# **Developing Leaders through Service-Learning: A Canadian Experience**

# Victoria Calvert Mount Royal University

This article includes theoretical and empirical evidence suggesting that Service-Learning (SL) experiences are conducive for the development of two critical dimensions of positive leaders; emotional intelligence and ethical leadership. SL promotes leadership development experiences by providing 'crucible' learning moments to students, thereby supporting arguments for the adoption of SL androgogy in Management Education. The impact of multiple SL experiences is also examined, with research results confirming a continuum of SL influence whereby the greater the exposure to SL by undergraduate students the greater the leadership development.

### **BACKGROUND**

The pressure on educational institutions to demonstrate the effectiveness of their teaching methodologies in the development of socially aware leaders has heightened due environmental management failures and the perceived lack of ethical business practices by business graduates (Waldman & Siegel, 2008). Business schools and their graduates have become targets for criticism as the ethical lapses of senior executives to major scandals and the economic meltdown. Reflection is required by education leaders regarding management education and the integration and pedagogy of ethical reasoning and comprehension (Cavico & Mujtabd, 2009). Academics such as Weick (2008) are asking the fundamental question "How can the concepts, tools, and techniques we teach be used to invent a better future?" (p. 96). While there is no blanket solution to educational challenges, the practice of Service-Learning (SL) (Godfrey & Grasso, 2000, Kenworthy-Uren, 2008)) has gained credibility, and provides a viable teaching tool in for not only enhanced cognitive abilities but also the development of citizenship behaviors.

In this paper a summary of SL is provided leading into an overview of current research based on the relationships between SL and leadership development, followed by the illustration of SL practices within the context of a Leadership Development course at Mount Royal University in Canada. The impact of the SL experience upon the self-perception of the students exposed to SL pedagogy is empirically tested. The development of the students leadership attributes are evaluated as a consequence of SL experiences by examining the self-assessment of such students regarding their emotional intelligence and ethical leadership. The limitations for this small study are then reviewed, and implications for educators discussed.

### THE RELEVANCE OF SERVICE-LEARNING

"Service-learning represents perhaps the most effective teaching tool available to the contemporary management professor." (Papamarcos, 2005, p. 325)

The practice of SL builds upon Dewey's (1933) primacy of experience, which recommends active learning and reflection as a primary pedagogical approach; his ideas led to the body of experiential learning research that describes students applying academic concepts to solve problems outside the classroom. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model provides a theoretical framework upon which SL is often referenced. He postulated that experiential learning is effective because it facilities cognitive development for students with different learning styles through four processes: (1) concrete experiences, (2) reflection of the experience, (3) abstract conceptualization of the models, and (4) active experimentation to discover cause-and-effect relationships and the relative viability of solutions. A key supplementary aspect of SL is the benefit derived by the community organizations that host the students; as such, both the students providing a service and the beneficiary organization form a dyad of learning and cross benefits. Consequently, SL is the summative result of two activities, volunteerism and experiential learning (Govekar & Rishi 2007).

While the term Service-Learning was introduced in the 1960's (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999), it gained widespread currency subsequently in the 1996, when the Journal of Business Ethics launched a special issue discussing SL pedagogy and teaching methodologies (Kenworth-U'Ren 2008, Godfrey & Grasso 2000). Over the past decade, there has been progress in addressing SL implementation issues as identified by Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, and Colby (1996). They singled out some challenges, including, faculty workload issues that may create resistance to the inclusion of time-consuming SL projects, operational barriers such as perceived liability, lack of institutional support, and faculty resistance. However, these limitations have become less prevalent through the widespread implementation and recognition of SL androgogy (the pedagogy developed for adult learners); which is increasingly finding its place as mainstream educational practice. A review of SL androgogy by Beatty (2010) identified three common models. The professional model, which focuses on career training with cognitive learning goals, is the most common. The civic engagement model, which focuses on developing active and engaged citizens, with affective learning goals; and the social change model, which focuses on empowerment and social justice, also with affective learning goals, represents the historic values of the service-learning movement. A paper by Calvert, Kurji, and Kurji (2010) provides an example of the professional model by examining the impact upon stakeholder such as students and employers of a service-learning tax preparation project facilitated by accounting professors over a seven-year period. Godfrey et al. (2005) addressed common criticism of business education by suggesting that SL can facilitate the development of complex cognitive ability and skills through meaningful experiences, while addressing real-world issues. In that article they argued that SL offers the realistic experience, applied learning, and personal development, which are typically lacking in business education. The elements for successful SL experiences are further defined as: (1) reality, which reflects real-world learning, (2) reflection, a method by which students assess their skill application, and (3) reciprocity, students understand social issues and both, students and the community organization, understand their relationship and the experience.

