The Scarlet Cap

Contents

About *The Scarlet Cap*

The essays presented in this journal were originally presented as a part of the capstone experience in the Organizational Leadership Program. These writings represent the student's perspectives on contemporary topics in the field of Organizational Leadership.

In this, our fifth volume, we feature five works which are reflective of the range of contemporary leadership issues which students in our program examine critically. Kautuki Jarlwala explores the role leaders have in creating brand specific behaviors in employees. Dana Mason examines the role of perception and group cohesion in sports teams as a model to understand effective leadership behaviors. Joseph Fowler considers on leaders can enhance volunteer organizations through an understanding of organizational dyamics. Nathaly Sanchez make a compassionate arguement for the use of appropriate leadership styles when instructing children with autism. Finally in her essay, Lana West suggests a modification and blending of long standing group success formulas designed to help leaders achieve greater organizational success.

We are pleased to present these five essays which demonstrate the thoughtful insights of our students regarding the application of leadership in various organizational settings.

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Developing a Brand Specific Culture

Kautuki Jariwala ' 18

Culture has become particularly relevant today because millennials, who view it as one of the most important aspect of corporate life, are now the largest workforce in America. Corporate culture has taken a center stage to the extent that there are annual lists titled 'Best Places to Work'. As for 2017, both Facebook and Google are yet again in the top five positions (Kauflin, 2016) and for good reason. These rankings are partly based on employee reviews about the company culture and their satisfaction with it. Leaders play a pivotal role in instilling and maintaining cultures that millennials look to be a part of.

Brand Specific Leadership

Brand is the manner in which public views the company or how the company wishes to be viewed, regardless; it is about the outsiders' perception. Buit *et al.* suggest that the success of this brand is largely based on the role of the employees because they are the "brand champions" (2016, p. 256) that represent the company. Brand Specific Leadership brand isn't the company logo or colors, but it is the public perception of the company. By answering, "What does the company want to be known for?" leaders can figure out the brand of the organization. Brand specific leadership revolves around the idea of inspiring employees to act in ways that fulfill the brand (Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, & Rudd, 2013). This pro-active measure taken by leaders will generate Brand Specific Behaviors (Buil, Martínez, & Matute, 2016). Employees begin to internalize the brand values and make decisions based on the brand even when the leaders don't monitor them. The final step is acting in brand specific manner often enough to create a pattern, a culture of 'how things are done around here' (Tabatabaee, Koohi, Ghandali, & Tajik, 2016). Leaders guide and direct this path to brand specific culture and in turn can achieve employee satisfaction and company growth.

The focus on employees helps better conceptualize brand specific leadership as "a leader's approach to motivating followers to act on behalf of the brand" (Punjaisri et al., 2015, p. 984). Leadership is the bridge between brand and the employees' ability to act as 'brand champions' because they enable employees to understand and represent the brand.

This deep knowledge and acceptance of the brand goes beyond rote memorization of the mission statements and repeating it to external audiences. This level of brand internalization is only possible if an employee is able to identify herself in terms of the company's brand. This leads to employees viewing their fate intertwined with that of the company's (Punjaisri et al., 2015). The additional personal relevance to the brand creates higher levels of commitment to the company and a stronger conviction to act in brand fulfilling ways (Wallace, Chernatony, & Buil, 2013). The leaders are able to inspire their followers to transcend personal gain for the good of the company. Such belief is the basis on which employees are able to become the 'brand champions'. They need to believe the importance and truthfulness of the brand to be able to become fruitful advocates for it.

Effective leadership is reflected when employees begin to define themselves in terms of the brand. But how can a leader transport employees from being motivated by monetary compensation and personal advantage? Research suggests that this is possible when leaders provide employees with unique and compelling brand values that help them stay motivated and protect the brand (Punjaisri et al., 2015). Leaders can have a set of values that they wish their followers adapt, but effective communication is the key to brand specific leadership. A personal and close relationship with their employees while instilling these brand values is necessary because this is when employees begin to view leaders as a role model of the brand (Punjaisri et al., 2015). Through these small group interactions,

Abstract

Years of research and theorizing have shifted our understanding of leadership. It is no longer viewed as a trait that only a select few are born with; rather as a as a dynamic process that is continuous and a learnable skill. The dynamic nature of leadership comes from situations, followers, external environment, organizational culture and many more aspects. it is vital for leaders to understand the basis of creating a successful culture through specific tactics described in this paper. I propose that creating a culture begins with Brand Specific Leadership

employees are able to see firsthand what brand specific behaviors look like, and they begin to draw their inspiration from the leaders. Leaders not only drive the brand identity forward, but they also become the representations of it for the employees to express. This is the reason why leadership is the bridge between brand and employee behaviors.

Brand Specific Behaviors

Once the leaders have inspired the employees to internalize the brand, viewing it as something personal. They will then begin to act on behalf of the brand. For example, for service sector employees, the sense of ownership of the brand is a reason why employees begin to change their interaction with their colleagues and customers (Wallace et al., 2013). An important aspect of this notion is that the company doesn't need to reward the brand specific behaviors (Wallace et al., 2013). They chose to do so because they have come to believe in the brand themselves.

A positive attitude about the brand has a direct effect on employee performance. They begin to work harder to satisfy the goals of the company because they believe they are a part of it. Organizational belonging results in employee finding particular brand values that that are personally satisfying for them, and aligning their behavior to those values (Tabatabaee et al., 2016). Their commitment to the company is reflected in their behaviors and this then pushes them to try harder so that they can be more like their role models; the leaders of the company. This affects their performance because they are now better equipped to protect and represent the company to the external audience. And thus, we begin to see the outward portrayal of the company to the external viewers by the very lifeblood of the company.

