institution type and student characteristics all inform one another to influence documented leadership practices. Since teaching and learning are complex processes, impacted by the context where they occur, these observed outcomes cannot simply be extrapolated or generalized beyond the specific setting where they took place (Lopes, 2008). The findings are simply intended to highlight a case of interest where students have an active role in implementing leadership development within a peer-group environment. The insights and new understanding that emerged from this study may provide scholars and educators insight into a phenomenon useful in developing further research on this situation in similar or different institutional contexts.

Another limitation of this study was the time period where data was collected to capture the 20-year evolution of the leadership program. The documents, observations, and interviews I was able to collect relating to ULP activities provide only a small sample of all the leadership activities conducted by students during the 20-year history of this program. This is particularly true of observations of student workshops and activities that were only gathered during 2018 and 2019. While the total number of observations, documents, and interviews may be appropriate to provide a general comparison between leadership development activities conducted by students during the foundational phase of

the program and those performed by digital native students 20 years later, there are many years where I did not collect data on program curriculum or observe student activities. Therefore, I relied on historical pattern matching (Sinkovics, 2018) to make certain conjectures about the curriculum during interim periods where no data was collected.

A third limitation of the study is that while I had significant familiarity with the ULP having interacted with students and administrators involved in the program for many years, there were many instances of teaching and learning activities that I was not able to capture in my research. The multiple sources of data I collected for this research helped to provide illustrative instances on the way leadership instruction was delivered in this peer group. However, many interactions between students outside of a formal classroom and program context could not be captured. For example, the interactions that took place with students and the mentorship relationships built informally outside of formal program activities (social gatherings, travel, informal conversations via phone, text) were not documented as part of this study. Therefore, there may have been other types of learning strategies and interactions taking place that were not captured, but that still contributed to the leadership development of these college students. This study was therefore limited to the observed phenomenon, interviews, and document analysis available during the time of data collection.

Finally, another limitation worth noting was my choice to only interview students who designed and delivered leadership curriculum in the ULP (called ULP mentors and directors in their third or fourth year in college) as opposed to freshmen students participating in the program for the first time who did not develop program curriculum. Since the research questions were focused on understanding the way students developed instructional strategies, the focus on students designing and implementing instructional strategies was appropriate. For this reason,

the sample in this study does not represent the average students on college campuses beginning their leadership education journey, but rather students in their third or fourth year of college who already have more experience in the area of college student leadership development.

In summary, while care has been taken to ensure the validity and reliability of study findings, there are serval limitations to these findings. Most notably, the quantity of data I collected amounts to a relatively small sample of all curriculum activities and interactions that have taken place in this program across its 20-year history. Therefore, it is important to understand the findings provide a small glimpse into all the teaching and learning activities within this student peer group. Nevertheless, these findings contextualize the study in a way that helps advance an understanding of how instructional practices have evolved in a college student peer leadership program across generational cohorts.

Ethical Considerations

Every measure to protect the identity of the participants and the confidentiality of their responses was strictly followed. The identities of the participants have not been revealed in documents intended for the public domain. The interviewees were informed that no names would be revealed in this study and that their data would be represented either by a pseudonym or a coded number in any written or verbal reports. Interview participants were advised that they could end their participation in this research at any time without any adverse consequences. Finally, the ethical review of this study was conducted by the human subjects department at the university where the data was collected. The department's letter of approval is attached in Appendix A.

IV. FINDINGS

Case Study Analysis

In order to explore how generational characteristics of the digital native generation impact leadership teaching and learning, I applied a developmental case study approach looking at the evolution of one student peer-to-peer leadership development program over time. The initial time period of the program explored the teaching and learning practices during the initial founding and operation of the program from 1999-2001, referred to as the *foundational phase*. This foundational period established the core signature pedagogies of the ULP, founded by Generation X (Howe & Strauss, 2000) students (born during the late 1970 and early 1980s). The data collected from the foundational phase of the program establishes a baseline for exploring the evolution of educational pedagogies during the ULPs development over a 20-year period. During the foundational period of the ULP, personal technologies and the Internet were in their infancy.

The generation of college students who founded the ULP is sometimes referred to as *digital immigrants*, while those who grew up with technology playing a dominant role in their lives are referred to as *digital natives* (Thompson, 2013). The teaching and learning practices of digital native students who developed and operated the program from 2002-2019 are contrasted with the original teaching and learning practices documented during the program's foundational phase from 1999-2001. This analysis of leadership learning practices across generational cohorts identified differences as well as similarities in the ways digital immigrant and digital native college students approached the teaching and learning of leadership in a peer-group context.

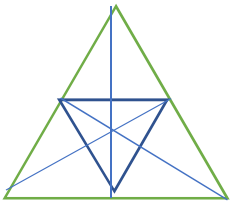
The comparison of the ULP curricular and instructional activities are summarized in Table 6 and Table 7 and are categorized based on the activity theory framework (described in the

methods section of this paper) used in sociocultural research to analyze components of learning activity in a variety of settings (Cole & Engeström, 1993; Engeström, 2015). Table 6 outlines activities in the program during the foundational phase from 1999-2001. I provide a second table (Table 7) with detailed descriptions of ULP program activities during the evolution phase of the program from 2002-2019, when the program was designed and operated by digital native college students. All descriptions and categorizations in the tables come from data collected from ULP interviews, documents, and program observations.

The ULP Case: Program Activities Evolution 1999-2001

Table 6

The ULP Case: Program Activities 1999-2001 (Program Foundation)

INSTRUMENTS: (Curriculum activities & assignments) --Participant nomination --Participant recruitment/ selection --Program kickoff retreat (2 days) --Leadership workshops (10 weeks in classroom) --Internships/ apprenticeships (6-7 weeks) --Service projects (6-7 weeks)	**INSTRUMENTS: (Artifacts)** --Program trifold pamphlet (paper) --Program information flier and nomination forms (paper) --Leadership program manuals from other universities (paper) --Program description overhead projector transparencies (plastic) --Articles on workshop facilitation and student leadership development topics (paper) --Program description and manual (paper) --Workshop curriculum (paper) --Workshop checklist (paper) --Workshop handouts (paper) --Service project proposal form (paper) --Program evaluation forms (paper)	**INSTRUMENTS: (Technology)** --Landline telephone --Email system --Word and Excel documents --Student government file server
SUBJECT --University Leaders Program	**ACTIVITY SYSTEM** 	**OBJECT** --Leadership development education and experiential opportunities for under-graduates seeking to become leaders on campus and in the community.
VALUES, RULES & CONVENTIONS --Co-curricular, student designed and facilitated leadership development program --Cohort-based learning design --Administrative support and funding provided by student government association	**COMMUNITY** --ULP student organizing committee (5-7 students) --ULP participants (20 students referred to as *leaders*) --Student life advisor	**DIVISION OF LABOR** --Administrative and budget support (student life advisor) --Participant nominations (ULP student organizing committee, faculty, staff) --Participant recruitment and selection (ULP organizing committee) --Program kickoff retreat (ULP organizing committee) --Leadership workshops (ULP organizing committee/ university faculty, staff or community members --Internship opportunities (university faculty, staff or community members) --Service projects (program participants)

The following discussion is a detailed explanation of each of the ULP program components depicted in Table 6.

Subject

The ULP was originally founded as a student-run leadership development program at a four-year university. The ULP is the central case study in this research and the activity system under analysis.

Object

According to foundational documents, the stated mission of the program was to provide leadership development education and experiential opportunities for undergraduates seeking to become student leaders on campus and in the community.

Values, Rules, and Conventions

The ULP was designed as a co-curricular (non-credit) program within the university's student government entity. The participants in this program were nominated by staff, faculty, and other students to be part of a student cohort of over 20 undergraduate students who showed leadership potential but did not have formal leadership development experiences in college. Students selected were in their freshman or sophomore years of college or were new to the university campus as transfer students from community colleges. The ULP was governed by rules and policies of the associated student government entity within the division of student life at a large public research university.

Community

An organizing committee of five to seven student government leaders coordinated all aspects of the program during the academic year. The students from the organizing committee reviewed all nominations and selected individuals to participate in the program. The student

participants who were learning leadership are called *leaders*. There were approximately 20 leaders in the initial ULP cohorts. Since the program was part of the student government structure, a staff member from the office of student life was assigned to advise students on the administrative and budgetary functions associated with running a program of this type. In total there were between 26 to 28 individuals who made up the ULP community during its foundational phase between 1999-2001.

Division of Labor

The program involved a variety of tasks during the academic year. A staff member from the office of student life was appointed to provide guidance to students on the administrative and budgetary components of the program. The student organizing committee was comprised of existing student government leaders and additional volunteers who oversaw the design and implementation of the program. Implementation of the program involved several elements, including:

- The organizing committee sought nominations (from faculty, staff, and other students) for student program participants.
- The organizing committee selected the cohort of students to participate as leaders in the program during the spring/summer quarter.
- The organizing committee coordinated a fall off-campus overnight retreat to strengthen participant ties with each other.
- The organizing committee organized leadership workshops taught by faculty, staff, and community members on topics to help with leaders' understanding of leadership concepts.

- The organizing committee set up 12-week internships for the ULP leader program participants to work alongside existing student leaders, faculty members, or staff to see how these individuals fulfilled their roles on campus.
- Leaders, with guidance from the student organizing committee, organized their own campus service projects as the capstone component of the program to demonstrate their learning from the leadership workshops and internships.

Instruments (Curriculum, Artifacts, and Technology)

Curriculum. The ULP curriculum involved several broad activities and assignments that had to be performed by the organizing committee or by leaders. The details of these activities are described below based on program manuals reviewed during this research.

Participant nomination. The participant nomination process involved the students in the ULP organizing committee conducting outreach to staff, faculty, and fellow students to request nominations for individuals who would be good candidates for the ULP. According to foundational documents, the criteria for individuals to qualify for participation in the program included being motivated to lead on campus and having little to no leadership experience. The ULP organizing committee spent several weeks promoting the program throughout campus and encouraging individuals to nominate 20 to 30 students to become a cohort of leaders in the program.

Participant recruitment/selection. Following the nomination process, the ULP organizing committee identified nominees to interview and then selected 20 to 30 students they believed would be a fit to become the leaders in the cohort.

Program kickoff retreat. The entire program began with an overnight retreat for the new leaders' cohort and the ULP organizing committee. Students on the organizing committee, with

support from the student life advisor, designed activities for the retreat to help all individuals in the program get to know each other better and build a sense of community for the group. The retreat was held at an off-campus location in a conference facility located near a wilderness area where students stayed in camping cabins.

Leadership workshops. After the kickoff retreat, the leadership workshops were the initial starting point for all participants in the program to become familiar with leadership concepts. The workshops were arranged by the ULP organizing committee and involved bringing in faculty, staff, and community members as presenters to teach the leaders cohort about different leadership concepts and skills. The workshops were held in meeting rooms in the student union building and included one or more faculty, staff or community member as featured speakers. Archived ULP syllabi from the foundational years of the program listed the following leadership workshops topics:

- Communication
- Public Speaking
- Identifying Your Leadership Style (Myers-Briggs Personality Assessment)
- Personal Responsibility and Accountability
- Overcoming Oppression and Increasing Diversity
- Personal Planning and Goal Setting
- Community and Campus Involvement
- Teamwork
- Managing Time, Stress and Conflict
- Creativity and Vision
- Motivation

- How to Lead a Meeting
- Developing Service Projects
- Qualities of Leadership
- Mock Board Meetings
- Ethics
- End of Year Celebration

Internships/apprenticeships. In the internship and apprenticeship phase of the program, the leaders in the ULP cohort spent six to seven weeks engaged in a short-term internship working side-by-side with leaders on campus or in the community. The ULP organizing committee students arranged these internships and provided guidance during the process. Some of these internships included service-learning classes or volunteering opportunities arranged by the office of community service, while other internships were provided by student government leaders, to allow ULP leaders to volunteer for different campus committees or organizations.

Service projects. In the capstone of the ULP experience, leaders organized and executed their own service projects. The objective of the capstone was to have each of the participants put their skills learned through the workshops and internships into practice toward service of the campus and the community. The program participants' service projects were guided by a small subcommittee of the ULP organizing committee. Service projects executed by ULP leaders included organizing events on campus, creating new student organizations, or raising awareness about an important issue through an event or information session.

Artifacts. The key artifacts of the program included printed program manuals and handouts explaining and promoting the program. During the foundational phase, there were many printed brochures and program manuals with key details of this new program.

Additionally, there were several types of printed checklists and instructional handouts to organize workshops, internships projects, and program evaluations. In the ULP archival records, I found numerous printed articles providing information on leadership skills and effective methods for facilitating workshops and leadership activities.

Technologies. During the program's foundational phase, the technology tools used to operate this program included MS Word and Excel software, and a central file server to upload program documents onto the student government offices servers. Additionally, the ULP organizing committee used the university's DOS-based email system and telephones to communicate with program participants and other individuals involved in coordinating program activities. My research of archived program documents did not reveal a program website during the ULP's foundational years between 1998-2001.