More recently, the field conceptualizes SL as preparing students for the unprecedented and unanticipated changes facing the world, since the pedagogy offers a holistic approach to management education where adaptability, moral behavior, and global awareness is emphasized (de Janasz & Whiting, 2009). Moreover, SL is introduced as the optimal teaching methodology for creating cross-functional capability for business students. Kenworthy-U'Ren (2005) acknowledges the fluidity of SL projects, which are influenced by students, faculty and the community organization; as such, SL creates complex self-reflective opportunities not offered through lectures. Calvert (2011) discusses the need for community service within a global context, and proposes a service learning framework that facilitates the sustainability of communities.

The SL methodology is flexible and may occur through one-time volunteer placements versus semester-long immersion in consulting projects; the experience may be individual or group based, and may be mandatory or optional (Godfrey & Grasso, 2000). Calvert (2011) proposes a model in which the contextual variables which impact the student, including: the nature of the service experience, the expectations of the community client, and the academic parameters guiding the experience may be structured in an optimal manner to develop social entrepreneur behaviors in undergraduate students.

Godfrey et al. (2005) contributed to SL pedagogy and the educational experience by defining the type of SL experiences and their relative effectiveness. They defined the SL pedagogy as being woven into curricular activities in three levels: (Level 1) SL is used in a discrete form, where the primary emphasis is to learn a concept – e.g., learning about diversity. (Level 2) SL is central to the course and tightly woven into the course objectives – the academic content is explored through multiple SL experiences. (Level 3) SL is part of a course where the primary emphasis of the course is a community service intervention – e.g., courses typically entail term-length consulting projects. They successfully argue that level 2 and 3 SL pedagogies contribute most significantly to the broader student experience and enhance learning.

Kenworthy-U'Ren (2008) provided an excellent summary of the integration of SL as an effective teaching tool across disciplines and throughout undergraduate, graduate, and executive development educational levels. She addresses the emergence of SL from a primarily North American academic methodology, into worldwide educational initiative, with increasingly cross-disciplinary applications.

# Service-Learning Effects on Leadership Development

In this paper the author examines the potential for SL to foster leadership capacity. While there are many aspects to leadership development the study focused upon emotional intelligence and ethics as measureable, significant, and desirable aspects of leadership development outcomes.

The author adheres to the idea that leadership development requires an experiential approach that fosters individual-skill development within a social context (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). The view proposed by Bennis and Thomas (2002) asserts that "crucible experiences" are generative of four essential skills of great leaders: ability to engage others in shared meanings, compelling voice, integrity, and adaptive capacity. Their compelling article argues that overcoming challenges and personal hardships helps build the inner strength that is required of outstanding leaders. In what they call crucible experiences, they describe those pivotal moments in an individual's life as instances where "the combination of hardiness and ability to grasp context that, above all, allows a person to not only survive an ordeal, but to learn from it, and to emerge stronger, more engaged, and more committed than ever" (Bennis & Thomas, 2002, p. 45).

The SL andragogy has the potential to embed students in experiences that may become crucible moments, which help develop one's leadership abilities. As such, SL presents itself as a primary teaching approach for facilitating the development of leaders in business programs. The challenging nature of the SL experience provides a catalyst for change and growth. A recent study by Pless, Maak and Stahl (2011) explored how international SL programs helped managers develop competencies required by global leaders such cultural intelligence, a global and responsible mind-set, and a community building orientation. By evaluating the long-term impact of 47 managers two years after they experienced an integrated six phase international SL assignment, the researchers verified the significant impact of SL experiences on leadership development. A key finding of their study supports the powerful learning opportunity provided by 'crucible' experiences (Pless, Maak and Stahl, 2011). Experiencing heightened ambiguity, challenging ethical dilemmas, and cultural paradoxes created a stressful and challenging learning situation which triggered deeper reflection and personal development; essentially the SL experience is a catalyst for change. The literature references numerous SL experiences which required students to personally interact with complex societal issues such as homelessness, illness, women shelters, and, environmental degradation. Finding solutions to any of these problems provides a challenging but powerful learning experience. Such perspectives are supported by Raelin (2006) who proposes that projects which entail reflection on practice under unfamiliar conditions may produce leadership development which cannot be experienced through conventional classroom methodology.

Through SL students are offered an opportunity to engage in the messy problems of our society and offer them the context in which true leaders learn their trade, through their "crucible moments".