Of course, an effective brand specific culture isn't limited to the top tier employees, but rather encompasses all levels of leadership and their respective followers. For the company to reach this final level, it is important that brand specific behaviors to occur in the absence of leaders. Once the employees have internalized the brand and are willing to act on it, they no longer need constant supervision to do so. Leaders pose as role models and their followers look to them to understand behaviors that are acceptable (Punjaisri et al., 2015). This chain continues and mid-level managers become role models to the lower level employees. Thus, in brand specific behaviors take

place without the leaders directing or observing employees.

Brand Specific Culture

"Organizational culture is a set of shared concepts and values which interconnects members of the organization" (Tabatabaee et al., 2016, p. 183). The brand specific behaviors spread throughout the organization and the way in which the employees represent the company to the external audience also changes to truly take on the notion of a brand. This means that the brand is shared and it interconnects the members because this is the converging point for all, making it a culture if repeated. The model so far will ease into the notion of a brand specific culture if the leaders are able to inspire continued and repeated behaviors that fulfill the brand.

Since the organization becomes intertwined with the employee's personal values, they become more dependent on the organization to continue providing them with certain values and basis for behavior (Tabatabaee et al., 2016). Acting for the brand becomes second nature for employees and they no longer have to think about the way they portray the organization because the brand is ingrained in their thought process and consequently behaviors. The decrease in the amount of thought required for their behavior is the basis for a culture. T

Schein (2004) suggests that leadership and culture are two sides of the same coin because creating and managing culture is one the most important duties of a leader. He also explains that a group goes through four stages of evolution beginning with 'group formation,' which is characterized by dependence on the leader to instill brand values, and the last stage 'group maturity,' which is characterized by continuing the behaviors that have been successful in the past (p. 70). This evolution of the group shows the evolution of brand behaviors as well. The group starts out with holding the leader as a role model and drawing inspiration from them, but eventually graduates into trusting the past way of doing things; which is exactly what brand specific leadership is. If the leader has taken care into instilling behaviors that are brand specific at the very first stage, then the final stage should be brand specific culture. By the time the followers begin acting because it is a part of the culture, they will have high levels of psychological involvement with the company and thus become more congruent with the culture (Buil *et al.*, 2016).

Conclusion

There is a critical role for leadership to inspire behaviors that are brand specific, that eventually become a culture. By reflecting in their behaviors and actions what the company wants to be known for, leaders are proving a stable ground for the growth of the company. By placing the emphasis on the brand, leaders can ensure growth and consistency even if the leadership should change. Leadership that is based on the long lasting nature of a brand is likely to be successful. A key to the sucees of this model is the requirement that leaders provide individualized mentorship and investi n individ-

ual employees. Behaviors that are the outcomes from this approach are beneficial to the company because the employees link their on the job efforts to the goals of the company. The company's goals become their personal convictions and so the employees feel a certain level of ownership that reflects in enhanced performance. Finally, all of these behaviors eventually form a pattern with enough regularity that employees throughout the organization begin to trust it. Thus forming a culture that is brand specific and unique to the company. The model proposed in this paper has the ability to affect leaders because with the changing workforce and the changing nature of the work itself, it is vital to stay competitive. Leaders can set their companies apart by ensuring that the employees are the true brand champions.

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Fostering Cohesion in Sports Teams: The Role of Understanding Perceptions of Leadership Behavior

Dana L. Manson '17

Coaches are often tasked with the challenge of bringing people with different backgrounds, beliefs, and abilities together in order to meet common performance goals. For example, Herb Brooks, the coach of the 1980 U.S. Olympic Hockey team effectively led an inexperienced team of players without common background to an unexpected victory against the Soviet Union in the 1980 Olympic Games, making history as "Miracle on Ice" (Forsyth, 2006). Brook's coaching of a "miracle" team raises the question: How do coaches get their teams to come together to perform beyond what is expected? Coaches play a large role in fostering team cohesion, "a dynamic process reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its goals and objectives" (Carron, 1982).

A coach's contribution to developing team cohesion is an important phenomenon to investigate because cohesion has been related to positive team outcomes. For example, more cohesive teams demonstrate stronger member investment in goals, are more likely to accept challenging tasks, show increased productivity, show willingness to persevere in achieving desired outcomes, and generally demonstrate higher levels of satisfaction (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). Notably, multiple other factors also contribute to team cohesion levels such as group size, the nature of the sport, required tasks, team ability, and athlete beliefs or behaviors (Weinberg & Gould, 2015). If coaches can promote team cohesion, athletes may have better sporting experiences, feel more connected to their teammates, and be more likely to meet performance goals to win games.

Two forms of team cohesion exist. Social cohesion is the extent to which members get along and feel personally connected with others in the group, whereas task cohesion is the extent to which team members work together toward their goals (Forsyth, 2006). Evidence demonstrates that coaches are stronger fosterers of task cohesion than social cohesion. Research shows that coach behaviors such as providing clear instruction to athletes, giving positive feedback when appropriate, being democratic, and being supportive add to cohesion levels in sports teams and these behaviors are more strongly associated with task cohesion than social cohesion (e.g. Jowett& Chaundy, 2004; Kim & Cruz, 2016; Shields, Gardner Bredemeier, & Bostro, 1997). A coach's role mainly involves directing athletes toward a common goal through teaching sport skills, running practices, and pushing athletes rather than helping team members become friends with each other

Often, authors and researchers will make suggestions about which leadership behaviors or styles effectively promote group outcomes. However, this only seems to consider one aspect of the leader-follower relationship. Shields, Gardner, Bredemeier, and Bostro, (1997) point out, "Leader behaviors are a form of stimuli, and all stimuli have effect only as they are modified through the process of perception." This suggests that athletes' perceptions of their coach's behaviors may be more important to consider than the coach's actual behaviors when attempting to increase cohesion in teams. If there are discrepancies between athletes' perceptions and coaches' perceptions about coach leadership behaviors, it will be more difficult for teams to work well together in

Abstract

Coaches' leadership behaviors, as well as athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors, are important factors that contribute to raising cohesion levels in teams and to pushing teams to perform at high levels. This paper will explore the coach's role in fostering team cohesion. Specifically, it proposes that athletes' perceptions of their coach's leadership behaviors are important to consider in addition to what the coach actually does for cohesion to exist in teams. Therefore, sport leaders must find ways to align their athletes' perceptions with their own perceptions to create an environment for cohesion to exist.

pursuit of their goals. If a coach believes he or she is exhibiting leadership behaviors that promote cohesion such as democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback, but athletes do not perceive it, cohesion will not exist.