The ULP Case: Program Activities Evolution 2002-2019

As a comparison to ULP teaching and learning activities highlighted during the foundational phase when the program was designed by digital immigrant students, Table 7 highlights program activities and components as the program evolved and were implemented by digital native students from 2002 to 2019. All data categorized in the table and later described in detail is derived from data collected from ULP interviews, documents, and program observations. The ULP activities and components that have changed over time from the foundational phase of the program to the evolution phase are highlighted in bold in Table 7 and explained in detail in the following section.

Table 7

The ULP Case: Program Activities 2002-2019 (Program Evolution)

<table>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUMENTS:
(Curriculum activities & assignments)
--Participant recruitment/ selection
--Program kickoff retreat (2 days)
--Leadership workshops (16-20 weeks in classroom)
--Leadership practice (8-weeks)
--Mentor recruitment and selection
--Mentor training workshops
--Mentorship of leaders</td>
<td>INSTRUMENTS: (Artifacts)
--Articles on workshop facilitation and student leadership development topics (paper)
--Program description PowerPoint (paper/digital)
--Workshop curriculum/ PowerPoints (paper/digital)
--Workshop checklist (paper/ digital)
--Workshop handouts (paper/ digital)
-- Leadership project handbook (paper/digital)
--Program evaluation forms (paper and digital)
--Applications for mentors and leaders (digital)
--Retreat and program photos (digital)
--Program t-shirts
--Program posters (printed)</td>
<td>INSTRUMENTS: (Technology)
--Landline telephone
--Email system
--Word and Excel documents
--Student government file server
--Website
--PowerPoint slides
--Wiki (inactive since 2014)
--Blog (inactive since 2014)
--Facebook group
--Instagram account
--Google Drive
--Google Docs
--Google Calendar
--Survey/application software
--Online videos with teaching/facilitation activities (i.e. YouTube, TED Talks)
--Digital camera
--Smartphone texts</td>
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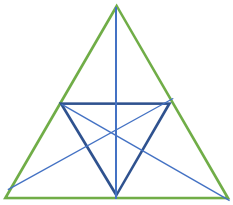
<tr>
<td>SUBJECT
--University Leaders Program</td>
<td>ACTIVITY SYSTEM
  </td>
<td>OBJECT
-- To provide community and mentorship to support students to become the leader they want to be (mission)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUES, RULES & CONVENTIONS
--Co-curricular, student designed and facilitated leadership development program
--Cohort-based learning design
--Administrative support and funding provided by student government association</td>
<td>COMMUNITY
--ULP Participants (40+ students referred to as leaders
--Student Life Advisor
--Paid ULP directors (2 students)
--ULP mentors (20+students)
--ULP alumni</td>
<td>DIVISION OF LABOR
--Administrative and budget support (student life advisor)
--Participant recruitment and selection (mentors/directors)
--Program kickoff retreat (mentors/directors)
--Leadership workshops (mentors)
--Leadership practice(leaders)
--Mentoring of participants through ULP experience (mentors)
--Student mentor selection (directors)
--Mentor training workshops (directors)</td>
</tr>
</table>

Subject

The ULP continues to be a student-run leadership development program at a four-year university.

Object

According to revised mission statements and information from the program's website, the objective of the ULP evolved from what was documented in the foundational phase documents. The original objective of the program as articulated in program manuals was to provide leadership development education and experiential opportunities for undergraduates seeking to become student government leaders. The program objective evolved to the following statement found in a revised mission document from 2015: *Providing community and mentorship to support students to become the leader they want to be*.

Values, Rules, and Conventions

ULP is still a co-curricular (non-credit) program within the student government entity at the university. However, as the program evolved, the campus-wide nomination process to recruit participants was replaced with an application process that allows any student to apply to be considered for the program. From the student applications, some individuals were selected for an interview, and from those interviews the final students were selected to participate in the ULP leader's cohort.

Community

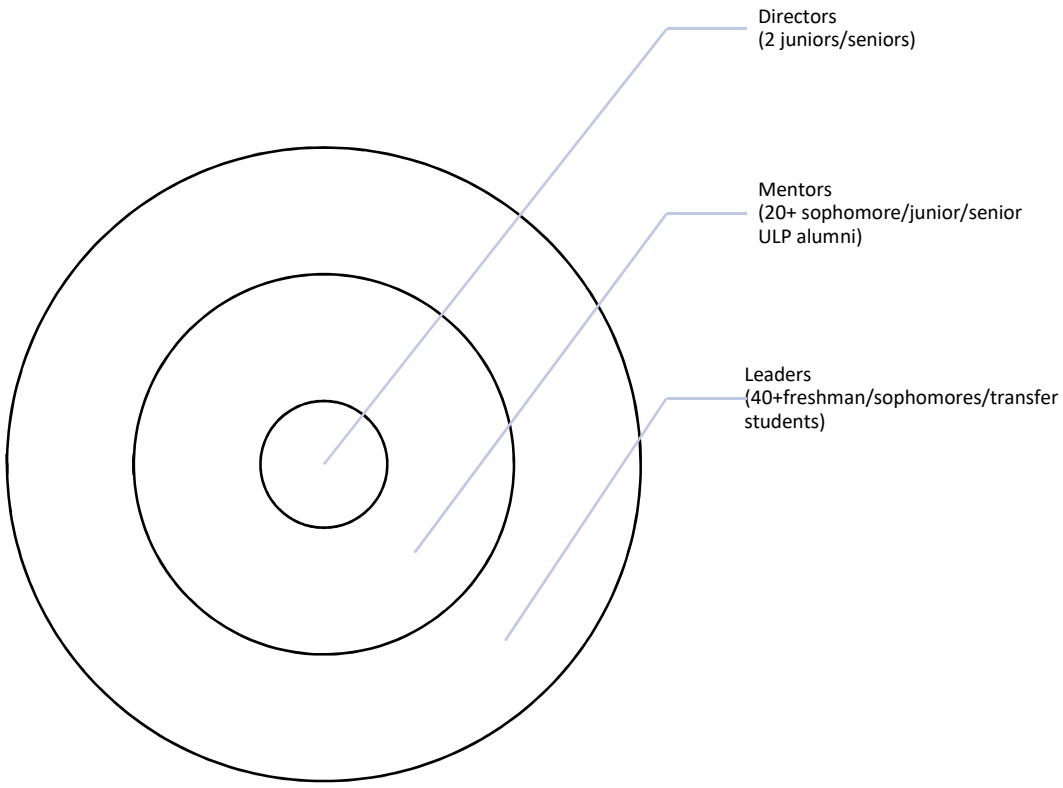
The community involvement in ULP changed since the initial foundation period. The program had five to seven students comprising the ULP organizing committee, who were responsible for operating all aspects of the program. This committee was later replaced with two paid student directors who coordinated all program activities. A paid staff member from the

office of student activities, responsible for oversight of all student government entities, advised the ULP Directors.

While the ULP student director and assistant director facilitated the planning and implementation of the program each year, ULP instituted a new structure where a cadre of undergraduate student volunteers became responsible for designing and implementing core educational components of the program (Figure 6). Each academic year during the spring quarter, students in their sophomore, junior, and senior years apply to become *mentors* in the ULP. This is a competitive process requiring a formal application. The program directors select a new cohort of mentors (approximately 20 students) each year to recruit and select a new class of ULP leaders and to develop all curricular components of the program. At the start of each academic year, through a competitive application process, a committee made up of ULP directors and mentors, selects a new cohort of 40-50 students (from approximately 200 applications of students in their freshmen or sophomore year) to participate in the program. These incoming program participants are referred to from day one as *leaders* and are also now sometimes referred to as *mentees* to distinguish the role these students have in the program compared to other students who hold positions as mentors or directors. Therefore, as the program evolved over time the community making up ULP grew to involve directors, mentors, leaders, and an office of student life advisor. In total, there were 63 to 73 individuals who made up the ULP community during its evolution phase.

Figure 6

ULP Community Structure (2002-2019)



Division of Labor

With the hiring of ULP directors and the addition of mentors in the ULP community, the division of labor changed significantly from the way the program operated during its foundational phase. While the general program operations, budget duties, and administrative support were still conducted by the directors (with support from the student life advisor), most of the curricular experiences were assigned as projects to the cohort of ULP mentors. ULP mentors are responsible for reviewing and selecting a new cohort of leaders, supporting the design and facilitation of the kickoff retreat, teaching leadership workshops, and providing guidance for the

leaders as they completed their capstone project (leadership practice). In addition, the central role of the mentors is also to provide one-on-one or small group mentoring of the leaders. As the program evolved, the responsibility for teaching leadership workshops and providing mentorship for student participants that were originally done by faculty, staff, and community members, was now primarily being conducted by student mentors who were only one or two academic years ahead of the student leaders admitted into the program.

Instruments (Curriculum, Artifacts, and Technology)

Curriculum. The ULP curriculum shifted in a few ways from its original form during the program's foundational phase. The elements that remained constant and those that shifted are described below.

Participant recruitment/selection. The original nomination process was replaced by an application process where students directly apply to the program and are selected by the mentors and ULP directors.

Program kickoff retreat. The retreat format has remained consistent over the life of the program. However, the planning and implementation of the retreat are conducted by the program directors and mentors, not the organizing committee as was the case during the foundational phase.

Leadership workshops. During the foundational period of the ULP, the leadership workshops were organized by students in the organizing committee, and primarily taught by faculty, staff, and community members. With the change in program management structure from the organizing committee to directors and mentors, the leadership workshop structure and purpose changed significantly from how they were originally. As of 2019, the core requirement

for each mentor admitted into the program was to design and facilitate the delivery of two leadership workshops per year for the ULP community.

As the program evolved over time, the internship component of the program was replaced by doubling the number of leadership workshops offered. After the kickoff retreat, the leadership workshops are the initial starting point for all participants in the program to become familiar with leadership concepts. The workshops were held in various conference rooms around campus. Analysis of program syllabi during the evolution phase of the program revealed that while there have been small changes in some of the leadership workshop titles, the majority of topics covered in these sessions have remained relatively unchanged. One example of these subtle changes is the way that workshops on diversity have evolved with the language used to frame the issue. During the foundational phase of the program, diversity was framed in terms of overcoming oppression primarily for underrepresented minorities and women. Over the years, workshops on diversity covered more contemporary framings of the subject which included conversations around equity and inclusion, White privilege, and discrimination towards gay, bisexual, lesbian transgender, and queer students (GBLTQ).

Leadership practice. The service project component of the ULP evolved over time to be called a leadership practice. While the project was still a core assignment of this program, the types of projects allowed significantly broadened in scope. During the foundational phase of the program, many leadership projects took the form of organizing live student events, talks, and gatherings or creating a new student group or program on campus. In contrast, the leadership practice activity that evolved took many different forms including internships, studies abroad, community projects, personal development experiences, academic research, or other experiences students defined to develop their sense of leadership and identity including art or digital media

projects. The leadership practice remained the capstone for all leaders in the program and was guided by the program mentors.

Mentor recruitment and selection. As the program evolved and mentors assumed significant responsibilities for designing and implementing the various components of the program, mentor recruitment and selection became key activities in the program and occur during the spring term. The application process allows students to apply to become ULP mentors. The core tasks of mentors are to design and facilitate the kickoff retreat and leadership workshops; recruit and select a cohort of leaders for the program, and; provide mentorship and guidance for students while they are in the program. Those eligible to become mentors include students who have previously participated as ULP leaders or who are in their junior or senior year and have a significant amount of leadership experience in areas outside of the ULP.

Mentorship training workshops. As the role of the mentors became more prevalent within the ULP structure, directors added a series of workshops to prepare selected mentors to fulfill their roles in the program. Eight to ten mentorship workshops took place annually during the fall quarter to familiarize students with the roles, responsibilities, and skills needed to successfully select a cohort of leaders and provide mentorship and leadership education to these students. The mentor workshops were developed and facilitated by the ULP director and assistant director.

Mentorship of leaders. Once mentors were selected and trained, they were required to select a small group of two to three leaders whom they would mentor through the ULP experience. These mentors introduced students to opportunities to serve on campus, provided feedback and guidance through program components, and provided personal support and friendship as students engaged in the demands of active college leadership and campus life.

Artifacts. The general types of artifacts used in the program since its foundation have remained relatively the same. The primary change in the artifacts is that they evolved into both digital and printed materials that are used as handouts for workshops. Program documents were available during the foundation years and new artifacts were developed and added to the existing program documents for use by the ULP community. Many of the new artifacts uncovered during my document research included PowerPoint presentations about the ULP and leadership workshop presentations put together by mentors and directors. Additionally, ULP t-shirts and printed posters from various years hung on the walls of the ULP office located in the student union building.