# **Ethical Leadership**

Godfrey and Grasso (2000) suggest that service to others is essentially a moral act, and that SL encourages social responsibility. The understanding by students of the link between economic and social values is provided through the SL experience, which reinforces the perception and awareness of ethical behavior (Googins, 2004). Kracher (1998) considers SL integral to the development of ethics, and outlines specific steps for integrating SL into business ethics courses. She argues that business ethics courses should encourage students to act ethically, not just engage in ethical decisions (Kracher, 1998). SL was cited as the second most common tool for integrating ethics into courses as reported by business faculty (Weber, 2006).

The impact of the SL experience upon the development of leadership has been explored in several studies, responding to the increasingly urgent call for teaching methodologies which would contribute to ethical business graduates (Salimbene, et al., 2005). Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making" (p. 120). Leadership literature suggests that ethical leaders are characterized as honest, principled and caring leaders, who manifest ethical leadership behaviors by making fair and balanced decisions, and modeling ethical leadership behaviors (Brown & Trevino, 2006a).

The research of Brown and colleagues (2005) indicated that ethical leadership emerges from characteristics and behaviors that relate to integrity and fairness, and it is widely referenced as a measurement of ethical behavior. Empirical research examining the relationship between leadership of management and their staff indicated that ethical leadership trickles down the organizational hierarchy (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009). The author suggests that the resulting enhanced skill set of SL participants will emerge from their heightened ability to respond to complex and real world challenges that are typical of community organizations.

Along this rationale, the Multiple Stakeholder Model (Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker and Kickul 2005) emphasizes the dynamic relationship between students, the SL community organization recipient, and future employers. The model provides insight as to the dyadic nature of the SL experience by exploring the diverse perceptions and their impact on the perceived value by student participants, employers, and the community organization, and also implies that the degree of exposure by students to SL experiences may render them more receptive to future SL engagement. There is value in broadening the scope of the SL experience to include many stakeholders. It will expand SL from the community that directly benefits from the students' engagement, to include other members of society, for instance small business, future employees, colleagues, faculty, and so on. In some form or the other, they are also beneficiaries of SL activities (Lester, et al., 2005) because there would be positive externalities from SL to the broader society. If we create a context in which future managers embrace stronger values and a more acute moral compass, business programs that include the SL component generate a more positive social contribution.

From the understanding that ethical reasoning is learnt through appropriate organizational experiences (Jones, 1991), and educational training (Hartman 2006), the author sees SL as being a powerful tool in exposing the participating students to deeper ethical dilemmas and experiences, beyond the experiences that other learning activities would bring to them. It is proposed that, upon reflection, business students should appreciate the varying social consequences of their actions over different stakeholders, and will develop strong-socialized values. The author further supports the premise of creating leaders with integrity, as defined by Waddock (2007), as individuals who understand the world as a boundary-less integrated system with interconnected environment, social and economic imperatives. This dynamic and integrated system also suggests that the holistic and integrated view of the world demonstrated by ethical leaders requires a 'mind-shift', which cannot be developed through traditional business curriculum (Waddock 2007).

Drawing from the literature which explores the contrast between positive socialized leaders from the negative forms of personalized leaders; the author contends that SL is a tool in generating positive socialized ideals. More specifically, selfish, self serving, personalized leaders represent negative manifestations of leadership; whereas self-sacrificial, altruistic, socialized leaders represent a higher form of leadership that are actually responsible for the long-term success of organizations (Avolio & Locke, 2002; House & Howell, 1992). Being a socialized leader becomes, consequently, the foundation of ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a, 2006b; Brown, et al., 2005).

The essence of the SL pedagogy is the volunteering engagement of the students. Thus, it is necessary to entertain the idea that volunteering through personal choices of community engagement would also parallel the effects of SL on the development of heightened ethical leadership. In other words, if the effects of SL andragogy on leadership traits are true, so would the effects of community engagement. The preceding rationale leads to the first hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1.1: A student's participation in Service-Learning experiences will be positively associated with a student's self-perception of ethical leadership. Hypothesis 1.2: A student's preference for community service will be positively associated with the students' self-perception of ethical leadership.

## **Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is defined as one's ability to manage feelings so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together smoothly toward their common goals. It is comprised of four major skills, self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 1995). EI has been identified as an underlying characteristic that advances effective leadership performance (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008).