There are three perceptual considerations coaches must have in order to work toward promoting task cohesion in their teams. 1) Coaches' actual behaviors and athletes' perception of their coaches' behaviors must align. 2) What athletes expect from their coach and how athletes perceive their coach to behave must align. 3) Athletes must perceive that there is compatibility between their coach's beliefs and their own beliefs. Each of these considerations are listed in order or importance to their contribution to team cohesion.

Athletes and coaches must have congruent understanding of the coach's behavior for cohesion to be fostered. Chelladurai's (1978) Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership asserts that athletes' performance and satisfaction are grounded in the alignment of "required, actual and preferred leadership" (cited in Weinberg & Gould, 2015). The model posits that if athletes' expectations of the leader, the leader's actual behavior and the way the athlete wants the leader to behave are in line, then athletes will be more likely to be satisfied and cohesion within the team will be more likely. Shields et al. (1997) found that perceptual congruence, which is the alignment between athletes' reports of their coach's leadership behaviors and the coach's reports of their own leadership behaviors, most strongly predicted task cohesion in comparison to other congruencies of perceptions (i.e. the match between what is expected of the coach and how athletes believe the coach behaves). In the study, athletes rated the frequency they believed that their coach demonstrated behaviors such as instruction, democratic behaviors, support, and giving positive feedback. Coaches also rated themselves on these behaviors. Congruence between athletes' and coaches' perceptions statistically predicted endorsement of task cohesion in the team, demonstrating that it is important for coaches to consider how athletes perceive their behaviors when considering how to best foster cohesion on the team.

In order to reduce discrepancy between coach's perceptions of themselves and athletes' perceptions of their coach, coaches must constantly demonstrate clarity in their behaviors. When perceptual congruence is high, coaches and athletes have the same idea about what the coach

is actually doing. For this reason, clear communication between coaches and athletes is paramount. For example, coaches may explain the reasoning for their actions to their athletes, ask questions to ensure that athletes perceive coach leadership behaviors in the same way as the coach, and read their athletes' body language to determine if their own actions are being perceived in the way that they are intended. Although coaches cannot directly change athletes' perceptions of them, demonstrating clarity and being aware of possible discrepancies may enhance cohesion levels in teams. It seems coaches could also implement a democratic style of leadership in order to help reduce this perceptual discrepancy. Across multiple studies in the cohesion literature, democratic behaviors have been empirically related to task cohesion (Kim & Cruz, 2016).

Although democratic behavior does not cause or guarantee cohesion to occur, it is possible that using this strategy may help decrease discrepancy between coach and athlete perceptions and promote team cohesion. By allowing athletes to participate in decision making, athletes arguably will feel that they determine some of the leadership behaviors taking place within the team. Aiding in the determination of team outcomes may decrease athletes' perceptions that coaches are behaving differently than they perceive, reducing the gap between athlete and coach perceptions.

Not only is it important for perceptions of the coach's actual behavior and athletes' perception of their behavior to be congruent, it is also important that coaches fulfill athletes' expectations about how they should be behaving. This idea is termed "value congruence" and occurs when what athletes prefer the coach to do and what they perceive the coach to do match (cited in Shields et al., 1997). In Shields et al.'s (1997) study, value congruence predicted team cohesion less strongly than perceptual congruence, but was still a considerable factor to consider when predicting team cohesion. Based on these findings, when athletes believe that their coach is acting how they would like them to behave, they report higher levels of team cohesion. For example, if athletes prefer that their coach gives positive feedback and they believe that he or she does this, they tend to feel more strongly committed to the team's goals than when the coach goes against their preferences. If a coach gives negative feedback when this is not preferred, athletes may feel discouraged and less willing to persist in team goals, reducing team cohesion. Interestingly, although coaches must understand both perceptual and value congruence, based on this research, it is less important whether coaches do what their athletes want them to do (i.e. value congruence) than whether coaches and athletes have the same perceptions of how the coach is actually behaving (i.e. perceptual congruence) in order to foster cohesion. In other words, what athletes believe their coaches do is more important to consider than what

athletes believe they should do. However, it seems that having both high perceptual congruence and high value congruence would most strongly predict cohesion in teams.

Increasing value congruence is more challenging than increasing perceptual congruence. In order to increase value congruence coaches must understand athletes' expectations of their behaviors and act accordingly. The seemingly simple answer to increasing value congruence would be for coaches to directly ask their athletes about what behaviors they prefer from their coach. However, this presents a challenge for coaches because there is power distance between coaches and athletes. Coaches have reward power and coercive power in which they can give punishments and rewards to athletes. Therefore, their athletes may be unwilling to give their own coaches feedback or to admit behaviors that they prefer that their coach exhibits. Thus, coaches are challenged with creating an open environment for suggestions or may need to ask for feedback that is anonymous from their athletes to understand their athletes' expectations. Furthermore, coaches may not always agree with the expectations of their athletes. For example, athletes may prefer the coach to be calm and relaxed, but the coach may believe that being strict will push the athletes to improve their skills. Coaches must weigh costs and benefits of whether acting in line with athletes' expectations will push the team toward its goals more so than implementing behaviors that their athletes' may not prefer. Based on the research presented, going against athletes' preferences may reduce cohesion. However, because there are multiple avenues to promoting cohesion within teams, coaches can place less priority on creating value congruence and focus on other avenues when they believe it to be necessary to exhibit behaviors their athletes may not prefer.