Technologies. The number and types of technologies being used in the coordination of the ULP have grown significantly since the program's foundational phase. A file server, email, phone, and Microsoft Office software continued to be used in addition to several new technologies that are regularly used for operating the program. The first online website for ULP I was able to locate appeared in 2002. Since then the website has replaced printed trifold brochures and handouts as the primary methods for communicating program information and resources. Wiki sites and blogs were also developed to convey program history and information. As of 2019, neither the Wiki site nor the blog had been used since 2014.

ULP students also used a variety of social media and web-based technologies to implement the program. The ULP has a Facebook page and an Instagram account that are used primarily to share photos of program participants, events, and activities. As mentioned previously, while the ULP does have access to a central computer server which is part of the student government offices, there is significant use of the Google suite of products including email, calendar, docs, and drive to develop, document, and coordinate activities and assignments

for the program. These cloud-based tools are used to help with collaborating on work that needs to be done by directors, mentors, and leaders in the program. Several tools that were previously paper-based processes like mentor and leader applications, matchings, and program evaluations are now (as of 2019) conducted using an online survey tool. During the foundational phase of the program, organizing committee students used books and articles as resources to learn about leadership topics or methods for facilitating workshops, while during the evolution phase the majority of resources used by members of the ULP community involved online videos from YouTube and TED as opposed to paper-based resources.

Finally, I observed the use of mobile smartphones as a means to send emails and texts, find resources on the Internet, take photos, and schedule appointments as a core components of program implementation beginning after 2011. However, while the use of technology was significant in all aspects of program operation and design, the use of technology was almost completely absent from the teaching and learning activities in the program's leadership workshops and projects. More detail on these findings is presented in the following section.

Findings and Discussion

I began this research by seeking to explore gaps in the literature on the ways digital native college students approached the teaching and learning of leadership in a peer-to-peer group context. The literature review informed the following three questions that have guided this research:

1) What pedagogical approaches do digital native college students use to impart leadership knowledge in student peer groups and what values, beliefs, and assumptions regarding leadership learning prompt their pedagogical choices?

2) How do general understandings of leadership by digital native college students get enacted into the curriculum and instruction in a peer-group context?
3) In what ways do digital native college students use technology and other educational modalities for delivering leadership education in peer groups?

This qualitative case study of instructional strategies in a student created peer-to-peer leadership development program over a 20-year period revealed four findings to answer the central research questions described above.

Finding 1: The most widely practiced (signature) pedagogy for learning leadership by digital native students, was the creation and active participation in a peer-to-peer mentorship community.

Finding 2: Neither digital native college students nor their predecessors articulated a common definition of leadership and seem to prefer a more expansive and flexible conceptualization of this term.

Finding 3: Both digital native students and their predecessors designed program curriculum in a sequential manner beginning with the development of personal leadership skills followed by activities to develop group leadership competencies.

Finding 4: While digital native students used a significant array of technologies to develop and operate a peer-to-peer mentorship community, small group face-to-face conversations were the most used modality for engaging in the teaching and learning of leadership.

In the sections below, I describe each of the findings in detail and present evidence from the data supporting my observations and interpretive claims. Following the description of the data, I discuss implications for practitioners and direction for future inquiry for scholars that stem from each of the findings.

Finding 1: Learning via Peer Mentorship Communities

The most widely practiced (signature) pedagogy for learning leadership by digital natives, was the creation and active participation in a peer-to-peer mentorship community. All leadership workshops I observed followed a similar format. Thirty minutes prior to the workshop, mentors gathered to discuss the formal roles they each would take to support the activities for that session. As leaders arrived for the workshop session, the first 15 minutes was an informal socializing/networking time when participants greeted one another and engaged in informal small group or individual conversions while standing in different parts of the room. Participants seemed generally excited to see one another, greeting each other with hugs and they seemed to know each other quite well from their previous ULP interactions. The students were dressed casually, and the session had the feeling of a gathering among friends, rather than a formal course workshop. Chairs and tables were moved to the edges of the classroom, creating an open space in the middle for participants to sit on the floor either facing the front of the room or more often in a large semicircle facing each other. In the workshops, I observed mentors beginning the formal activities with a 20 to 30-minute session describing the central leadership topic for that workshop (i.e. planning and time management, self-care and resilience, storytelling).

This introductory phase of the workshop generally involved the use of a PowerPoint presentation and resembled a more traditional lecture format from a formal university course. Following the initial presentation, students would often break out into small groups to participate in a class activity or to discuss a specific leadership topic or concept. Most of the time participants in the groups would stand facing each other or sit on the floor for the conversation. After the activity or discussion, participants once again came together in a large group to share

their insights from their small group work. This method of large group to small group discussion or activity was present in every workshop session I observed. Small groups in the sessions involved a pair of students, a mentorship group (made up of one mentor and two or three leaders), or a randomly selected group of mentors and leaders.

ULP participants would also often separate into small groups they referred to as *roundtable groups*. Roundtable groups are formed during the program's kick-off retreat at the beginning of the ULP experience. These roundtable groups are made up of a small group of mentors and leaders who are assigned to conduct an ice breaker activity (called a roundtable) when they sit facing each other in a small circle and share their life stories. Several of the students I interviewed shared that roundtables are generally one of the most powerful bonding activities in the entire program. These students reported that the roundtable activity creates a strong connection between participants, and therefore students continue to work with their roundtable group throughout the duration of the program. A leadership workshop generally consists of two-thirds of the time focused on small group activities or discussion and one-third of the time focused on whole group presentations or reflections. At the conclusion of the workshop, participants are encouraged by the ULP director to remain and socialize with others or to participate in additional campus or community events with other ULP students.

According to Shulman (2005), signature pedagogies are forms of instruction that are pervasive and consistent across instructors over time. While many different pedagogies were revealed during observations of ULP workshops and activities (lecture, individual reflection, presentations), community building was the most pervasive and consistent practice all participants engaged in over time. Every ULP activity I observed included a large portion of time devoted to ice breakers, socializing, and team building activities. I watched as every

workshop began with informal time for participants to socialize and then each subsequent activity involved interacting with small groups. It was extremely rare that any activity required individual work. At every workshop, I observed the directors and mentors concluding the session with announcements of opportunities for participants to partake in additional group activities outside of the workshops. These observations revealed a very clear emphasis in the program on having students spend significant time practicing social and community-building skills. One thing that became clear from speaking with students and attending program activities, is that ULP participants spend a significant amount of time and effort developing a strong sense of community among participants. Several of the directors and student mentors I spoke to shared that they believed the strength of the ULP community was the most important indicator of the program's success.

In addition to observing practices (surface structures) of community building by participants, Shulman (2005) asserted that signature pedagogies can also be found in program curricula (deep structures) and unspoken and unexamined values, attitudes, and dispositions of individuals (implicit structures). My research also revealed the important role of community building in the deep and implicit structures of the ULP. The central role of socialization skills and community building practices observed in leadership workshops is also evident in program documents that articulate the central role that community building plays in the ULP's method for developing student leadership.

The original ULP documents defined the core objective of the program as providing leadership development education and experiential opportunities to develop leaders on campus and in the community. Over time, the language used to describe the core objective of the

program shifted toward a focus on community building and mentorship as the core methods to support leadership development (see Table 8).

Table 8

ULP Leadership Development Objectives 1999-2001 & 2002-2019

ULP 1999-2001	**ULP 2002-2019**
Program Objective --Leadership development education and experiential opportunities for undergraduates seeking to become leaders on campus and in the community.	**Program Objective** --To provide community and mentorship to support students to become the leader they want to be

Further evidence of emphasis on community building can be seen when analyzing the growth in the number of participants engaged in the ULP community. Table 9 highlights the evolution of the individuals involved in the implementation of the ULP; and the significant growth in the numbers and types of participants in the ULP community over time.

Table 9

ULP Community Members 1999-2001 & 2002-2019

ULP 1999-2001	**ULP 2002-2019**
COMMUNITY --ULP student organizing committee (5-7 students) --ULP participants (20 students referred to as *leaders*) --Office of student life advisor	**COMMUNITY** --ULP participants (40+ students referred to as *leaders* or *mentees*) --Office of student life advisor --Paid ULP directors (2 students) --ULP mentors (20+ students) --ULP alumni

During the program foundational phase, the community was comprised of approximately 25 to 27 individuals including five to seven organizing committee members and 20 leader participants in the program. The organizing committee members coordinated workshop speakers and internship opportunities for the leaders. When analyzing the changes in the ULP over time, the community of students involved in the program grew over 50% to more than 60 individuals including two directors, over 20 mentors, and over 40 leaders per year.

This growth in the size of the ULP community also coincided with the changing nature of the core instructional strategies from workshops and apprenticeships to a focus on creating a peer-to-peer mentorship community. While the original foundational documents of the ULP called for the organizing committee to coordinate leadership workshops, internships, and community service projects, the core pedagogical strategy changed over time. During the original design of the ULP, there were multiple individuals responsible for supporting students in their leadership development. These individuals included upper class students (juniors and

seniors comprising the organizing committee), university staff, faculty, and community members outside of campus. Each of these individuals performed a role in contributing to the ULP curriculum. In the original program design, students on the organizing committee recruited university faculty, staff, and community members to deliver leadership curriculum, internships, and leadership projects for the leaders. In addition, these same groups were asked to provide guidance and support for the participants as they engaged in each of the program's curricular activities.

As the program evolved, this original program community of students led by a small student organizing committee (5-7 students), was replaced by a student peer mentor committee made up of 20 student peer mentors who executed most of the learning components of the program (see Table 9). Therefore, beginning in 2002 when the mentors were added to the program, the core output of the program shifted from organizing workshops and internships, to creating a peer-to-peer mentorship community every academic year. Community building became the core output of the program and the leadership teaching and learning took place within this peer-to-peer community. As the program evolved, it became the work of the peer mentorship community (made up of directors, mentors, and leaders) to work collaboratively to perform all the curricular components of the ULP.

An analysis of the evolution of the division of labor (see Table 10) in the implementation of the ULP showed the increased emphasis on peer mentors in implementing the majority of the program activities and replacing the roles originally assigned to faculty, staff, and community members. The contrast of the foundational phase of the program compared to its evolution from 2002-2019 (highlighted in Table 7 in bold) shows that the responsibility for implementing

workshops that was once given to faculty, staff, and community members now became the responsibility of student mentors.

Table 10

Division of Labor for ULP

ULP 1999-2001	**ULP 2002-2019**
DIVISION OF LABOR --Administrative and budget support (Student life advisor) --Participant nominations (ULP student organizing committee, faculty, staff) --Participant recruitment and selection (ULP organizing committee) --Program kickoff retreat (ULP organizing committee) --Leadership workshops (ULP organizing committee/ university faculty, staff or community members --Internship opportunities (university faculty, staff or community members) --Service projects (program participants)	**DIVISION OF LABOR** --Administrative and budget support (student life advisor) --Participant recruitment and selection **(mentors/directors)** --Program kickoff retreat (**mentors/ directors)** --Leadership workshops **(mentors)** **--Leadership practice** (program participants) **--Mentoring of participants through ULP experience (mentors)** **--Student mentor selection (directors)** **--Mentor training workshops (directors/returning mentors)**

A significant shift in the ULP pedagogy occurred from leadership knowledge being derived from older more experienced professionals, to student peers as the main source of leadership insights. This use of peer learning is often referred to in sociocultural literature as learning from a more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978). Learning from a more

knowledgeable other is in sharp contrast to learning approaches that emphasize that knowledge is best obtained from experts (Ericsson, 2009).

The increased importance placed on the role of peer-to-peer mentoring is not only observable in the program curriculum documents, but also the leadership development workshops. In every ULP workshop, I observed the facilitators (mentors) as being only one or two academic years ahead of the students taking the workshops (leaders). While the ULP benefits from an alumni base, an operating budget, and access to a multitude of faculty and staff with expertise in leadership development, the students actively chose to utilize student peer mentors as the primary means for delivering program content. Observations of workshops and interviews with ULP directors revealed that while faculty, staff, and other working professionals were sometimes brought in to be guest speakers in workshops, students in the program preferred learning from other student peers instead of outside professionals or faculty.

The opportunity for the upperclassmen mentors to organize and facilitate workshops as part of this peer leadership community allowed the ULP to more than double the number of students involved in its community. This creation of a larger community also expanded the learning opportunities for the mentors themselves as they participated in the creation and facilitation of the ULP community. The value of the learning opportunity for mentors is highlighted in the excerpts below from several student mentors (pseudonyms used) interviews.

> Maria: *The mentors are also learning leadership because they are getting together and working to put on a two-hour workshop to teach a group of sixty students who are all so different and come from different walks of life. I think the mentors are learning a lot from this program.*

Ashley: *I think I have also learned a lot as a mentor. Working with a group and having that dynamic between different people, including people who have different leadership styles. Being a mentor, I think you are really exposed to all those different styles of leadership and personalities.*

Along with the participants quoted above, other interviewees highlighted the important role that peer-to-peer mentorships play in this program. The interviewees explained that mentors play a central role in the program's leadership development not only through facilitating workshops, but also by exposing participants (leaders/mentees) to other activities and opportunities on campus where they can continue developing leadership skills. Establishing close connections with mentors also provides the opportunity to develop a close-knit community, which is valuable for students new to a large university campus. Novak, a student who had been both a leader and a mentor in the ULP, discussed the value of a mentoring relationship in influencing campus leadership involvement.