Although there is controversy as to whether EI can be a learnt trait; there is an agreement that life experiences lead to its development (Wong, Foo, Wang, & Wong, 2007). An empirical study of the impact of training on the development of emotional intelligence of business students (Groves, McEnrue, & Shen, 2008; Mayer, et al., 2009) indicated that EI may be developed through an academic process. At the minimum, the experience-rich milieu of SL arrangements will, accelerate the development of emotional intelligence via enhanced maturity of students. The learning of EI through SL goes beyond a larger exposure to meaningful life experiences as articulated by Elfenbein (2006) who confirms enhanced EI development results from an environment that offers coaching, frequent personal feedback, practice of interpersonal skills, and self reflection. The parallels to *reality*, *reflection*, and *reciprocity* that are gestalt to the SL conceptualization are directly linked to those EI's learning steps. The successful completion of SL experiences in one's higher education program will present opportunities for the enhancement of self-management, self-awareness, social awareness and relationship management; in other words, the forming blocs of EI (Clark, Callister, & Wallace, 2003).

Lindebaum (2009) suggests specific interpersonal training could foster an individual's EI. He argues that such training should encourage people to leave their comfort zone to facilitate progress and growth. Such a suggestion concurs with our premise that crucible experiences, such as those facilitated by SL, would contribute to the development of leadership attributes including EI.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness has also been articulated, with emotional intelligence perceived to be a contributor to personal and career success. An empirical study measuring the relationship between emotional intelligence and a rating of leadership effectiveness by subordinates verified that emotional intelligence is a predictor of leadership effectiveness (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006). While the relevance of emotional intelligence pertaining to leadership performance is well documented, the impact of service learning upon emotional intelligence lacks empirical evidence.

The author proposes SL produces positive effects on the leadership development of undergraduate students, and that they will be more efficient organizational leaders due to enhanced emotional intelligence. Therefore it is suggested:

Hypothesis 2.1: Service-Learning experiences will be positively associated with a student's self-perception of emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 2.2: A student's preference for community service will be positively associated with the student's self-perception of emotional intelligence.

# THE MOUNT ROYAL SERVICE-LEARNING EXPERIENCE

The author teaches two courses selected for this study, Leadership Development and a consulting course which employ SL as the primary teaching methodology. The courses are offered to undergraduate business students.

The Leadership course has been designed to expose students to a progressive SL experience, with two projects embedded in the curriculum. The SL components are sequential in nature, reflecting the greater impact of multiple experiences suggested by the literature. The first project is short and requires less commitment and conceptual application, serving as an introduction to SL by engaging students with a local nonprofit through 10 hours of service. While some of the short service projects require minimal emotional and academic engagement, such as working at the local food bank, some of the projects entailed challenging situations. For example, one student worked with seniors who had recently experienced a stroke. While she had the opportunity to work in the office preparing marketing material she chose instead to sit with seniors and engage them in conversation. At the end of the short project she indicated that she had found new sympathy, both for her own senior family members and for the operational and financial challenges encountered by nonprofit organizations. The second project is intensive and entails a team fundraising project worth 40% of the term grade which requires the demonstration of logistics skills, such as event planning, as well as team management and communication both with team members and event participants.

Students accept a challenge that forces personal, performance, and attitudinal transformation because they perceive the funds raised by their class will significantly improve the lives of the hill-tribe people of the Philippines. The sustainability of the hill-tribe communities requires a multi-pronged effort entailing social, economic and environmental actions including medial missions, the building of schools, the development of community gardens and centrally located nurseries, micro-financing to facilitate economic development, and social stability.

The consulting course entails student teams assisting community organizations by providing an indepth holistic analysis of marketing, human resources, production methods, financial statements financial forecasting, and strategy. Student teams have 13 weeks to conduct research, prepare a 40 page report, and present the analysis and concrete cost-effective recommendations to the client in a one hour presentation in which a concrete cost-effective plan is presented. Students structure the activities including data-gathering and analysis, and encounter not only extreme time pressures, but also team conflicts, and a large amount of unfiltered data which requires interpretation. Further, many of the organizations are in crisis mode having encountered financial or operational problem that forced them to seek assistance. Each student typically dedicates over 150 hours to the project which is 100% of the term grade. The teams are comprised of three or four students to ensure an adequate skill base and manpower. It should be noted that managing the SL activities in both courses requires the ability to cope with a dynamic and non-structured environment, where students will encounter project challenges, with the client, complex issues, and sometimes teammates, which must be addressed.

In addition, SL is a core experience for students participating in extracurricular activities such as Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE). Student members of SIFE engage in a range of activities such: as raising funds for community projects (families in need), teaching women how to start a business, and mentoring entrepreneurial youth through such organizations as Junior Achievement.