Additionally, cohesion is fostered when athletes perceive compatibility in the coach athlete relationship. Jowett and Chaundy (2004) argue that the perception of the coach-athlete relationship influences team cohesion more than just coaches' actual leadership behaviors alone. Specifically, athletes' self and meta-perceptions must align for cohesion to be fostered. Self-perception is how people think about other people (cited in Jowett & Chaundy, 2004). For example, an athlete might have the self-perception, "I like my coach." The other type of perception, meta-perception, is a

person's interpretation of other's thoughts about him; for example, "My coach likes me." According to Jowett and Chaundy (2004), when self and meta- perceptions are aligned, "perceived similarity" exists. In their study of rugby, soccer, field hockey, lacrosse, and water polo teams, actual leadership behaviors such as training and instruction, positive feedback, and social support accounted for 26% of task cohesion, but when combined with relationship variables (i.e. perceived similarity), these accounted for 35% of task cohesion. These results indicate that athletes' perception of the relationship they have with their coach further fosters task cohesion than consideration of coach leadership behaviors alone.

Coaches may increase perceived similarity through demonstrating individualized consideration of their athletes. Having a close, positive relationship with athletes can push athletes' self and meta-perceptions to align. The individualized consideration dimension of transformational leadership has been related to task cohesion in sports teams (Smith, Arthur, Hardy, Callow, & Williams, 2013). Individualized consideration involves serving as a mentor to followers and listening closely to their concerns. Utilizing this approach allows athletes to develop positive beliefs about their coach. For example, coaches can demonstrate individualized consideration by offering to help athletes with personal concerns, listening carefully to their beliefs, and demonstrating willingness to help them improve and grow. This helps athletes develop positive meta perceptions such as, "My coach respects me," "My coach likes me," or "My coach thinks I am good." Furthermore, listening closely to the athlete may also help positively define athletes' self-perceptions. When coaches are committed to showing that they strongly care about their athletes' needs, athletes can develop positive self-perceptions abouttheir coach, such as "I respect my coach." The development of close relationships allows athletes to create positive perceptions of their coach and will increase perceived similarity to further promote cohesion within the group.

The ability to bring team members together in pursuit of a team's goals is a vital skill for coaches of athletic teams. Cohesion within teams promotes better outcomes such as boosts in athlete morale, satisfaction, willingness to take on challenges and risks, and commitment to goals. Although leadership behaviors such as instruction behaviors, democratic behaviors, and supportive behaviors predict boosts in team cohesion, it is paramount that leaders must not only consider how their leadership behaviors alone influence team cohesion, but also how they are perceived by their followers. Because athletes view leaders through the lens of their own perceptions, fostering cohesion requires leaders to consider how athletes perceive them and to make an effort to clarify discrepancies between perceived, preferred and actual leadership behaviors. Coaches can help reduce discrepancies in their athletes' perceptions of them by listening to and respecting athletes, allowing athletes to partake in team decisions, and by creating an open environment in which leaders accept feedback. Fostering perceptual-congruence, value congruence, and perceived similarity are important considerations for coaches when attempting to foster team cohesion within their team.

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HOW LEADERS CAN BUILD EFFECTIVE AND SUSTAINABLE VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATIONS

Joseph Fowler '17

Volunteer organizations have a significant impact in sectors as diverse as health, welfare, arts, the environment, and much more (Stirling, Kilpatrick & Orpin, 2011). The benefits of volunteering also extend inward, as there are positive effects regarding the well-being of those that participating (Vecina, Chacón, Marzana & Marta 2013). This paper shall limit its discussion of volunteers to those that work of their own freewill, are not compensated monetarily, and seek to benefit others (Piercy & Kramer, 2017).

There is an abundance of literature on building sustainable and effective for-profit organizations, however, in recent years, more attention has been devoted to the not-for-profit organization which consists primarily of volunteers. Although, much of the research done on for-profit organizations is applicable to the not-for-profit organization, there are fundamental differences between the two. The most obvious is that volunteers are not compensated monetarily. Additionally, volunteer organizations are in constant need of additional volunteers to both function and expand (Boezeman & Ellemers, n.d). The annual turnover rate is less than 4% for paid employees, while it is about 35% for volunteers (Piercy & Kramer, 2017). These fundamental differences illustrate a pressing issue for the leader of the volunteer organization. In the absence of monetary compensation, and with high turnover rates, how do volunteer organizations retain and acquire volunteers and still achieve their performance related goals?

The solution falls largely on the leaders of the volunteer organization. Leaders should create an organizational climate that fosters organizational commitment, engagement, and trust is mediated by the use of effective and appropriate communication.

Commitment

According to Romaioli, Nencini & Meneghini (2016), the fact that people join volunteer organizations based on altruistic motives will not ensure that they stay with those organizations for the long-term. Organizational commitment is a strong predictor of a person's intention to remain with an organization and is one of the strongest motivations for members of an organization to perform well, increase their efficiency, and expand their skills (Vecina et al., 2013; Bastug, Pala, Kumartasli, Günel & Duyan, 2016). There are three different types of commitment; affective, normative, and continuance (Bastug et al., 2016). Affective commitment constitutes a strong emotional identification with the organization through the belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values(Vecina et al., 2013). Affective commitment has been found to be the most predictive with regards to a member's intention to remain with the organization (Choi Sang, Lim Zhi & Tan Wee, 2016).