Novak: *Learning from a student mentor, you learn how to navigate the campus environment and how to communicate with people, including people who maybe you don't necessarily mesh with that well. For me, my mentor introduced me to everything that I've been involved in at the university*.

Other students interviewed also expressed the sentiment that the peer-to-peer mentoring relationship was one of the most valuable aspects of the ULP experience. Below are additional excerpts from interviews that highlight students' perspectives on the value of mentorship. Sarah recounted how she learned from her mentor.

Sarah: *I learned an incredible amount through my ULP mentor. I think just being around her and seeing how she conducted and presented herself in the university community was*

valuable for me. Just being able to rely on her for advice was incredibly helpful for my leadership development. If I had not had her as my mentor, I would not be in the same place today.

One of the mentors, Cordell, described the value of having a mentor in engaging him deeper into the ULP program.

Cordell: *I enjoyed being a leader in the program*, *but I don't feel it meant something to me until I met my personal mentor. We meet every two to three weeks to get coffee and he helps me. He asks me, "What are you going to do?" and "How are you going to get there?" I feel like having a mentor there to help you figure out where to go and how are you going to get there is important. When you have a good mentor, you can see it to in the quality of their mentees who go on to become good mentors too.*

The quotes highlight the importance the ULP program places on developing a strong peer-to-peer community for students. These interviews revealed the value of mentorship for all involved in the ULP experience.

Another analysis I performed in this study involved categorizing the various pedagogical assignments used in the ULP into Conger's approaches to leadership development framework. Table 11 provides an illustration of this analysis for the foundational phase of the ULP. Table 12 provides this same analysis for the program evolution phase until the present day.

Table 11

ULP Approaches to Leadership Development 1999-2001

Personal Growth	Conceptual Understanding
-Journal reflections (workshops) -Small group reflection (mentor or roundtable groups) -Service Learning (Leadership Projects) -Informal Networking (with mentor and other ULP participants in the community)	-Case studies (faculty/professional led workshops) -Lecture (faculty/professional led workshops) -Panel of experts (faculty/professional led workshops) -Listen to a story (faculty/professional led workshops) -Observations faculty/professionals and other student leaders as part of internships
Feedback	**Skill Building**
-Feedback from student organizing committee members -Feedback from internship supervisor -Feedback from leadership service project supervisor group	-**Icebreakers (all students at workshops & retreats)** -Recruit and select leaders (organizing committee students only) -**Developing and facilitating program** (organizing committee students only) -Leadership Projects (all students)

Note. Based on Conger's (1992) framework with most frequently used pedagogies highlighted in bold (1999-2001).

Table 12

ULP Approaches to Leadership Development 2002-2019

Personal Growth	**Conceptual Understanding**
-Journal reflections (workshops) -Small group reflection (mentor or roundtable groups) -Service Learning (Leadership Practice/Projects) -Informal Networking (with mentor and other ULP participants in the community)	-Case studies -Film and TV clips by (mentor workshops) -Lecture (mentor workshops) -Panel of expert student (mentor workshops) -Listen to a story (mentor workshops) -Observations of mentors and ULP participants
Feedback	**Skill Building**
Peer to Peer Mentorship groups (all students) One-on-one feedback sessions with student program directors	-**Icebreakers (all students at workshops & retreats in roundtables)** -**Developing and facilitation in leadership workshops** (mentors) -Recruit and select leaders and mentors **-Developing and facilitating a leadership community of practice** (all students)

Note. Based on Conger's (1992) framework with the most frequently used pedagogies highlighted in bold (2002-2019).

The analysis of pedagogies using Conger's framework highlights that the most common signature pedagogy is the development and participation of students in developing a leadership community. In the foundational phase of the program, this involved building community through icebreakers that all students engaged in to build relationships. It also included the work of the student organizing committee collaborating to develop and plan all aspects of the program. As the program evolved over the years, the elements of building the ULP community continue to be present and expanded to involve not only program coordinators (directors) but all the students in the program.

Conger's framework also highlights that even though one unified definition of leadership is not present in the ULP community, based on the most commonly used pedagogies of the

program, the key objective in the foundational years was to develop the students' abilities to build community (though icebreakers and coordination of the ULP). The same analysis of the program evolution reveals that the emphasis of the program on building community as its primary objective has stayed consistent throughout time. In addition, the program's key focus on mentoring relationships of student peers highlights the emphasis of the program on helping students receive feedback on their performance within their respective roles in the leadership community of practice as either emerging leaders or as leadership mentors.

Discussion and Implications of Finding 1

The strong influence of peer-to-peer mentoring relationships in college students found in the ULP case study is also well documented in the college student involvement and development literature (Astin, 1991; Newcomb 1962; Weidman, 1989) described earlier in this paper. These findings (later echoed by multi-institutional study of leadership researchers) pointed to peer-group relationships as one of the strongest influences on students' personal and leadership development (Astin, 1991; Dugan, 2011; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000).

MSL research has also highlighted the valuable role that peer-to-peer mentoring relationships can have in college student leadership development. MSL quantitative research on instructional pedagogies revealed that sociocultural conversations with peers and mentoring relationships consistently demonstrate a positive influence on college leadership outcomes of students (Dugan et al., 2013). Digital native students involved in the ULP also recognized the benefits of peer-to-peer mentorships and community in developing leadership and have therefore made it the dominant form (signature pedagogy) of instruction for this program. One of the archived documents from the ULP program dated January 18, 2001 articulated students'

perspectives and the benefits of shifting the ULP to a peer mentorship community. The following is a list of advantages of using a peer-to-peer mentorship model:

1) Helps new students make transition into the university much easier
2) Provides opportunities for leadership growth in students
3) Promotes academic success
4) Helps new students find their way in their intended major
5) Helps new students gain an awareness of opportunities inside and outside the university much quicker
6) Is relatively low maintenance
7) Promotes community amongst students
8) Helps spread information amongst students
9) Program is flexible to meet the needs of different students
10) Older students can help new students adapt to the university and the city much quicker.

While there are significant learning benefits of peer-to-peer mentorship communities like the one studied here, there are also drawbacks documented by learning scientists on this type of learning pedagogy (Bransford & Schwartz, 2009). One of the significant drawbacks of this peer-to-peer mentorship approach to leadership learning is its limitation on the learning opportunities and information that students can acquire from their peers. Since the mentors of this program are also students with only one or two years of leadership development expertise, the knowledge they can provide is limited compared to leadership development experts or professionals with significantly more experience in the subject matter. The difference in knowledge and skills between novices and experts has been well documented in the learning sciences literature, and

research findings suggest that the level of a teacher's expertise on a subject matter (and also on teaching expertise) can make a significant difference in students' ability to learn a specific competency (Bransford & Schwartz, 2009).

Another challenge that emerged was that, many student mentors have not had significant experience being leadership instructors or mentors. Indeed, in reviewing program evaluations and interviewing ULP directors, it became clear that a consistent challenge for the program was to provide appropriate training to help mentors successfully fulfill their role as workshop instructors and mentors to other students. Program evaluations included comments from students making suggestions for improving the quality of the mentorship in the program. Part of this quality improvement included students asking for better support in order to understand how to be good mentors. The ULP might benefit from relying on non-students with deep expertise in teaching and mentoring to support the development of mentors who are looking to become better leadership guides and instructors for their peers.

Since this research did not compare a student group taught by peer-to-peer methods with a student group taught by individuals possessing more expertise in leadership development, it is unclear at this time the precise impact these forms of peer-to-peer instruction and mentorship have on the development of college students' leadership expertise in comparison to students who learn leadership through other types of instruction (self-taught, faculty-led, etc.). Additional research needs to be explored to better understand the implications and educational tradeoffs of utilizing peer-to-peer mentorship communities in college student leadership development vs. pedagogical methods involving faculty and staff university employees as instructors.

Finding 2*:* Preferences for Broad Interpretations of Leadership

Neither digital native college students nor their predecessors articulated a common

definition of leadership and seem to prefer a more expansive and flexible conceptualization of this term. The students who were interviewed in this study had a very difficult time articulating a unified definition or theory that guided leadership development in the UDP activities. Interviews and document analysis of the ULP revealed that over time, students described leadership in a variety of ways. Whether or not this lack of cohesive definition is problematic for leadership development education will be discussed later in this section. Some of the different participant understandings of how leadership students communicated through ULP activities will be discussed next.

Below are excerpts from four interviews that demonstrated varying definitions of leadership by program participants. For example, Susan described leadership as the ability to inspire and empower others:

> Susan: *Three words that come to mind when I think about leadership: empower, engage, and inspire. I think about those three words because when I think about empowering a student, that means giving somebody the ability to create their own type of leadership. That way I don't necessarily have to be in the picture. I can just give them the tools and the resources.*

Another student, Aliza, provided her definition of leadership:

> Aliza: *I think my personal definition of leadership is taking responsibility and trusting yourself to do something to benefit others.*

Unlike Susan, who defined leadership as "inspiration, engagement, and empowerment", Aliza, defined leadership as a responsibility to serve others. The second definition is focused on a set of values working to benefit others and less on the actual activities that are involved in fulfilling these values.

Another student provided a completely different perspective than Susan and Aliza.

Franklin: *I basically think about someone who is very self-confident in what they believe in and what it is they want. There are obviously different types of leadership, but the one that always is conjured up in my mind is the charismatic leader, someone who is really passionate and outgoing and really able to speak with people.*

Franklin's definition is focused on a style or method of leadership that stems from the individual's characteristics and interpersonal skills (here, described as charisma). Unlike other participant definitions focused on leadership as a set of tasks and values, Franklin focused on a set of social skills that define a leader.

Sharing yet an additional perspective, Elizabeth's definition of leadership related to the outcomes that a leader produces.

Elizabeth: *I felt leaders were always the ones in front of the room talking, just very visibly taking charge. Then I became the ULP Director, and it was weird because I realized how much planning it took to get everything done. To me, leadership is getting things done — and making a difference — and I began to realize that there are a lot of other things I have done that I can classify as leadership without actually being up in front of the room being president or having some type of leadership title. There are plenty of figureheads that are leaders, but there are plenty of people who are leaders, but are not figureheads.*

Elizabeth's definition has some similarities with Susan who described a leader as someone who inspires and empowers, because both definitions are focused on describing the outcomes that a leader can influence. Elizabeth's definition of the student is centered on the leader being able to deliver an outcome or "getting things done" while Susan's definition of

leadership mentioned above is based on a leader empowering others to do the work. In the literature, this difference is often referred to as leading from the front vs. leading from behind (Heifitz, 1994).

In addition to definitions of leadership obtained through interviews with students, an examination of program documents also showed various definitions of leadership. Leadership workshop agendas mentioned several different leadership development frameworks including Myers-Briggs types indicator (Briggs, 1976), the social change model of leadership (HERI, 1996), and the CliftonStrengths assessment (Louis, 2012). However, while there are some workshops that described these models or called for students to take personality assessments, these frameworks never appeared for more than two consecutive years in workshop topics. There was also no mention of a specific leadership framework or model such as social change, servant leadership, or adaptive leadership in any of the organization's foundational documents or program manuals. This seems to suggest that no single leadership framework or definition has been consistently in place during the history of the ULP.

Discussion and Implications of Finding 2

While it may seem odd that college students running a leadership program did not share a common definition of leadership, it is less surprising considering leadership scholars and practitioners also do not agree on a single definition of this complex term (Bass, 2008). It seems that the lack of cohesiveness on a leadership definition found in the general literature is also found in college students' definitions of this complex concept. College student interviewees sometimes defined leadership as a set of values and ideals, while others saw it as a set of skills and abilities used to achieve goals. And still to others, leadership was defined as a group activity outcome not resting with any one person.

The lack of a clear definition of leadership across all time periods analyzed in the study indicates that college students across generational cohorts continue to differ on their own perceptions of leadership. Some leadership scholars have spent a significant effort attempting to define leadership, arguing that a definition of the term is an essential component to develop individuals with the necessary values and skills be effective leaders in society (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978; Greenleaf, 1977; HERI, 1996; Komives, et al., 2006). My own experience also confirms that how an individual conceptualizes leadership guides their leadership behaviors and practices and ultimately the way they make decisions and seek to influence. For example, if a student group defines leadership as a relational collaborative process (such as the social change or relational model) they are likely to emphasize and reward individual behaviors in the group that reflect that definition of collaboration and leadership towards social change. In contrast, a group of students who define leadership as transactional and focused on power and authority, might end up learning and exhibiting very different types of behaviors.