### **METHODS**

# Sample

Data was collected through an on-line survey from 82 students attending an undergrad commerce program at Mount Royal University. Typically, students were in their second or third year of studies. They ranged in age from 18 to 34, with a mean of 22.8 years; forty nine percent of the participants were female. The exposure to SL was varied across the subjects, going from none to the attendance of two courses in which SL was the paramount pedagogy. As such, the research includes a quasi-experiment design, in which the subjects' community involvement and engagement in the SL experience was assessed; as well as their self-perception of emotional intelligence and ethical leadership. In other words, there is no specific manipulation of the learning experiences of the students; program development has offered the students varying degrees of exposure to SL which was measured to identify the impact upon leadership development.

As a result, SL is introduced as continuum factor; it is measured as a degree instead of a treatment, no-treatment population, which evolves through the delivery of two optional courses in the undergraduate business program, Leadership Development and the Consulting Practicum. Besides collecting data with the students attending these two courses, students enrolled in an Organizational Behavior course were surveyed. Organizational Behavior was selected because it includes academic components of the Leadership Development course; however, it is taught in a more traditional approach and does not use the service learning pedagogy.

#### **Procedures and Measures**

This study used a web-based data collection on a voluntary base. Students were contacted for the online survey during the second half of the term.

Quantitative Data: The on-line surveys were comprised of three instruments which assessed leadership, an indicator of exposure to SL, and demographic information. The quantitative components of this empirical analysis are outlined below.

## **Dependent Variables**

The Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ECSI): Developed by the Haygroup in 2008 ECSI builds upon the Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence research by Goleman (1995, 2006). The ECSI is a 72 item inventory which assesses 12 competencies organized into four clusters including: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. ESCI is a widely used measure based upon a mixed model of emotional intelligence.

The Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS): The ELS contains 10 items reflecting participant's ethical behavior relating to principled behaviors and positive personal relations. The scale was developed by Brown et al. (2005) through seven interlocking studies using both students and employees as participants. Their research indicated that ethical leadership emerges from characteristics and behaviors that relate to integrity and fairness. The ELS is referenced as a measurement of ethical behavior of leaders.

Some caution is necessary on interpreting both dependent variables. The validity of the true assessments of one's *emotional intelligence* and *ethical leadership* will be more precisely measured with peers and not self-perception (Morgan, 1993). Yet, the intention of this research follows similar approaches in the literature (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Morgan, 1993; Petrides, Pérez-González & Furnham, 2007) in which the subject's self-perception of emotional intelligence and ethical leadership are employed as measures. In those studies self-perception is the focus of the research question. The cross sectional nature of this research focuses on the student's appreciation of personal learning. Assessing the effects of SL on their business leadership capabilities is long term and would happen as they evolve into their professional careers.

# **Independent Variables**

The author conceptualized that SL experiences result from the number of opportunities that students have in engaging in community service, associated with their program of study. In this sample students would have had varying SL exposure, from none, if they attended the Organizational Behavior course but not the Leadership Development and the Consulting Practicum courses. SL experiences would continuously increase as they attended one or both of these later courses.

The level of students' engagement during the SL experiences also influences how strongly they could benefit from SL activities, as such a measure was introduced to measure whether a student "tagged along" during the course, or became strongly involved with the SL activities. Thus, the following ordinal scale was created for each of the two SL-supported courses. A 1-5 Likert scale was developed to assess the SL exposure, inquiring students about each individual SL course (Leadership Development and Consulting Practicum). The scale evolved from did not attend, to attending right now, attended and barely passed, attended and got an average performance, ending with attended it, loved it and got great marks. The overall SL rating was the average measure across both courses, Leadership Development and Consulting Practicum.

It is necessary to also incorporate a student's self defined community engagement; as such kinds of activities are not exclusive from their program of study and related SL projects. If students acquire ethical leadership values and emotional intelligence from their community work, such learning will certainly happen when they voluntarily decide to work in their communities. Therefore, an additional assessment of SL includes the personal preference towards community involvement, as described below.

Community Service Involvement Preference Inventory (CSIPI): Developed by Payne (1999), the 48 item inventory is used to assess whether and how students are involved in community service. It is based upon experiential learning and assesses four preferences for community involvement including exploration, affiliation, experimentation, and assimilation.

Control Variables

Demographic and control questions: One's maturity will be associated with their ethical and emotional skills, as such the study was controlled for students' age, years of study, and gender (Neubaum et al, 2009).

# **DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

### **Data Analysis**

The four proposed hypotheses were tested through a series of regression analysis. Table 1 lists the descriptive statistics and the Pearson correlation coefficient between the variables used in the study.