The communication practices of the leader are essential to generating commitment among volunteers. A volunteer's perception that an organization practices facilitative and interactive communication, invokes a feeling of 'wellness' which in turn creates greater commitment to the organization (Reed, Goolsby & Johnston, 2016). Leaders should also be intentional about identifying and articulating a uniting purpose or shared vision (Piercy & Kramer, 2017). The organizational values and goals should be consistently stated and portrayed in different ways. This will increase the likelihood of the volunteer's assimilation and identification with organizational values and goals. Leaders should be open and enthusiastic in their expressions of such values and goals. (Romaioli et al., 2016). Affective commitment can be achieved by aiding volunteers

Abstract

Volunteer organizations play an important role in society. While there are many similarities between for-profit organizations and not-for-profit organizations, not-for-profit organizations suffer from high turnover rates and lack the motivation of monetary compensation that for-profit organizations possess. Leaders face the challenge of retaining and acquiring new volunteers while also trying to keep organizational performance high. As commitment and engagement help mediate retention, acquisition and performance, leaders should create an organizational climate that promotes commitment and engagement.

in finding meaning in their work. One effective method is the use of memorable messages which communicate the impact volunteers have on those they serve and the impact that serving has on the growth of the volunteer. Leaders should use memorable messages when the work is less rewarding, including instances like that of filling out paperwork, or when the recipients of their volunteer work are ungrateful (Steimel 2013). According to Choi Sang et al. (2016), encouraging creativity and emphasizing the development of members helps build commitment.

Engagement

While commitment addresses the volunteer's feelings towards the organization as a whole, engagement is specific to the task being carried out. As defined by Vecina et al., (2013), engagement is a "positive, fulfilling, task-related state of mind characterized by "vigor" (energy, resilience, and a commitment to work hard), "dedication" (involvement, enthusiasm, pride, and challenge), and "absorption" (concentration and well-being during work)" (p. 292-293). Engagement predicts psychological well-being, or satisfaction, which improves the retention and performance of volunteers (Vecina et al., 2013; Alfes, Shantz & Bailey 2015). Engagement of volunteers is based on social capital such as training, development, and a sense of community. Social capital enhances performance by facilitating cooperation, contributing to personnel improvement, and increasing feelings of value among volunteers; which, aids in retention (Stirling et al., 2011). Leaders should be intentional about creating engagement among volunteers if they wish to build sustainable and effective volunteer organizations.

Engagement is produced from social capital in the form of task and emotional support. Task support consists of training, making available resources known, and guidance from leaders (Alfes et al., 2015). Volunteers will be more engaged if they feel they have all of the necessary information to carry out a duty. When people are not informed, they feel disconnected and less valued, thus decreasing their feeling of well-being within the organization (Stirling et al., 2011). Emotional support constitutes feedback and appreciation between volunteers, and staff (Alfes et al., 2015). Those who feel supported by their organization feel socially valued leading leads to greater engagement and performance (Alfes et al., 2015). Recognition and the perception that the organi-

zation cares about one's well-being enhances involvement and personal satisfaction, and leads to greater retention (Stirling et al., 2011; Garner & Garner, 2011).

Trust

Organizational trust is increases job satisfaction, productivity, and performance, while at the same time improving organizational commitment (Bastug et al., 2016). Legood, Thomas & Sacremento, defines organizational trust as "a psychological state comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the organization" (2016 p. 673). Through demonstration of trustworthy behavior, the leader plays an important role in building trust in the organization. Interpersonal trust is built by a leader in several ways: the leader's behavior should be consistently aligned with their words and deeds. The leader should showing care and concern for volunteersr well-being. Trust can be created by asking the input of volunteers in making decisions and delegating control (Legood, et al., 2016) and by encouraging them to voice their opinions (Garner & Garner, 2011). Fostering positive relationships through the leader's communication of appreciation and recognition of volunteers will help build a positive environment (Mikkelson, York & Arritola, 2015). Trust and relationship building should not only be vertical between the leader and the volunteers, but also horizontally between volunteers (Omilion-Hodges & Baker, 2017). Group activities and assignments in pairs are great ways to encourage horizontal relationships within the organization. Building trust in the organization creates a sustainable and effective volunteer organization. Without trust, the commitment, satisfaction, and performance of volunteers will falter, negatively impacting sustainability and effectiveness.

Acquisition

A majority of the recruiting for volunteers is by word of mouth (Stirling et al., 2011; Boezeman & Ellemers, n.d). Implicit in mouth recruitment is the current volunteer's emotional identification and satisfaction with the organization. When leaders build commitment, engagement, and trust they create volunteers that not only stay with the organization, but will very likely promote the organization to their social network. To ensure volunteers promote the organization, leaders should be intentional about encouraging and training volunteers to share their experience with others for the purpose of recruitment. Leaders should also utilize email, web pages, and social media in conjunction with word to mouth recruitment to promote the positive experience of the organization (Eimhjellen, n.d).

Conclusion

Organizational climate refers to the perspectives that members of an organization share regarding the organization's policies, practices, and procedures. A positive organizational climate is created through the building of quality relationships and the perception of effective leaders (Nencini, Romaioli & Meneghini, 2015). Perceptions of identification with the organizational goals and values, organizational consideration for the well-being and

success of members, organizational trust, and strong social relationships lead to volunteer commitment and engagement. These perceptions lead to greater satisfaction, performance, and intention to remain. The leader's role is to communicate these perceptions both verbally and behaviorally, which can be done through the use of meaningful messages, task and emotional support, demonstration of trustworthy behavior, facilitation of relationship building, promotion of internal communication, delegation of responsibilities, inclusion, and finally, encouragement of participation and volunteer expression. Leaders must be intentional about recruitment efforts, by promoting the practice of recruitment from those already involved in the organization as well as utilizing the internet. The volunteer satisfaction and intention to remain will help bolster the recruitment effort. Finally, as employee leaders are largely out-numbered by volunteers, the notion of creating autonomous and self-managing volunteers that align themselves with organizational goals would prove beneficial.