Individuals in both groups may indeed be exercising leadership (Heifitz, 1994) but the type of leadership and its intended outcome is dependent on the understanding and definition of this term. For example, this idea can be illustrated by asking the question, "was Adolph Hitler a good leader?" The answer to this question significantly depends on how one defines leadership. If leadership is only defined as mobilizing individuals and exercising power and influence, then the answer to this question is very different than if one sees leadership as bringing about ethical social change and positively transforming the lives of others. Values and principals are woven into individual definitions of leadership and therefore I believe these definitions are a critical component in effectively developing leadership in individuals and groups. Unfortunately, despite the importance of defining leadership, within the college student leadership literature

(and the broader leadership literature) there is no clear consensus on the definition of this elusive term (e.g. Allen & Hartman, 2009; Northouse, 2006; Yukl, 2010).

One of the surprising findings from this study was that student instructors in the ULP actually viewed the lack of cohesive leadership definition as an advantage in helping to develop leadership in student peers. ULP directors and mentors viewed this lack of uniform definition of leadership as an advantage, because it opened the potential for students to self-identify as leaders based on their chosen definition of the term. For ULP participants, a flexible definition of leadership made this concept more accessible to students who do not fit into stereotypical leadership models ("great man" theories) often associated with the industrial paradigm of leadership discussed earlier (Rogers, 2003; Rost, 1993). Being able to self-identify as a leader is a key goal of the ULP's leadership development education and the reason why students admitted into the program are referred to as *leaders* from the first day of the program. ULP directors believe that being called leaders helps new students see themselves in that role and therefore builds their leadership efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008).

This notion of building confidence in students by providing them with formal titles or leadership roles, is substantiated in the MSL literature on contributing factors that are positively correlated with building leadership efficacy (Dugan et al., 2011). Dugan et al. found that formal leadership roles and sociocultural conversations with peers were both positively correlated with an increased sense of leadership efficacy, which was also associated with increased leadership outcomes in college students.

The document analysis also revealed that the ULP's leadership definition has expanded over the years to encompass different types of leadership. The written program objectives found in program manuals changed over time from a specific focus of developing student leaders on

campus and in the community when the program was founded to a later objective of supporting students to become the leaders "they want to be." The evolution of this definition seems to confirm a more inclusive approach to defining what a leader is, and who is considered a leader.

Studies on generational differences between digital natives and other generations have consistently found that one of the central characteristics of this generation is that its members are the most culturally and ethnically diverse of any generation that has come before (Levine & Dean, 2012). It is possible then, that digital native students may seek to make leadership more inclusive by broadening the category and definition to include many students who had not previously been viewed as traditional leaders. Indeed, my observations and interactions with ULP cohorts highlighted the broad diversity in this group. Many of the students participating in the program were identified as students of color, women, and GBLTQ. One of the criticisms of much of the leadership literature is that many previous studies developing leadership theories used mostly white male subjects, thereby neglecting to explore leadership in women and people from other ethnicities and nationalities who make up a larger segment of the college student population (Northouse, 2006).

Digital natives' more expansive definitions of leadership might help to make leadership more accessible to an increasingly diverse college student population. The shift to a more expansive definition of leadership observed in the ULP is also reflected more broadly in research on college leadership. For example, while the MSL began as a study to measure the growth in college student leadership as defined by the social change model (HERI, 1996), over the past several years, researchers have expanded their survey tools to explore leadership as defined by several other leadership frameworks including authentic leadership, servant leadership, socially

responsive leadership, emotionally intelligent leadership, leadership practices inventory, and the relational model of leadership (MSL, 2019).

One area of future research might be to specifically see if there is a correlation between race or gender variables and the type of leadership framework that is practiced within peer-to-peer leadership communities. It may be the case that different types of student groups gravitate for one reason or another to a specific type of leadership model. Further case studies like this one with other student leadership communities or even with other types of education programs (community colleges, online universities) might reveal interesting findings of how students choose to define and practice leadership.

Finding 3: Personal Development Before Leadership Development

Both digital native students and their predecessors designed program curriculum in a sequential manner beginning with the development of personal leadership skills followed by activities to develop group leadership competencies. While there seems to be no single definition of college student leadership in the ULP case study, there does appear to be a distinct developmental sequence for developing leadership skills. This finding emerges from analyzing the sequence of the ULP curriculum which consistently displays a distinct *initial pedagogy* (Shulman, 2005) focused on personal leadership and then followed by a *capstone pedagogy* (Shulman) that emphasizes leading others. This pedagogical sequence appears consistently over the 20-year history of the ULP curriculum. The curriculum develops leadership expertise by first providing workshops aimed at supporting students to develop personal leadership capacities before engaging in tasks to develop group-oriented leadership competencies.

During the interviews the phrases “understanding yourself” or “self-improvement” were mentioned multiple times as key objectives of the ULP, particularly regarding the objective of

the leadership workshop. Below is an excerpt from one of the interviews in which Ellie, one of the ULP directors, commented about the building blocks of effective leadership development in the program:

> Ellie: *I think first of all, people need to be aware of who they are and what their personality is. It's important that students understand their strengths and weaknesses, so they know how to improve on these. I think it's also important to put people on teams that have various skill sets, so they see different styles and learn to work with others who are different than they are. But it all starts with people having an awareness of themselves and what skills they bring to a team.*

In this interview, Ellie focused on personal and individual awareness as the first step in developing leadership. This individual also discussed the importance of working in groups (leadership of others), but then went on to emphasize that "having awareness" of themselves was necessary to be able to be effective leaders in a group.

This finding was consistent across individual interviews and the ULP curriculum. Some of the documents reviewed for this study included leadership workshop syllabi spanning 15 years of the program's 20-year existence. Workshop topics across this time period focused on helping participants explore their own values, beliefs, motivations, communication, and leadership styles, and made up most of the sessions provided in the ULP each year. Table 13 illustrates the workshops that appeared most frequently across the ULP's history.

Table 13

Most Frequent ULP Leadership Development Topics

Leadership Development Topic Frequency
1. Discovering Your Leadership Style
2. Planning and Goal Setting
3. Communications
4. Resume and Interviewing
5. Learning from Failure
6. Personal and Professional Branding
7. Discovering Your Passion and Purpose
8. Leading from the Heart
9. Self-Care
10. Diversity

In each of the syllabi reviewed over the history of the ULP, about half of the program workshop topics involved personal leadership development; a quarter of the workshops were focused on preparing participants for their leadership projects; and the remaining workshops focused on connecting leaders with mentors, ULP alumni, and general program requirements. Most workshop topics each year were focused on helping newly admitted leaders learn about themselves and develop their individual leadership capacities.

In addition to analyzing workshop topics for new students admitted to the program, the curricular assignments for the overall program were analyzed to reveal a sequential approach to all program activities aimed at first developing individual leadership skills, followed by group-

oriented leadership skills. Table 14 shows the sequence of program activities and assignments of the ULP between 2002-2019, which I analyzed based on which ULP participants were responsible for in each of the development experiences. Figure 7 illustrates the curricular components based on which students (leaders, or mentors) were required to perform these activities. I also categorized the assignment activities based on the type of leadership competencies (individual vs. group) they are intended to develop.

Table 14

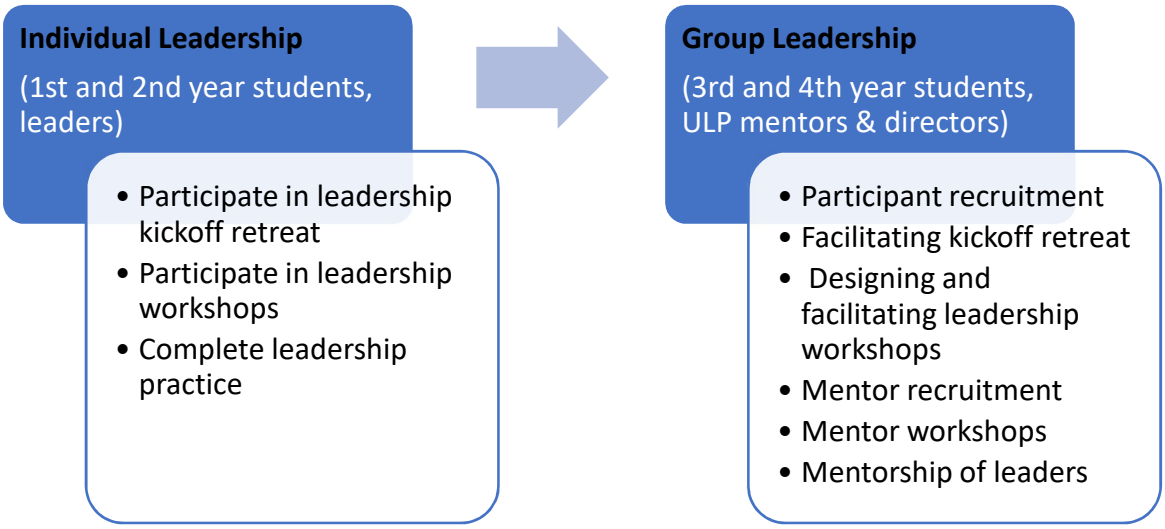
ULP Core Curriculum Activities and Assignments 2002-2019

Curriculum Activities & Assignments
--Participant recruitment/selection
--Program kickoff retreat
--Leadership workshops
--Leadership practice
--Mentor recruitment & selection
--Mentor training workshops
--Mentorship of leaders

Figure 7 shows the sequential nature of the ULP curriculum where college students in their first and second year (leaders) engage in individual leadership activities while group leadership activities and assignment are only performed by students who are third- and fourth-year students with leadership experience (mentors or directors).

Figure 7

ULP Curricular Assignments by Sequence and Student Type



The analysis described in Figure 7 that categorized the different types of leadership development activities in the curriculum highlights the ULP's curriculum having six distinct activities focused on challenging students to develop their group leadership skills and only three activities with an emphasis on personal leadership development. Leaders (freshman, sophomores, and transfer students) must complete three assignments, participate in a kick-off retreat, attend leadership workshops, and develop a leadership practice. In contrast, mentors and directors (usually juniors and seniors) have six different activities they must accomplish during their time in the program. With twice the amount of group leadership activities, it seems that the ULP is primarily focused on having students build group leadership skills. However, these activities are only undertaken after students have completed activities to develop their personal leadership skills. This finding echoes earlier comments from ULP participants who felt that

mentors of the program were learning as much if not more from the leadership experience as the first- and second-year college students accepted as leader cohort participants.

Discussion and Implications of Finding 3

The finding that the ULP curriculum follows an instructional sequence of first engaging students in activities aimed at individual leadership and then giving assignments aimed at group leadership, is consistent with MSL findings about the developmental sequence of leadership development on campuses across the U. S. (Dugan et al., 2011). The social change model of leadership developed for college students (see Figure 2), originally hypothesized that the various levels of leadership (individual, group, societal) could develop simultaneously as articulated by its authors (Dugan & Komives, 2007). However, over time, MSL researchers have revised their theory based on findings that seem to indicate that social change leadership in students follows a linear sequential process (see Figure 1) in which development of individual capacities precedes the development of group and societal leadership competencies (Dugan et al., 2011).

In addition to MSL research, generational leadership studies have confirmed the notion that traditional college-age students emphasize personal development in leadership development, while older individuals place greater value on team-based behaviors (Katherine, 2011). In the ULP, the largest number of leadership workshops and activities focused on themes and skill sets to help individuals understand their personalities, develop a sense of awareness about their own thinking, and improve their communication skills.

Individual leadership has been explored by scholars who argued that awareness and self-management have significant influence on an individual's ability to lead a group or organization (Crossan, Vera & Nanjad, 2008). This importance of self-awareness and self-image are particularly prevalent in models of leadership that highlight the different ways in which women,

men, and underrepresented minorities identify themselves with positions or traits of leadership (Ely et al., 2011). Self-image and self-awareness were also found to be significant in the student identity development model for college students discussed earlier in the literature review (Komives, et al., 2007).

Katherine's (2011) study exploring leadership competency preferences by generation revealed that college-age students consistently prioritize self-development and self-awareness skills as most important in developing their leadership capacity. In this study, the author drew from the literature on developmental stages of youth to explain that it is the students' age and developmental stage that makes them much more interested in self-understanding and developing their own identity than in topics related to managing people and organizations which are favored by older individuals with more professional organizational experience (Katherine, 2011).

The literature suggested that leadership learning may follow a developmental sequence beginning with individual leadership and flowing onward to group leadership (Day et al., 2012; Dugan et al., 2011; Katherine, 2011). This sequence is evident when looking at the ULP curriculum holistically as illustrated in Figure 7. In addition, while the topics of leadership workshops demonstrate a focus toward topics dealing with self-leadership, the majority of the ULP work demonstrates the program's emphasis on having participants practice group leadership skills once they have developed some leadership experience in the program or settings outside the program.