TABLE 1 PEARSON CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VARIABLES

		Mean	(s.d.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Emotional Intelligence	5.3	.47						
2	Ethical Leadership	5.9	.49	.36***					
3	Years of Study	3.1	.67	18 <sup>+</sup>	08				
4	Age	22.8	2.85	09	.00	.30**			
5	Gender $(0 = female, 1 = male)$	.49	.50	- .31***	17 <sup>+</sup>	.25**	.32***		
6	Community Service	4.3	.55	.20*	.27**	02	15	07	
7	Service Learning	1.6	.73	.19*	.05	.33***	.06	.08	04

Significance Codes: < .001 (\*\*\*); < .01 (\*\*); < .05 (\*); < .1(+) It is not surprising to see that emotional intelligence and ethical leadership are correlated, particularly in a self-report assessment such as ours. The subjects own perception of ethical leadership relates to how they see themselves working towards their society; similarly, emotional intelligence assesses their perception of how well they can, manage their own emotions and understand the emotions of the people around them. The correlation coefficient (.36, p<.001) is strong but not too large, suggesting that both items do not relate to the same construct.

The correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence and community service (.20, p<.05) and with SL (.19, p<.05) signal that there is some significant relationship across emotional intelligence and these two constructs. Ethical leadership was positively correlated to community service (.27, p<.01) but not to SK.

Table 2 illustrates the results of the regression analysis showing partial support for Hypotheses 1.1 and 1.2 ( $R^2 = .12$ , p<.10). Ethical leadership intelligence was explained by community engagement [ $\beta = .27$  (.10), p<.05], but it was not explained by SL.

TABLE 2
ETHICAL LEADERSHIP REGRESSED ON COMMUNITY
SERVICE AND SERVICE-LEARNING

Standardized Coefficients:	Estimate	(s.d.)		
Years of Study	10	.12		
Age	.12	.11		
Gender $(0 = \text{female}, 1 = \text{male})$	18	.11		
Community Service	.27*	.10		
Service Learning	.10	.11		
N	88			
$R^2$	.12+			
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	.06			
Significance Codes:	<.001 (***); < .01 (**); < .05 (*); < .1(+)			

Table 3 depicts the results of the regression analysis showing strong support for Hypotheses 2.1 and 2.2 (R2 = .22, p<.001). Emotional intelligence was explained by both, community engagement [ $\beta$  = .19 (.10), p<.05] and SL [ $\beta$  = .29 (.10), p<.01]. It is important to emphasize that SL was entered in the regression after community engagement and produced a larger standardized regression coefficient. In other words, SL embedded in curriculum was significant even after all the variance for voluntary community engagement has been accounted for; not only that, the effect size of SL was even larger than community engagement.

TABLE 3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE REGRESSED ON COMMUNITY SERVICE AND SERVICE-LEARNING

Standardized Coefficients:	Estimate	(s.d.)			
Years of Study	21 <sup>+</sup>	.11			
Age	.07	.11			
Gender $(0 = \text{female}, 1 = \text{male})$	29**	.10			
Community Service	.19*	.10			
Service Learning	.29**	.10			
N	88				
$R^2$	.22***				
Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	.17				
Significance Codes:	< 001 (***) < 01 (**) < 05 (*) · 1(+)				

Significance Codes:

<.001 (\*\*\*); <.01 (\*\*); <.05 (\*); .1(+)

#### **Discussion of the Results**

The analyses lend strong support to the proposed relationships between SL pedagogy and students' perceptions of their leadership abilities. Students who have had exposure to their community, either through SL or course based or extra-curricular activities displayed a heightened self perception regarding two central aspects of positive leadership, their emotional intelligence and their ethical leadership profiles on an equal basis. Community engagement outside the course based SL format seems to influence one's emotional intelligence and ethical leadership profile in equal measure. SL seems to be especially munificent in influencing the student's emotional intelligence, even for those who have already engaged voluntarily in their community. Naturally, such results poise the question whether these students are truly going to incorporate such traits in their careers. Validation of the impact of SL upon leadership development requires s longitudinal and external assessments of those traits. However, the empirical study indicates that the learning experience resulting from community engagement influences their selfconcept in relationship to very important leadership traits.

# **CONCLUSION**

Results suggest that the utilization of SL andragogy impacts the students' perceptions of their leadership abilities. In itself, this empirical analysis helps us understand that SL is a valid methodology for the education of graduates who have a heightened awareness of ethical issues and self-awareness. While these characteristics do not guarantee future leaders, they contribute to the potential development of graduates with some leadership attributes. Although extensive literature supports SL as an effective teaching methodology, research measuring the experience as contributing to leadership development is limited. In particular, the relationship between SL and emotional intelligence and ethical leadership have not been well defined or empirically validated. This study offers some evidence of a causal relationship between SL and leadership development. Further, evidence was introduced showing that such learning processes are reinforced by multiple exposures to service, embedded in course curriculum or coming from one's own engagement in the civil society. These results support one aspect of the framework developed by Lester et. al (2005) which indicates prior SL exposures influence the success of subsequent SL experiences. Results also support the premise that students should be exposed to multiple SL experiences during their educational program for optimal impact.