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Leadership Styles Appropriate for Applied Behavior Analysis

Nathaly Sanchez '17

"*According to Aristotle, what constitutes a good life is an objective matter*" (Furman and Tuminello, 2015). If this is true, then one could conclude that human success is not identical to states of gratification. Individuals find pleasure in all manners of diverse things. Many people wonder if it is possible for individuals who have autism to prosper. While some say that it is impossible, others believe that with the science and art of ABA it is possible for them to live respectable lives in the Aristotelian definition of a good life (Furman and Tuminello, 2015). For an individual with autism to blossom through the use of Applied Behavior Analysis, a good virtuous and situational leader is required to guide them through the process.

Autism is a growing disorder in the United States. 1 in 68 Americans suffer from autism according to the center for disease control and prevention (Proud et al., 2015). According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders V, individuals with autism suffer communication and social interaction deficit. Applied Behavior Analysis is a potential life-changing for people with autism. ABA is the practice of methodically applying interventions based upon the ideologies of learning theory to progress socially substantial behaviors to a significant degree, and to demonstrate that the interventions commissioned are responsible for the enhancement of behavior (Furman and Tuminello, 2015).
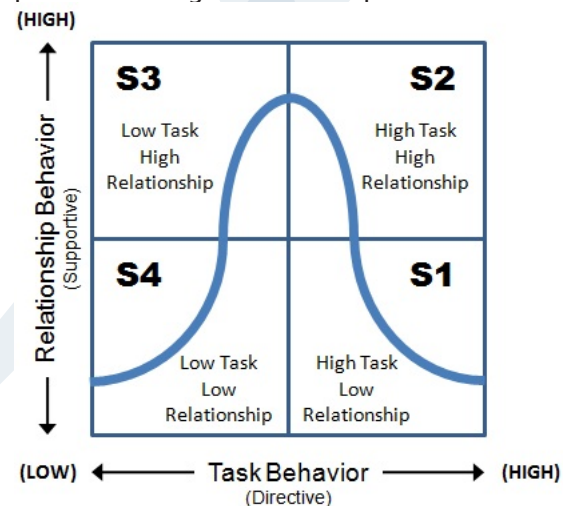
ABA is not a cure. However, it helps improve the lifestyle of individuals with autism. The analysts who work with individuals on the autism spectrum must understand that they hold a leadership position. They form a team with the analyst in the leadership role, and the learner in the follower role. As such, Applied Behavior Analysts should be situational leaders operating under three leadership styles. These three styles are team leadership, transactional leadership, and servant leadership.

Situational leadership focuses on followers' development. It is a suitable paradigm to apply when working with individuals with autism because situational leadership functions around two domains which are psychological growth and job advancement. It is the leader's job to balance these two domains in the most appropriate manner (Blank et al. 1990).

The theory of situational leadership is based on three frameworks; task behavior, relationship behavior, and readiness level. Task behavior is the part of situational leadership in which the leader directs subordinates. Relationship behavior is the point of situational leadership where the leader becomes involved in interpersonal communication. The leader's comportment in relationship behavior of situational leadership involves listening and commitment to the growth of the people (Bedford and Gehlert, 2013). Task and relationship are presented in a grid with four quadrants.

Reprinted from "Situational Leadership Theory: It's Just Common-Sense" *Behind the Corporate Veil*

Abstract

People with autism see the world a different way. They constantly need someone, to guide-them and lead them in the right direction. What type of leadership styles work best when working with a person who has autism? Most of the methods used are complex. The art and science of Applied Behavior Analysis is one of these sophisticated methods. In this essay, various leadership models and styles will be explored that can be used when working with individuals who have autism. The goal is to consider which leadership styles might work best when using Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA). This essay suggests that an understanding of leadership theories can be useful in the one-to-one interactions that are involved in Applied Behavior Analysis.

The horizontal axis represents task behavior, and the vertical axis represents relationship behavior. This 2x2 framework indicates four leadership styles. (Bedford and Gehlert, 2013) when working with a person who has autism, one should apply the S2 quadrant. This is the quadrant that is high on relationship and high on task. Applied behavior analysis involves team work between the student and the analyst. They are essentially working together to find what works best for the learner. The majority of the time, the work is done in a one-to-one pedagogical design. The therapist reinforces any behavior that is favorable for the student. Reinforcements are a central element of applied behavior analysis and helps preserve or strengthen appropriate response. In some cases, the analysts provide a tangible such as an edible, social praise, or a break from work termed as positive reinforcements (Leaf et al., 2015). Logically, positive reinforcements increase student's enthusiasm to work, which in turn demonstrates high readiness in the team leadership paradigm. The team member in the leadership perspective is one who is highly motivated, based on task and relationship. Reinforcements in ABA function as a tool, for the learner to remain focused. However, it also enhances relationships between the analysts and the student; they maintain a sense of task and relationship.

Transactional leadership works best in institutions that are not flexible to change; it is used to keep organizations in one path without changing trajectory (Biscontini, 2016). Applied behavior analysis is customized to each individual. Therefore, it is best to maintain a standard that does not change trajectory, similar to transactional leadership. Carefully constructed assessments and programs made by ABA specialists define what methods are best for the individual that suffers from autism. These developed guidelines become the protocols that must be followed by the analysts working with the individual. These ABA specialists also decide the types of reinforcements that the student are given. Behavior analysts follow parameters given to them by the ABA specialists; they work with the person with autism to successfully implement their carefully developed programed.

People with autism suffer from life illiteracy. Applied behavior analysts are devoted to developing the student's sensory parameters, socialization, and engagement in daily living skills. These individuals experience obstacles unique to autism spectrum disorder that prevents them from living a normal life (Boroson, 2016). Servant leadership synthesizes well with persons with autism. Servant leaders make sure that the subordinate needs are met, over the influences of personal gains and recognitions. These are the type of leaders which stimulate progress in a community (Wren, 1995). There are many features of a servant leader, and they include; Listening, empathy, healing, self-awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, commitment, and building a community (Mazzei, 2016). These features are highly important to ABA because individuals with autism need these qualities in their educators. Students with autism suffer from life illiteracy. Using a servant leadership approach aids the ABA analysts in being an empathetic leader who is critical when working with people on the autism spectrum.