While it seems that there is no unifying agreement by digital native college students about a specific definition of leadership, there does seem to be a unified recognition that leadership development takes place in a linear sequence. This developmental sequence in

leadership development does not seem to be associated with generational characteristics, but rather with life-stage or developmental theories (Day et al., 2012). The data from the ULP case study seems to suggest that college students recognize the developmental sequence that has also been confirmed by empirical leadership studies (Day et al., 2012; Dugan et al., 2011; Katherine, 2011). This finding of a clear sequence from individual to group leadership is significant for college educators and administrators as they plan optimal systems and sequences to help develop students' abilities from individual leadership, group leadership, and ultimately societal leadership.

A possible area of future research might be to compare and contrast leadership programs that follow the individual-to-group leadership sequence with programs that do not follow this sequence to see if there are differences in student leadership outcomes. It might be that the leadership development sequence found in many programs is there because new programs replicate the structure of others and not because this is the only sequence that will improve leadership outcomes for students. It might also be worthwhile to explore whether this developmental sequence is correlated with different students' race, age, or gender demographics.

Finding 4: Preferences for Learning via Face-to-Face Interactions

While digital native students used a significant array of technologies to develop and operate a peer-to-peer mentorship community, small group face-to-face conversations were the most commonly used modality for engaging in the teaching and learning of leadership. In analyzing the evolution of the ULP over time, it is evident that there has been an increase in the use of technology tools and digital artifacts used by students in the program (shown in bold in Table 15). Table 15 compares the technology tools used in the program during its foundational phase (1999-2001) with tools used 20 years later in 2019.

Table 15

ULP Technology Tools Use 1999-2001 & 2002-2019

ULP 1999-2001	**ULP 2002-2019**
TECHNOLOGY --Landline telephone --Email system --Word & Excel documents --Student government file server	**TECHNOLOGY** --Landline telephone --Email system --Word & Excel documents --Student government file server **--Website** **--PowerPoint Slides** **--Wiki (inactive since 2014)** **--Blog (inactive since 2014)** **--Facebook group** **--Instagram account** **--Google Drive** **--Google Docs** **--Google Calendar** **--Survey/application software** **--Online videos with teaching/facilitation activities (i.e. YouTube, TED Talks)** **--Digital camera** **--Smartphone texts**

Like the growth of technology tools, the number of program artifacts that are now accessible to students in the program in a digital format instead of paper-based form has also significantly increased as shown (highlighted in bold) in Table 16.

Table 16

ULP Artifact Use 1999-2001 & 2001-2019

ULP 1999-2001	**ULP 2002-2019**
ARTIFACTS --Program trifold pamphlet (paper) --Program information flier and nomination forms (paper) --Leadership program manuals from other universities (paper) --Program description overhead projector transparencies (plastic) --Articles on workshop facilitation and student leadership development topics (paper) --Program description and manual (paper) --Workshop curriculum (paper) --Workshop checklist (paper) --Workshop handouts (paper) --Service project proposal form (paper) --Program evaluation forms (paper)	**ARTIFACTS** --Articles on workshop facilitation and student leadership development topics (paper) --Program description PowerPoint (paper/**digital**) --Workshop curriculum/PowerPoints (paper/**digital**) --Workshop checklist (paper/**digital**) --Workshop handouts (paper/**digital**) --Leadership project handbook (paper/**digital**) --Program evaluation forms (paper and **digital**) **--Applications for mentor and participants (digital)** **--Retreat and program photos (digital)** **--Program t-shirts** **--Program posters (printed)**

The literature on digital native students highlights the ubiquitous use of technology in every aspect of their lives (Howe & Strauss, 2003; Jackson & Woolsey, 2009; Prensky, 2001; Skiba & Barton, 2006). Seeing the growth in digital media and technology in this case study

confirmed the assertion in the literature that digital natives actively choose to use technology in many areas of their work and personal lives including leadership activities like the ULP. However, while the document analysis in this research showed significant growth in the technology tools used in the program, interviews and workshop observations revealed that these technologies are actively applied in some aspects of the program while not employed in others. For example, while social media tools, websites, and email were used extensively to organize activities, post opportunities, and communicate student information, other media and digital tools were noticeably absent from leadership development workshops and most of the formally organized leadership development activities and formal instruction.

In observing leadership workshops, the most used technology was Power Point presentations that were used by mentors in presenting leadership workshops for their peers. In all the leadership workshops, I observed the large majority of activities involved face-to-face class discussions or small group dialogue with little to no use of technology tools. I found these observations particularly interesting considering the students used social media tools and technologies on a daily basis in other aspects of their lives, yet when it came to the leadership workshops students actively chose not to use these technologies.

During the interviews I asked participants about the lack of technology used in the leadership workshops. One student, Aliza, a senior political science major shared that often ULP mentors and directors discouraged participants in the program from using technology devices during leadership workshops. Aliza along with other ULP mentors interviewed shared that the informal policy discouraging students from using technology devices during the workshops was intended to ensure that participants in these sessions are fully engaged in the workshop and not distracted by any external media. The participants interviewed commented that they believed

that it would be difficult to keep ULP participants attentive and on task at leadership workshops if they were texting and using computers while the mentors were trying to engage them in the process of learning. This finding highlights that digital native students recognize the role that information technology plays in aiding communication, but also understand that it can be a significant detractor from the learning process.

In addition to technology being absent from leadership workshops, the use of technology is not mentioned in the ULP curriculum as a competency that college student leaders are required to learn. The ULP curriculum (leadership workshop syllabi and program documents) emphasized the development of leadership communication skills such as public speaking and interviewing but rarely included technology tools. The only exception I witnessed to this, was a small group breakout session where a student taught others best practices for using Google calendar to schedule events. Aside from this small group session, the formal class and the syllabi analyzed during the program history did not explicitly list leadership workshops as exclusively focused on teaching leaders or mentors how to use technology tools as part of exercising leadership.

In some of the interviews, I asked participants why they did not include technology-related topics as part of the workshops, even though they seemed to used technology on a consistent basis in their personal lives and even as a part of organizing the ULP. When asked about this topic several of the interviewees seemed generally surprised by the question and commented that they never thought to include technology as a skill for student leader development. These interviewees went on to assert that they believed that technology expertise was a skill, and important to be becoming an effective student leader. The students interviewed also commented that they believed ULP participants could benefit from learning how to

communicate effectively using technology. Below are interview excerpts that highlight some of the students' perspectives on the value and importance of technology and its relevance to college student leadership development.

One student, Nayeli highlighted that technology can be used to learn about leadership by "following" leaders on social media and learning their activities.

> Nayeli: *Now people don't even talk on the phone anymore, they just send a text message and they go about their business. …it is new technology which creates new cultures, which creates new leadership and a new way to lead. You know, I know leaders who I've never seen in person, but I still follow them on social media…*

Amber, another student commented that there are methods for communicating that are important to be effective in social media.

> Amber: *I think there is a social culture of appropriate for Facebook use. You have to know what is appropriate…what is annoying…and how to professionally conduct yourself on Facebook. Even with texting; there are these unspoken social codes that we develop.*

As the quotes from interviews with Amber and Nayeli demonstrated, students in the ULP recognize that there are specific technology skills that are important for college student leaders. Yet these same students had not included any training on these skills in their leadership curriculum.

In an interview with ULP student Aurora, she described technology skills as something that nobody teaches, but as something that students just "know how to do." This perspective seems to suggest that some digital native students have learned how to use technology without really thinking critically about how those skills were developed. While students interviewed

may not be explicitly aware of how they developed their technology skills, by observing ULP activities it became clear that students are regularly engaged in using technology in just about every aspect of organizing and managing this program, but do not use these tools for formal program teaching and learning activities.

The lack of information technology in formal teaching and learning activities of the ULP is in stark contrast to the degree to which texting, blogging, social media, and other tools are used in every facet of the program development and planning. Observation of student activities and interviews with mentors and directors revealed that smartphones were one of the most important technologies used for managing day-to-day program activities and even students' personal lives. These devices are used for communicating with program participants, keeping track of schedules, locating resources, and communicating with students about assignments or activities they needed to complete. However, the use of these mobile devices is not explicitly written in any program manual or document. Instead, the use of cell phone as a tool for leadership development and general coordinating functions is something that is implicitly practiced.

In addition, as Table 11 highlighted previously, a large array of online resources and software tools are used in the leader application, mentor selection, and matching process. In these activities, students have a chance to develop their skills for using technology tools to organize and mobilize other students in the ULP community. However, once participants enter the leadership workshop classroom, technology-mediated communication ends and is replaced by face-to-face interactions which are the dominant method to engage in leadership teaching and learning.

Observation of the core ULP components (leadership workshops, leadership practice, and mentoring) looked very similar in 2019 as it did in 1999. While the classrooms and online applications in 2019 looked more modern, the fundamental ways of engaging in teaching and learning are relatively the same as when the program was first founded.

All leadership workshops I observed followed a similar format. Sessions began with 10-15 minutes of networking and socializing time between leaders and mentors. This initial networking time was followed by a formal presentation (usually using a PowerPoint presentation) of the workshop topic by mentors in charge of facilitating the workshop. Following the presentation and large group discussion of the topic, the facilitators asked leaders and mentors to break up into small groups to partake in an activity or engage in a discussion related to the workshop topic. After the activity or discussion, participants once again came together in a large group to share their insights from their small group work. This would often be followed by the mentors presenting another topic and then another activity or reflective discussion in small groups. For two of the workshops I observed (out of 6 observations) a guest speaker was invited to speak about a particular topic, but most of the workshop content was facilitated by a small group (two or three) of mentors with assistance from directors and other mentors to engage leaders in small group discussions and activities.

The workshop sessions would close with announcements about upcoming activities or events that mentors, and leaders could participate in on or off-campus. This method of large group to small group discussion or activity was present in every workshop session I observed. This mode of face-to-face small group discussion is the same method that was used when I, along with other students, founded the ULP between 1999-2001. Based on the research reviewed earlier, small group face-to-face dialogue and teamwork are also core methods of

leadership education used by staff and faculty leadership instructors at other universities across the country (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012).

Given the number of technologies used by digital native students and their extensive use in program planning activities (recruitment, program promotion, organizations) I would have expected to see these, or other technologies also widely used in teaching and learning activities. However, surprisingly ULP workshops did not include virtual webinars, multiplayer games, blogs, or other innovative technology tools in the teaching of leadership topics. Based on my research of this leadership program, it seems the modalities used in the ULP leadership workshops (face-to-face group discussions and activities) in 1999 or 2019 seem to be fundamentally the same regardless of the student's generational cohort.

Face-to-face small group discussions and activities were also the norms in engagement between leaders and mentors, whether in the kick-off retreat in a campground facility or interactions during the academic years on campus. Most ULP learning activities observed or discussed in interviews with participants used modalities of engagement involving face-to-face communication and interaction. Webinars, virtual sessions, or any type of technology were not used by mentors or leaders when engaged in mentoring and relationship-building activities. Again, like in the leadership workshops, the modality of choice both in the foundational phase of the program and in its evolution over time was not technology, but face-to-face interaction.

Despite the lack of technology used in most of the curricular activities of the ULP, there were two areas where the data revealed extensive technology use. One area where technology was actively used was by mentors using a tool to generate ideas for developing content and facilitating leadership workshops. Interviews with mentors revealed that many of them would browse online videos, TED talks and other workshops, presentations, and speeches to find ideas

to develop their own leadership workshops. This was not the practice of the students founding the program who relied on books, articles, and consultation with faculty and staff and other students to generate ideas for workshops. However, while digital native mentors interviewed said that they looked online for workshop ideas, they revealed that the most common way for them to develop their workshop content involved meeting in small groups with their co-presenters and brainstorming ideas for executing an effective session. Therefore, in this area while technology was used by digital natives, it was not considered to be the main method for developing leadership instructional materials for their peers.

The second area where I observed some use of technology was in the development and presentation of leadership practice projects. According to program design documents from the foundational phase (1999-2001), ULP leadership practice (at the time called service projects) were primarily focused on having students organize a campus event or create a student organization. Examples of events included organizing a panel of speakers on a topic of interest, coordinating a cultural event for students, or creating a new student organization or program to improve the campus environment. During the evolution phase, program files detailing samples of leadership projects indicated that while most of the projects were still focused on organizing events or groups on campus, there were a few projects where technology was used to either develop or present the project. Some of the projects involved the use of personal blogs where students would write personal stories on leadership experiences, post pictures of their leadership activities, or share a particular interest (i.e. cooking, self-care, art) with other students. While these projects used technology as a central output of the work, they are a small number of projects compared to the majority of the ULP students who took on projects very similar to those

of students during the foundational phase of the program. A sample of projects conducted in 2019 include the following:

1) Developing a student organization for first-generation students attending college
2) Providing free swim lessons to low-income children with disabilities at the YWCA
3) Interviewing homeless individuals and sharing their stories with students
4) Donating art supplies to a children's hospital
5) Organizing an event to highlight health inequality on campus
6) Coordinating an event to raise awareness about food insecurity among GBLTQ youth
7) Conducting a research project to explore how students' interests are represented by university staff and administrators
8) Implementing a project to highlight student diversity on the university campus

Aside from the small number of projects involving the use of blogs, the list of leadership practice activities highlighted above does not indicate a clear generational difference between the type of projects conducted by digital immigrant students in 1999, and those created by digital native ULP leaders in 2019. My observation of the lack of technology used in the teaching and learning activities of the peer-to-peer program was also confirmed in interviews with student affairs professionals who have supervised the ULP through its entire history. From the perspective of student affairs professionals supervising the program, the face-to-face modalities used in all teaching and mentoring service projects activities had not changed in any significant way across generational cohorts between the foundation of the program in 1999 and observations in this research conducted between 2018 and 2019.