# **Study Limitations and Directions for Further Research**

The author conceptualized that SL experiences as a primary construct would impact leadership development. This study relied solely on student's self-perception, which is a limiting factor. Future research entailing peer assessment of the subject's ethical and emotional intelligence attributes within the context of the SL experience would enhance the validity of this study. Further, the study assessed the impact of the SL experience within a short-term context; the students measured their perception during the term in which some of the experience occurred. Real impact implies sustained change, which would require longitudinal data gathered from graduates. Future researchers are encouraged to validate the sustained impact of SL on leadership development by conducting studies on graduates who experience SL as a core teaching methodology. As the results of this study show promise, the author urges that emotional intelligence be considered a valid construct for leadership development through SL experiences, and as such be examined for long-term impact. The effect of multiple experiences has also been touched upon, and would benefit from further study, particularly through longitudinal research.

This research was conducted within the context of one undergraduate business school in Canada, with a small sample population. It would be helpful to measure the SL impact on leadership development in multiple cultures across varying academic disciplines for a larger population, including both graduate and undergraduate students. The author recognizes the self-selection of participants could introduce some bias in the response variable, as it is likely that students with higher emotional intelligence would opt to participate.

This project contributes to the limited body of literature pertaining to the assessment of SL relative to leadership development. This issue is pertinent for academic institutions, and business schools in particular, who are striving to validate their programs within the heightened societal call for ethical business leaders. The results contribute to the validity of SL as an effective teaching andragogy for leadership development. The results also support SL as a teaching methodology that creates a 'crucible' experience for students (Bennis and Thomas, 2002). Challenges presented by complex embedded SL experiences force students to address real-world problems and move them outside their comfort zone and down the leadership path. The self-confidence and enhanced self-understanding only occurs through the reflective exercises of those who overcome real obstacles in the learning process. This type of didactic-iterative process is not possible within the context of case studies or in-class exercises.

Finally, the research partially answers the pertinent challenge provided by Weick (2008) by indicating that SL is a tool that can be used to develop ethical leaders who would contribute to a better society. It is the author's hope that future researchers will build upon the findings by exploring the longitudinal impact of the SL experience on leadership development.

## REFERENCES

Avolio, B.J., & Locke, E.E. (2002). Contrasting different philosophies of leader motivation: Altruism versus egoism. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(2), 169-191.

Barbuto, J.J.E., & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The Emotional Intelligence of Transformational Leaders: A Field Study of Elected Officials. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 146, (1), 51-64.

Beatty, J.E. (2010). For which future? Exploring the implicit futures of service-learning. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 18, (2), 181 – 197.

Bennis, W.G., & Thoma, R.J. (2002). Crucibles of Leadership. Harvard Business Review, 80,(9), 39-45.

Boyatzis, R.E., & Saatcioglu, A. (2008). A 20-year view of trying to develop emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies in graduate management education. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27, (1), 92-108.

Brown, M.E., & Trevino, L.K. (2006a). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The* Leadership Quarterly, 17, (6), 595-616.

Brown, M.E., & Trevino, L.K. (2006b). Socialized charismatic leadership, values congruence, and deviance in work groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91, 954-962.

Brown, M.E., Trevino, L. K., & Harrison, D.A., (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97,(2), 117-134.

Calvert, V., Kurji, R., & Kurji, S. (2010). Service-Learning for Accounting Students: What is the Faculty Role? Research in Higher Education Journal, 17, (1), 1-11

Calvert, V. (2011). Service–Learning within a Global Context: Examining How the Learning Experience Contributes to Community Sustainability. The International Journal of Environmental, Cultural, Economic and Social Sustainability, 7, (4), 65-85.

Calvert, V. (2011). Service Learning to Social Entrepreneurship: A Continuum of Action Learning. Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice, 11, (2), 118-129

Cavico, F.J., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2009). The state of business schools, business education, and business Ethics. *Journal of Academic and Business Ethics*, 1-17.

Clark, S.C., Callister, R., & Wallace, R. (2003). Undergraduate management skills courses and students' emotional intelligence. Journal of Management Education, 27,(1), 122-124.

de Janasz, S.C., & Whiting, V. R. (2009). Using service to transform learning re-scripted ABC's for our changing environment. International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 17, (1), 60-75.

Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process. (2 ed.). Lexington, MA: Heath.