There is a sense of mental well-being that comes when dealing with a servant leader because subordinates feel secure, can communicate, and express themselves freely (Chughtai, 2016). For an applied behavior analyst the pupil is the primary focus, the task cannot be completed if the student is not in a good mental, physical, or emotional state. Servant leadership impact mental well-being and ensures security. It is probable that the servant leadership style will be soothing to the student with autism. A person who suffers daily should be in a learning environment that cultivates tranquility and encouragement which a servant leader provides.

ABA analysts, in particular, should adopt the servant leadership style; they should be concerned with inspiring and freeing the minds of their students. All students need a support system, but the teachers have to be genuine in their actions. In servant teaching, teachers make student advancements the top priority. Servant teaching helps build confidence in the classroom, and therefore it makes it easier for the student to cope with difficulties. (Noland and Keith, 2015).

Situational leaders who focus on servant leadership, team leadership, and transactional leadership will have a unique blend of leadership styles that can be highly useful when using applied behavior analysis to teach individuals that have autism. The applied behavior analysts must understand that they are leaders. For a person with autism to learn and grow through the use of applied behavioral analysis, a situational leader who can successfully integrate these three leadership styles is best suited to guide them.

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A Group Success Formula and How Leadership Can Affect It

Lana West '17

Theodore Roosevelt's "Citizenship In a Republic: The Man In the Arena" noted: "It behooves us to do our best to see that the standard of the average citizen is kept high; and the average cannot be kept high unless the standard of the leaders is very much higher." The purpose of his speech was to spread his belief that the success of a nation relies on its people, and their individual progress and work. Additionally, he wanted to spread his belief that the nation is only as strong as its average citizens.

One theory claims that 49% of all groups, nearly half, perform at the average level. 27% of all groups perform at the below average level, while only 24% of all groups are above average" (Johnson, 1982). Based on these results, our standards of success appear to be slipping. When did we become satisfied with average? It is clear a new model must emerge for leaders, one that shows what groups are succeeding, what groups are not, and where we should put our focus. Many resources go to top-tier groups, to help them continue success. Similarly, numerous resources are geared toward the bottom 2% of groups to catch them up. However, we need to put more energy and focus on the "average" group – that 49%. My Group Success Formula has combined the Tribal Leadership Theory, Group Development Theory, and Level of Aspiration Theory to differentiate what groups are destined to succeed, what groups are less likely to succeed, and which groups are perpetually distinguished as "average."

The Tribal Leadership Theory is the result of Dave Logan, John King, and Halee Fischer-Wright's research study on organizations. They were able to conclude that all organizations are made up of groups. According to David and Frank Johnson, a group is "two or more individuals in face-to-face interaction, each aware of the others who belong to the group, and each aware of positive interdependence as they strive to achieve mutual goals" (Johnson, 1982, p 548). The team was also able to conclude that the attitudes of organizational groups have

Abstract

A new model for success is required to move organizations to higher levels of performance. The essay proposes a "Group Success Formula" which combines the Tribal Leadership Theory, Group Development Theory, and Level of Aspiration Theory. The goal is to differentiate what groups are destined to succeed, what groups are less likely to succeed, and which groups are perpetually distinguished as "average." The objective is for leaders to identify what is required for any group to succeed.

the power to influence the productivity, and therefore the profitability, of an organization. Logan divided these groups into five stages – Stage Five being the highest performing, and Stage One being the lowest performing [Table 1]. According to Logan, 2% of all groups are Stage One groups, 25% are Stage Two, 49% Stage Three, 22% Stage Four, and 2% Stage Five. "

Stage	Mood	Theme
5	Innocent Wonderment	Life is great
4	Tribal Pride	We're great (and they're not)
3	Lone Warrior	I'm great (and you're not)
2	Apathetic Victim	My life sucks
1	Desparing Hostility	Life sucks

Table 1: Tribal Leadership Theory chart (Logan, 14).

Educational psychologist and researcher Dr. Bruce W. Tuckman," created the Group Development Theory (Bonebright, 2010, p 112). "The central premise of the theory of group development is that, to be most effective, small groups must progress through a series of developmental stages—forming, storming, norming, performing, and ultimately adjourning. Relatedly, the theory's purpose is to inform how groups conceive of and interact during the various stages of group life," (Tuckman, 2013, p 318) [Figure 1].

Figure 1. Tuckman & Jenson (1997) revisedmodel of small group development

The five stages can be further described as followes (George Mason University http://med.fsu.edu/uploads/files/FacultyDevelopment_GroupDevelopment.pdf)

1. Forming: Stage where personal relations are characterized by dependence. Rules of behavior seem to be to keep things simple and to avoid controversy. Serious topics are avoided, and major task functions also concern orientation.

2. Storming: Stage characterized by competition & conflict in the personal-relations dimension. Because of the discomfort generated during this stage, some members may remain completely silent while others attempt to dominate.

The Level of Aspiration Theory states that all groups enter any given situation with a specific goal in mind, but readjust their ideal goals to realistic expectations after results are concluded. Generally, groups adjust their goals upward after success, and downwards after failure when they gain experience. "Groups tend to lower their level of aspiration somewhat less after failure than they raise it after success," (Johnson, 1982, p 79). However, continuously lowering a group's level of aspiration will have a noticeable effect on the group's dynamic and ability to produce quality work.

In order to combine these three distinct theories into one, some adjustments must be made. Logan claims that 49% of work groups are Stage Three, which is difficult to wrap your head around considering the tremendous size of that group. Stage Three is the largest group in the theory. If 100 groups were analyzed, it is unlikely that 49 of them would fit exactly in the parameter of "Lone Warrior – I'm great (and you're not)." This large number must be divided into two groups. The new group will act as a stepping-stone between Stage Three (I'm great and you're not) and Stage Four, (We're great and they're not).