Discussion and Implications of Finding 4

The data from this in-depth case study reveals that digital native students use significantly more technology than previous generations in organizing peer-to-peer leadership communities. However, the use of technology was not prominent within the teaching and learning activities of this digital native leadership community. Indeed, the majority of program activities and assignments observed used small group conversations as the most common method to engage in leadership teaching and learning activities.

The lack of use of technology-based pedagogies found in this study was rather surprising. My initial hypothesis around this topic was that I would observe digital native students using technology in new and unique ways for learning leadership. I perceived that students would conduct online learning sessions and perhaps use online games and social media platforms to learn and practice leadership. What I actually observed was completely the opposite. The teaching and learning practices for building leadership were primarily based on in person dialogue and community building. These are not innovative learning methods, but rather established ways of learning and engaging in leadership development found to be effective for developing students over time (Dugan et, al. 2011; MSL, 2019).

Indeed, the finding that students choose to use small group discussion as the most common method for transmitting leadership teaching and learning is also consistent with several other studies looking at instructional preferences of leadership educators (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2013;). Therefore, this case study on student peer-to-peer instructors also seems to suggest that while there are some differences in the type of classroom settings, assignments, and interactions between staff, faculty, and student leadership instructors, they all

seem to make extensive use of small group discussion as a key modality for engaging in leadership learning (Jenkins, 2012).

The role and importance of technology in the leadership and management literature has grown in importance over the past two decades. The finding that leaders increasingly rely on technology as a tool to influence others or attain their objectives has come to be known in the literature as *e-leadership* (Avolio & Kahai, 2003). Avolio et al. (2014) asserted that as more human and organizational communication are mediated by technology, it will become more important for leaders to have the capabilities to lead and influence using technology tools and environments.

The significant rise in the number of digital devices in higher education and society points to the importance of these technologies in the day-to-day lives of individuals. In the ULP, directors and mentors used technology skills when disseminating information to undergraduate students to get them to apply to become participants in the program. Within the ULP context it was mostly the program directors who demonstrated what could be called e-leadership (Avolio & Kahai, 2003) competencies by using the web, email, and social media technologies to recruit other students to participate in the program. However, when I interviewed program directors about their leadership efforts via technology, most of them had not thought about technology or e-leadership as an area of competency that needed to be taught in a college leadership program. My observations and interviews with these digital natives made me realize that most of them did not think or talk much about technology. For them it was just how they live in the world and a common part of their school, work, and personal lives. It was also clear to me from this study that some students did have more advanced skills in the use of technology than others and that it was incorrect to assume that all digital natives had the same level of skill to use technology to its

full potential. This observation on the difference in technological competency by digital natives is also found in the literature on the various levels of technology literacy of college students (Thomson, 2013).

Given the increased use of technologies in all areas of society it seemed counterintuitive that digital native students would not place a greater emphasis on teaching each other how to use technology as a tool to strengthen leadership capacity. Surprisingly, social media and other technology-mediated communication skills were not taught to ULP participants. While it seems that in the present moment college students do not pay attention to social media and other technology-mediated communication as they relate to leadership development, there may come a time when the development of these competencies may play a greater role in leadership development curriculum. The increased use of social media technology to mobilize individuals and influence public opinion exemplified by Presidents Barak Obama and Donald Trump and by several tech savvy grass roots organizations may eventually become tools and practices taught to emerging leaders in college leadership programs.

Future research around technology use in college student leadership development might specifically include an exploratory study of student peer-group leadership communities formed online, looking at how these online communities engage in learning leadership development compared to communities of students on university campuses. Another area of research might be to measure leadership efficacy of students based on their abilities to use certain technologies to see if there is a correlation between technology skills and confidence in one's leadership abilities. Technologies are now part of everyday lives and more work needs to be done to see how these tools will contribute to the development and effectiveness of student leaders.

Despite the perceptions of how technologies will impact leadership and learning in future generations, based on the data collected for this case study it appears that digital native students prefer face-to-face interactions when engaging in teaching and learning leadership in a college campus setting. This finding seems to suggest that face-to-face interaction is a significantly more effective method for creating relationships and building community than any technology tool currently available. Face-to-face human communication has been the method of transmitting leadership lessons since the dawn of human existence and it seems that this is still the most effective method for transmitting this knowledge with digital native college students in the 21st century.

V. CONCLUSION

Over the past several decades, postsecondary institutions have invested significant resources in expanding leadership development opportunities for college students. Despite these investments in leadership education, data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership estimates that only about 35% of all college seniors have engaged in formal leadership development while in college (Dugan et al., 2011). In an academic and political environment characterized by a scarcity of resources and increasing public accountability, the lack of engagement in leadership development opportunities by students ought to be a concern to higher education institutions investing resources into developing these programs (Dugan et al., 2011).

Some scholars and popular press authors have argued that postsecondary institutions struggle to engage students in learning because they are out of touch with the learning preferences of the digital native generation. Unfortunately, within leadership studies little, is known about the ways generational differences impact the teaching and learning preferences of college students. The aim of this qualitative case study was to explore gaps in knowledge on the ways digital native college students enact leadership teaching and learning.

Data collected in this case study (documents, interviews, and class observations) documenting the 20-year history of a co-curricular, student-created leadership development program provides insights into the ways digital natives engage in leadership learning in the 21st century. Unlike previous studies exploring pedagogical strategies of professional leadership educators and employing survey methods, this research applied a qualitative developmental case study approach to delve deep inside the leadership development experiences of digital native college students. Also, this research is unique in that the focus was on gaining the perspectives

of digital native college students, not as passive recipients of leadership education, but as active creators of their own leadership learning curriculum and pedagogy.

The data analyzed on the leadership development practices of college students in the ULP program across multiple generational cohorts revealed the following four findings:

Finding 1: The most widely practiced (signature) pedagogy for learning leadership by digital natives was the creation and active participation in a peer mentorship community.

Finding 2: Neither digital native college students nor their predecessors articulated a common definition of leadership and instead preferred a more expansive and flexible conceptualization of this term.

Finding 3: Both digital native students and their predecessors designed program curriculum in a sequential manner beginning with the development of personal leadership skills followed by activities to develop group leadership competencies.

Finding 4: While digital native students used a significant array of technologies to develop and operate a peer-to-peer mentorship community, small group face-to-face conversations were the most used modality for engaging in the teaching and learning of leadership.

Findings 2 and 3 of this case study provide insights into *what* students define as leadership development. Finding 2 revealed that, regardless of their generational cohort, students did not have one agreed-upon definition of leadership. Additionally, digital native students designing leadership curriculum actually preferred more expansive definitions of leadership which allowed more diverse students the ability to define themselves as leaders.

Finding 3 highlighted a leadership developmental sequence that begins with the development of individual leadership awareness, then moves to group leadership, and then to broader societal leadership. This same developmental sequence is well documented in the

college student leadership literature (Dugan et al., 2013; Komives et al., 2006). In summary, research Findings 2 and 3 from the case study highlight that digital natives believe leadership should be defined in more expansive ways and developed in a linear sequence beginning with skills for individual leadership, followed by competencies for exercising leadership in groups and societal domains.

Findings 1 and 4 from this case study reveal some aspects of *how* digital native students engage in leadership learning. The case study data in Finding 4 confirmed assertions that digital native students do use significantly more technology in many aspects of their lives than previous generations. Surprisingly, data collected for this case study also revealed that digital native students avoid using technology when it comes to learning leadership because they are concerned that it will distract students from the core learning process of engaging in small group conversations and activities in classroom sessions.

Finding 4 reveals that digital native students choose face-to-face small group discussion as the preferred modality for learning leadership within peer-to-peer leadership mentoring communities. The finding on the preference for face-to-face small group conversations as the dominant method of engaging in learning is supported by research showing similar modality preferences for professional faculty and staff teaching college leadership courses (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012). Despite perceptions of how technologies will impact leadership and learning in future generations, based on the data collected for this case study, it appears that digital native students prefer face-to-face interactions when engaging in teaching and learning leadership in a college campus setting. This finding suggests that face-to-face interaction is a significantly more effective method for creating relationships and building community than any technology tool currently available.

Applying an analysis using Shulman's signature pedagogies of instruction along with Conger's approaches to leadership development Finding 1 uncovers students' preferences for engaging in leadership development via peer-to-peer mentorship communities. The finding is validated by empirical research across many years showing that student peer mentors have significant influence in shaping the experiences of other students (Dugan, 2011; Newcomb, 1962; Weidman, 1989). The function of these peer-to-peer mentoring communities is like that of communities of practice which are common in professional workplace settings (Lave & Wenger, 1991). However, prior to this study, communities of practice had not been identified by other college leadership education scholars as a unique form of pedagogy used in the field.

Significance of Research and Contributions to the Literature

Through a qualitative developmental study, this research has explored the way college students choose to engage in self-directed leadership teaching and learning across multiple generational cohorts (Gen. X, millennials/Gen Y, Gen Z). The study provided a clearer understanding about the ways learning preferences of students in peer groups have changed over time. The findings of this study also contribute to the college student leadership development literature by identifying the use of peer-to-peer communities as a core instructional strategy/pedagogy used in group learning contexts.

While the value of peer communities of practice for engaging in work-based learning has been documented in workplace settings (Wenger, 1998), the identification of communities of practice as pedagogical strategies have not been documented in studies of college student leadership development (Allen & Hartman, 2008a; Dugan et al., 2011; Jenkins 2012). The ULP leadership development community made up of leaders, mentors, and coordinators functions very similar to the communities of practice identified in professional settings. These student

peer leadership development communities of practice such as the one observed in the ULP may be a pedagogical strategy that has great potential for scaling leadership development programs in higher education without significant investment in staff and faculty resources. Therefore, involving students as partners in the creation, promotion, and implementation of peer leadership learning communities creates the potential to provide valuable experiences for many more students in higher education institutions.

While more research is needed to determine ways to scale (live or virtual) peer-leadership communities across higher education campuses, this study is intended to highlight student preferences for the use of this pedagogical strategy. Through the use of this strategy, college students working in these communities may be essential to helping higher education expand and improve the reach of leadership education programs through peer- leadership communities.

By gaining a deeper understanding of the ways digital native students approach leadership learning, higher education institutions will be better able to engage with these college students as partners in codesigning education experiences that benefit the entire campus community. For example, instead of developing leaders via formal degree programs (with faculty and set curriculum), university administrators could focus on developing student-directed peer leadership communities of practice (much like the ULP) throughout campus. These leadership peer communities could be formed in existing residence halls, academic departments, Panhellenic organizations, athletic teams, and other student service/interest organizations. Communities like these could be encouraged to collaborate (or compete) in friendly campus-wide leadership and service challenges (like business plans, hackathons, or social innovation competitions) that would provide opportunities for members of these communities to learn and

practice leadership. Another approach might involve college faculty and administrators establishing peer leadership communities of practice from current student leaders across the university so they can network with one another and learn how to develop themselves and their student organizations. On many campuses, student groups/leaders operate in silos and rarely interact with student leaders in other campus organizations to develop their leadership skills. College educators, faculty, and administrators could help encourage this type of cross- campus peer collaboration via student directed leadership communities of practice. While more research is needed to determine the optimal way to develop active peer leadership development communities of practice, this research shows that these communities can be a powerful instructional strategy that can further be leveraged to improve access to leadership education for more students.

In addition to furthering the understanding of how students engage peer groups to learn leadership, this research explored learning preferences of digital native college students in ways that have not yet been explored in the research literature. For example, despite the undeniable growth of social media interaction in digital native students, this study found that face-to-face communication and relationship building are still the most preferred forms of learning and building the social capital necessary for developing as a leader in an on-campus college community. Given how much communication takes place over digital media, one might speculate that students today crave person-to-person interactions more than previously. The decline of community and social capital in America has been well documented for some time (Putnam, 2000). Communities of practice like the ULP in higher education institutions could offer a truly unique opportunity to create community and build social ties at an important time in student's lives.

The aim of this study has been to help higher education institutions better understand leadership learning through the lens of digital native college students. Findings from this study suggest that while digital native students use technology in many areas of their lives, they still engage in teaching and learning leadership through community building and face-to-face interactions in much the same ways as previous generations. Therefore, while incorporating technology into some aspects of teaching and learning may be appropriate in some disciplines, in leadership development there was no evidence found in this case study or in the literature to suggest that incorporating technologies will significantly improve leadership education. Findings from this case study suggest that face-to-face interaction is a significantly more effective method for creating relationships and building community than any technology tool currently available.