Elfenbein, H. A. (2006). Learning in emotion judgments: Training and the cross-cultural understanding of facial expressions. Journal of Nonverbal Behavior, 30, (1), 21-36.

Godfrey, P.C., & Grasso, E.T.(Eds.) (2000). Working for the Common Good: Concepts and Models for Service-Learning in Management. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2006). Social intelligence: the new science of human relationships. New York: Bantam Books.

Googins B.K. (2004). The growing divide between ethics and corporate citizenship. *Ethics Matters*, February 2004,7. Retrieved from

http://www.bcccc.net/index.cfm?fuseaction=document.showDocumentByID&nodeID=1&DocumentID= 869

Groves, K.S., McEnrue, M.P. & Shen, W. (2008). Developing and measuring the emotional intelligence of leaders. The Journal of Management Development, 27, (2), 225-250.

House, R. J., & Howell, J. M. (1992). Personality and charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 3, (3), 81 - 108.

Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical Decision Making by Individuals in Organizations: an Issue-Contingent Model. Academy of Management Review, 16, (2), 366-395.

Kenworthy-U'Ren A L (2008) A Decade of Service-learning: A Review of the Field Ten Years after JOBE's Seminal Special Issue. Journal of Business Ethics, 81, (4), 811-822.

Kenworthy-U'Ren, A. L. (2005). Service-Learning and Management Education: Introducing the "WE CARE" Approach. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4, (3), 272-277.

Kerr R, Garvin J, Heaton N and Boyle E (2006). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27, (4), 265-279.

Kolb, D.A. (1984). Experiential learning: experience as the source of learning and development. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Kolenko TA, Porter G, Wheatley W and Colby M (1996). A critique of service learning projects in management education: Pedagogical foundations, barriers, and guidelines. Journal of Business Ethics, 15, (1), 133-143.

Kracher, B. (1998). What Does it Mean when Mitchell Gets an 'A' in Business Ethics? or the Importance of Service Learning. Teaching Business Ethics, 2, 291-303.

Lester SW, Tomkovick C, Wells T, Flunker L and Kickul J (2005). Does Service-Learning Add Value? Examining the Perspectives of Multiple Stakeholders. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4, (3), 278-294.

Lindebaum, D. (2009). Rhetoric or Remedy? A Critique on Developing Emotional Intelligence. *Academy* of Management Learning & Education, 8, (2), 225-237.

Mayer, D.M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., & Salvador, R. (2009). How low does ethical leadership flow? Test of a trickle-down model. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 108, (1), 1-13.

Morgan, R.B. (1993). Self and co-worker perception of ethics and their relationships to leadership and salary. Academy of Management Journal, 36, (1), 200-214.

Papamarcos, S. D. (2005). Giving Traction to Management Theory: Today's Service-Learning. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4, (3), 325-335.

Payne, C.A. (2000). Changes in involvement preferences as measured by the Community Service Involvement Preference Inventory. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 7, 41-53.

Petrides, K.V., Pérez-González, J.C., & Furnham, A. (2007). On the criterion and incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence. Cognition & Emotion, 21,(1), 26-55.

Pless, N.M., Maak, T., & Stahl, G.K. (2011). Developing Responsible global Leaders Through International Service-Learning Programs: The Ulysses Experience. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 10, (2), 237-260.

Raelin, J. (2006). Does Action Learning Promote Collaborative Leadership? Academy of Management *Learning & Education*, 5, (2), 152-168.

Salimbene, F.P., Buono, A.F., Lafarge, V.V.S., & Nurick, A.J. (2005). Service-Learning and Management Education: The Bentley Experience. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4, (3), 336-344.

Stanton, T., Giles, D., & Cruz, N.I. (1999). Service-Learning: A movement's pioneers reflect on its origins, practice, and future. (1st ed.). San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Waddock, S. (2007). Leadership Integrity in a Fracture Knowledge World. Academy of Management *Learning & Education*, 6, (4), 543-557.

Waldman, D.A., & Siegel, D. (2008). Defining the socially responsible leader. The Leadership Quarterly, 19, (1), 117-131.

Weber, J. (2006). Implementing an Organizational Ethics Program in an Academic Environment: The Challenges and Opportunities for the Duquesne University Schools of Business. Journal of Business Ethics, 65, (1), 23-42.

Weick, C.W. (2008). Issues of Consequence: Lessons for Educating Tomorrow's Business Leaders From Philosopher William James. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 7, (1), 88-98.

Wong, C.S., Foo, M.D., Wang, C.W., & Wong, P.M. (2007). The feasibility of training and development of EI: An exploratory study in Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan. *Intelligence*, 35, (2), 141-150.