Stage	Mood	Theme
6	Innocent Wonderment	"Life is Great"
5	Tribal Pride	"We're great (and they're not)"
4	Humble Acceptance	"They're great (and we're average)"
3	Lone Warrior	"I'm great (and you're not)"
2	Apathetic Victim	"My life sucks"
1	Despairing Hostility	"Life Sucks"

The new model's Stage Four group embodies humble acceptance. They are the group that is overwhelmed by success around them, and is satisfied with taking second place. This group views success as being in the same room as the top runners. They view others as great, but themselves as average. Their goal is to continue growing, in hopes of getting to that top spot. However, it is important to note that they are aware of their shortcomings [Table 2].

The next theory that needs tweaking is the Group Development Theory. A paper posted at at George Mason University (see Reference #6) states: "In order to move from storming to norming, group members must move from a 'testing and proving' mentality to a 'problem-solving' mentality." This is where Tuckman's theory is missing a fundamental step. The theory's creator admitted to "several limitations to his model of group development," (Bonebright, 2010, p 115). Most groups do not go from a testing and proving mentality straight to a problem solving mentality. Instead, they tend to go from a 'testing and proving' mentality to a 'use what we have learned and play it safe' mentality, then on to a 'problem solving' mentality. Functioning is the link between those mindsets. What I propose as an additional stage in Tuckman's Group Develop-

ment Theory. By combining these two adjusted theories with the standing Level of Aspiration theory, we can determine how successful any group will be before they begin working without the influence of leadership. This new theory proposed is what I call the Group Success Formula (see figure 2 below).
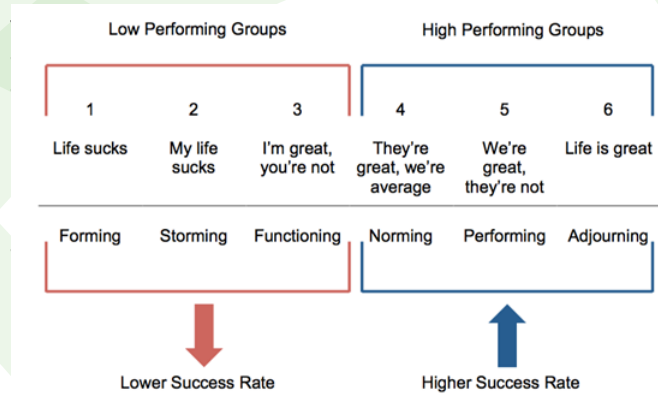

Figure 2 : Group Success Formula

As Tuckman noted, groups must progress through each stage in order to move from one to the next. For example, a group cannot move from Forming to Norming, they must complete the Storming (and Functioning) stages in order to reach Norming. Groups that stay within the Forming – Functioning range do not complete high-level tasks.

It is a common misconception that groups only begin any form of work when they finally reach the performing stage. Realistically, groups are able to be somewhat productive throughout each stage of the Group Development Theory. Some minimal level of work can be completed in the Forming stage, which is similar to the work seen coming out of ISIS and gangs, as stated in Logan's *Tribal leadership: Leveraging natural groups to build a thriving organization*. Or, as Logan stated, tribes with "*Despairing Hostility*," also known as Stage One groups (Logan, 2008, p 14).

The theories merge together in a particular way. Each Tribal Leadership group is paired with the appropriate Group Development Theory stage. They are paired in this way to show how far along each group got in Tuckman's theory, which can be used to see what level of work that particular type of group will produce. A group is only able to produce high-level work after completing Stages One through Three of the Group Success Formula. Low Performing Groups are likely to experience more dysfunction and failure than High Performing Groups, and will therefore continue revising their goals downward more frequently than upwards, according to the Level of Aspiration Theory. This is represented in the red downward arrow. In contrast, High Performing Groups

are more likely to have a sense of group cohesion because they were able to navigate through the first three stages of Tuckman's theory, and will experience higher success rates and continue revising their goals upwards, represented by the blue upward arrow. These groups are generally more self-sufficient than Low Performing Groups, and will need less leadership than Low Performing Groups in order to achieve success.

For example, an examination of Rutgers University will yield insight into this institution's development process, and the necessary leadership skills needed to guide them in order to guide them toward becoming a Stage Five group. Rutgers is stuck as a Stage 3, Functioning Group. The school sees itself as great, and others as inferior. This creates problems when it is trying to modernize, because the leaders at Rutgers do not see need for change. Rutgers' College Avenue and Student Activities Centers Assistant Director Elizabeth Desimone admitted the student centers at Rutgers are extremely focused on keeping the alumnae happy, and are not as focused on keeping the students as happy as they should be. "It's called a Student Center for a reason," Desimone stated in an interview. "It's supposed to be for the students. We need to have the students come first, and then the faculty and alumni." Clearly at its current state, Rutgers seems to be satisfied with being "average," or "second place," as described in the Functioning stage. If Rutgers is going to move from a Low Performing Group to a High Performing Group, changes must be made. Rutgers has been grouped with other "average" universities, so it is not getting the resources it needs to make it to the next step. Rutgers is not Harvard or Princeton, but it is also not an underfunded community college. Like many other middle of the road organizations, Rutgers has found itself pushed to the sidelines. The Group Success Formula makes it clear what steps are needed to propel Rutgers to the next level (enhanced support and improved modes of operation).

By modernizing Logan's Tribal Leadership Theory and Tuckman's Group Development Theory, then molding them with the Level of Aspiration Theory, The Group Success Formula will help the "average" group or organization become recognized. This concept will help leaders identify how far a particular group is able to get without the influence of leadership in the Group Development Theory, and if it is a High Performing Group or a Low Performing Group. Additionally, this model will help leaders clearly see where their leadership will be most valuable, and give them a strong concept of which style of leadership will be most successful for each individual group. This formula is a starting point for how leaders should think about leadership, and create a new conversation of how it can be applied.

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