While the technology revolution has transformed many aspects of professional and academic environments, the core mission of higher education institutions extends beyond developing workers for the digital age. The core of higher education is to create environments that allow individual to develop their true potential. Through the creation of collaborative, student peer learning communities like the one explored in this study, higher education institutions have the potential to develop students into both professionals and leaders who will strengthen and improve our democratic society.

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VIII. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Human Subjects Study Determination Letter

APPENDIX B. Communication for Subjects Participating in the Study

APPENDIX C. Guiding Questions for Student Leadership Instructors

APPENDIX D. Guiding Questions for Student Affairs Professionals

APPENDIX E. Observation Protocol

APPENDIX F. List of Data Collected

Appendix A: Human Subjects Study Determination Letter

UNIVERSITY of WASHINGTON
HUMAN SUBJECTS DIVISION

January 15, 2019 Dear Ivan Barron:

DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS

On 1/15/2019, the University of Washington Human Subjects Division (HSD) reviewed the following application:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	Student Leadership Development Across Generations
Investigator:	Ivan Barron
IRB ID:	STUDY00006374
Funding:	None

Exempt Status

HSD determined that your proposed activity is human subjects research that qualifies for exempt status (Category 1 and 2).

- This determination is valid for the duration of your research.
- This means that your research is exempt from the federal human subjects regulations,

  including the requirement for IRB approval and continuing review.

- **Depending on the nature of your study, you may need to obtain other approvals or permissions to conduct your research. For example, you might need to apply for access to data or specimens (e.g., to obtain UW student data). Or, you might need to obtain permission from facilities managers to approach possible subjects or conduct research procedures in the facilities (e.g., Seattle School District; the Harborview Emergency Department).**

  If you consider changes to the activities in the future and know that the changes will require IRB review (or you are not certain), you may request a review or new determination by submitting a Modification to this application. For information about what changes require a Modification, refer to the **GUIDANCE: Exempt Research**.

  Thank you for your commitment to ethical and responsible research. We wish you great success!

  Sincerely,

  Dana Gold, MA
  IRB Administrator, Committee D Email: deg4@uw.edu
  Phone: 206.543.5602

Appendix B: Communication for Subjects Participating in the Study

Dear ULP Program Director

I'm currently working on conducting research for my PhD. Dissertation in Education. In particular, with this research I'm interested in exploring in what ways college student leadership education has evolved over time. In order to explore this phenomenon, I have designed a research study to collect data on how teaching and learning of leadership has changed over time in a student designed and run leadership development program in higher education.

As a student designed and managed program, ULP provides an excellent case study to explore the evolution of leadership education.

I'm hoping that you and the other student will allow me to observe a few of your leadership seminars this year. I also hope to gather some samples of seminar program curriculum and conduct interviews with students facilitating leadership seminar session this year.
All data collected will be used for this research purposes only and in the event this work is published pseudonyms will be used to protect all student identities.
Thank you for your consideration and support for this research.

Ivan Barron
PhD. Candidate
University of Washington College of Education
Below is a list of the type of information I would like to be able to gather for this research. Thanks, in advanced for any of the following information you can provide me access to.

- Leadership Seminar Agenda
- Leadership Seminar Brainstorming/Planning documents from retreats
- Syllabi
- Materials used to communicate the mission and approach
- Any materials used to train mentors or student facilitators
- Marketing and recruiting materials used.
- Any other documents pertaining to ULP from years past

Appendix C: Guiding Questions for Student Leadership Instructors

Note: The questions in this protocol were meant to serve as guides for a series of ongoing conversational interviews with program directors. I modified the questions in response to what I observed and learned about each program during the course of gathering field data. For that reason, the questions below are representative, but not all-inclusive, of the questions I asked program directors during interviews.

1. *Name? Major? Year in school? What years did you teach leadership workshops at the ULP?*

2. *During college, what leadership experience at the ULP or other experience do you think has been the most valuable for you? Probe (Describe the experience? What did you learn?*

3. *In your opinion, what makes for a very good "leadership development" education? What experiences, knowledge, guidance, or opportunities are involved?*

4. *What does leadership mean to you?*
   How would you define leadership? What associations come to mind when you think about leadership?

5. *What type of instruction/teaching methods first comes to mind when you think about the ULP? (lectures, workshops, mentor/mentee, roundtables, social activities, other)*

6. *To what extent do you believe that this program's overall design is influenced by a philosophy of leadership. What is the leadership philosophy?*

7. *What leadership workshops have you taught for other students? Why did you think these topics are important for students to learn?*

8. *What was your most recent leadership workshop? What methods and activities did you select for this workshop?*

9. *Can you tell me more about why you chose to conduct this lesson in this manner? What were you trying to accomplish?*

10. *Do you use technology in any way to develop or deliver your leadership workshops? How do you use them? (Why was tech used (or not used) in your teaching? Do you use tech in other ways to learn or practice leadership?*

11. *What do you think is the appropriate role of technology in leadership development?*

12. *What helped prepare you best for teaching a leadership workshop? Are there any people that you talk to/communicate with about the leadership workshops or mentoring duties that you have with this program? What did you discuss with them?*
    - *-Have you had <u>any role models</u> along the way on how to best teach leadership? [Ask for examples]*

13. *What, if anything, are you intending to teach students about how to develop others to become effective leaders? How do try to do this?*

14. *What learning methods do you think help workshop participants learn most effectively about leadership?*

15. *How will you know when if this learning occurs?*

16. *Any additional things I didn't ask about that you think are important to share regarding teaching leadership for college students?*

Appendix D: Guiding Questions for Student Affairs Professionals

Note: The questions in this protocol were meant to serve as guides for a series of ongoing conversational interviews with program directors. I modified the questions in response to what I observed and learned about each program during the course of gathering field data. For that reason, the questions below are representative, but not all-inclusive, of the questions I asked program directors during interviews.

1. *Please tell me your name and which years you provided oversight of the ULP.*

2. *How would you describe the overall design and approach to leadership development this program has? Is this similar to other leadership programs you oversee? If different how?*

3. *To what extent do you believe that this program's overall design is influenced by a philosophy of leadership. What is the leadership philosophy?*

4. *What type of instruction/teaching methods first comes to mind when you think about the ULP? (lectures, workshops, mentor/mentee, roundtables, social activities, other)*

5. *What learning methods do you think help workshop participants learn most effectively about leadership?*

6. *What, if anything, do you think the program teaches students about how to prepare other student to teach leadership?*

7. *Is the program's use of peer to peer mentoring similar or different than other student leadership programs you have worked with?*

8. *How do you assess if students are learning in the program? What counts as evidence of student learning?*

9. *How, if at all, have you seen the program design and pedagogy be adapted and responsive to the evolving needs of students in this program over the years?*

10. *Generally, have you seen the student participating in the program evolve over the years? If so, how have they changed?*

11. *How has this program changed over time?*

12. *Any additional things I didn't ask about that you think are important to share regarding teaching leadership for college students?*

Appendix E: Observation Protocol

Observer:_____ Event Observed:_____

Date_____Time _____

Location_____

Participants Involved_____

Description of Setting:

Descriptive Account of Training Session Time Running notes:
[Comments]

Initial interpretations and follow-up questions:

Appendix F: List of Data Collected

Overview

Document Analysis: Analysis of course materials including course planning documents, instructional material, and student assignments representing the following academic years: 1999-2004 & 2011-2019

Student Interviews: 12 semistructured interviews with student leadership instructors representing the following academic years: 1999-2002, 2005-2006, 2007-2008, 2010-2019

Administrator Interviews: 5 interviews with student affairs administrators overseeing the program between 1999-2019

Formal Workshop/Activity Observations: 6 workshop and leadership activity observations in 2019 involving 12 different student instructors

Detailed

Documents

Paper-based Documents

--Program trifold pamphlet 1999, 2000, 2003

--Program information flier and nomination/application form 1999, 2002, 2004, 2012, 2015,

--Leadership program manuals from other university leadership programs 1999

--Program description overhead projector transparencies 1999

--Articles on workshop facilitation and student leadership development topics 1999

--Program manual 1999, 2001, 2015

--Workshop curriculum topics 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Workshop checklist 1999, 2003, 2012, 2016, 2019

--Workshop Presentation Slides 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Workshop handouts 1999, 2019

--Service project proposal form 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program evaluation forms 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018

--Recommendation for incorporating student Peer mentor structure 2001

--Program kickoff retreat agenda 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Internships/apprenticeship descriptions 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002

--Service Projects Handbook 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Retreat and program photos 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program T-shirts 2011, 2012, 2015, 2016,

--Program Posters (printed) 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Leadership Practice handouts 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor applications 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor training workshops agendas 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program presentation 2018

--Mentor preference forms 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Notes from one on one sessions with mentors 2017

--Leadership Project Ideas 2017

--Leaders interview questions 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor interview questions 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program Alumni Contact Information 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor roles and job descriptions 2004, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor Self Evaluation Form 2014, 2016, 2018

Digital Documents:

--ULP Google Drives 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program Website 2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Wiki 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014

--Blog 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014

--Facebook group 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Instagram account 2017, 2018,

--Survey/application software forms 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Retreat and program photos 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

Other Documents Retrieved

--Leadership participants bios 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor bios 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor CVs 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Student selection scores 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Mentor Selection forms 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Acceptance email for program participants2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program Report 2017

--Box of Archival document from student activities office staff- 1998-2004

--Leadership Awards Q&A 2006

--Program Budgets 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Program Feedback- 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

--Information and communication for future directors-2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

Interviews and Observations:

--Student Life Administrator A

Individual interview – 01.18.2019

--Student Life Administrator B

Individual interview – 01.23.2019

--Student Life Administrator C

Individual interview – 01.23.2019

--Student Life Administrator D

Individual interview – 05.29.2019

--Student Life Administrator E

Individual interview – 06.19.2019

--Classroom Observation1: Leadership Practices & Time Management 1.30.2019

Student instructor A

Student instructor B

Student instructor C

--Preworkshop meeting with mentors and coordinators 01.30.19

--Interview 1: Student instructor A 01.30.19

--Classroom Observation 2: Finding your Why 02.06.2019

Student instructor D

Student instructor E

Student instructor F

--Preworkshop meeting with mentors and coordinators. 2.06.19

--Interview 2: Student instructor D. 2.06.19

--Classroom Observation 3: Compassion and Sharing of Self Workshop. 02.20.2019

Student instructor G

Student instructor H

Student instructor I

--Preworkshop meeting between instructors, mentors and coordinators. 02.20.19

-- Interview 3: Student instructor G 02.22.19

--Classroom Observation 4: Mindfulness and Self-Care Workshop. 03.13.2019

Student instructor J

Student instructor K

Student instructor L

--Preworkshop meeting between instructors, mentors and coordinators 03.13.19

--Interview 4: Student instructor J 03.15.19

--Classroom Observation 5: Public Speaking and Radical Candor 04.24.2019

Student instructor M

Student instructor N

Student instructor O

--Preworkshop meeting with mentors and coordinators 04.24.19

Interview 5: Student instructor 04.30.19

-- Observation 6: Leadership Practice Presentations Session 05.22.19

--Interview 6: Student Program Director

Individual interview – 01.24.2009

--Interview 7: Student Program Assistant Director

Individual interview – 02.29.2009

--Interview 8: Former Student Program Director

Individual interview – 05.24.2009

--Interview 9: Former Student Program Director

Individual interview – 06.04.2009

--Interview 10: Former Student Instructor

Individual interview – 06.04.2009

--Interview 11: Former Student Instructor

Individual interview – 06.17.2009

--Interview 12: Former Student Instructor

Individual interview – 06.18.2009

Informal Observations:

--Multiple session observations and participation in the following years

1999, 2000, 2006, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2018

VIII. AUTHOR VITA

Ivan D. Barron, Ph.D.

Ivan's academic and professional work focuses on the areas of learning, leadership and innovation. Born in Mexico City, his experience growing up as a low-income immigrant serves as the inspiration for his work to create education and economic opportunities for people from all backgrounds.

Ivan has been a lecturer in management at the University of Washington Foster School of Business, teaching courses on leadership and business entrepreneurship. He has published research and presented at national academic and professional conferences in a diverse set of areas, including learning sciences, diversity and economic development. His research and teaching are grounded in academic training as well as professional experience.

In addition to his academic work, Ivan has designed and launched nationally recognized leadership and professional education programs in partnership with leading universities, foundations and Fortune 500 companies. He has also consulted on innovation initiatives at The National Association of Hispanic Real Estate Professionals, IDEO, The Aspen Institute, JP Morgan Chase and The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation.

Ivan has received several honors and awards, including the Public Policy and International Affairs Fellowship, The Congressional Hispanic Caucus Institute Fellowship and the Institute for Educational Sciences Fellowship. Ivan earned his master's degree from Harvard University and holds a B.A and a Ph.D. from the University of Washington.