

***Exploring the Impact of Personality Awareness and Personality-based Influencing
Preferences on the Perceived Influence Capacity of New Leaders in Higher Education
Community-engaged Scholarship***

Cris Loraine Thompson

Dissertation submitted to the faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State
University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
In
Agricultural and Extension Education

Rick D. Rudd, Chair
Susan E. Short
Hannah M. Sunderman
Diane M. Doberneck

December 6, 2024
Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: community engagement, leadership, higher education, professional
development, personality, MBTI, coaching, goal setting

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores the leadership development needs of new administrators engaged in community-engaged scholarship (CES) within higher education institutions. As these individuals transition from entrepreneurial, autonomous roles to formal administrative positions, they often lack essential competencies in areas such as project coordination, conflict resolution, interdisciplinary collaboration, and managing university-community partnerships. Addressing this competency gap is critical to enhancing their effectiveness as leaders who can bridge institutional and community interests.

The study investigates the potential for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to enhance perceived influence and leadership effectiveness among emerging CES leaders. A professional development program was implemented, incorporating MBTI assessments, specialized workshops, and individualized coaching aimed at strengthening influence-building strategies.

Results indicate that increased self-awareness of personality traits, particularly among extroverted participants, was linked to enhanced perceived influence competencies. However, introverted participants did not consistently report lower influence capacity. The integration of personality assessments, developmental workshops, and coaching significantly improved participants' self-efficacy, critical thinking, and application of influence strategies in practice. Notably, coaching was perceived as a key factor in translating theoretical insights into actionable leadership behaviors, resulting in improved job satisfaction and performance.

These findings highlight the importance of personality-based professional development in strengthening leadership capacities for CES roles. By fostering self-awareness and adaptive influence strategies, higher education institutions can better equip new leaders to serve as effective agents of community change and institutional collaborators, thereby enhancing university-community partnerships and advancing social equity initiatives.

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GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the leadership needs of new administrators involved in community-engaged scholarship (CES) at higher education institutions. As these individuals transition from independent, entrepreneurial roles to formal leadership positions, they often lack key skills in areas such as project management, conflict resolution, collaboration across disciplines, and managing partnerships between universities and communities. Addressing these skill gaps is essential for helping them become effective leaders who can connect the goals of both the university and the community.

The study also looks at how understanding one's personality type, particularly through the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), can improve leadership skills and influence. A professional development program was created that included personality assessments, focused workshops, and personalized coaching to help participants develop strategies for building influence.

The results showed that increased self-awareness, especially for those with extroverted personality traits, was linked to greater leadership effectiveness. However, introverted participants did not necessarily report lower levels of influence. The combination of personality assessments, workshops, and coaching helped participants improve their confidence, problem-solving abilities, and application of influence strategies. Coaching, in particular, was seen as key in turning these insights into practical leadership actions, leading to better job satisfaction and performance.

Overall, the findings emphasize the value of personality-based professional development for CES leaders. By helping new leaders understand their strengths and adapt their strategies, higher education institutions can better prepare them to build stronger university-community partnerships and promote social change.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My journey has been both long and unexpected, beginning on the factory line in small-town Appalachia and culminating in my achievements as a first-generation college graduate and now, a first-generation doctoral graduate. This accomplishment would not have been possible without the unwavering love, support, and encouragement from a network of family, friends, and professionals who collectively formed a safety net comprised of insight, intellect, and wisdom which guided me to a goal I once thought unattainable.

First and foremost, I express my deepest gratitude to God the Father and my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ for everlasting life.

I would also like to thank my husband, Neal. His support has been invaluable - whether it was encouraging me to leave a stable career to pursue my doctoral dreams or sitting quietly beside me during challenging evenings of quantitative homework. Neal's unwavering belief in my abilities and his pride in my accomplishments have been a constant source of motivation. This doctoral degree is not solely mine, but his as well; it represents a shared effort, reflecting his equal contributions and sacrifices that enabled me to complete this journey.

I am profoundly grateful to my daughter Avery. The knowledge that neither she nor her future children will have to face the challenges of being a first-generation college graduate or experience the socioeconomic struggles of our Appalachian region inspires me to persist and strive for success. My greatest joy lies in knowing that she will view higher education as an expectation rather than an exception.

I would also like to extend my heartfelt thanks to my committee members—Drs. Rick Rudd, Susan Short and the Virginia Tech Office of Outreach and International Affairs, Hannah Sunderman, and Diane Doberneck. Their belief in my potential and their commitment to my development as a scholar have challenged me to think critically about my contributions to leadership and community engagement. Their insights and guidance extend far beyond the chapters of my dissertation, and I am truly grateful for their mentorship.

Lastly, I want to acknowledge my close circle of friends, mentors, and colleagues—Heather Smith, Dannette Beane, Janice Austin, Elizabeth Grabau, and Boris Vinatzer—whose encouragement and support have been instrumental throughout this academic journey. Their unwavering personal and professional support is greatly appreciated.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

Introduction / Background

The face of higher education's community-engaged scholarship (CES) is changing – rapidly. As CES professionals, we are painfully sandwiched between upholding the charges set by leaders such as Morrill (Morrill Act, n.d.) which legislatively established land-grant universities – the first higher education institutions which pioneered knowledge sharing through community-based training programs within rural and minority communities (Sorber, 2018; Knoblauch et al., 1962; Knapp, 2003; Mercier & Halbrook, 2020; Cross, 1999) and Boyer's (1990) profound manifesto aimed at academics to stand as knowledge servants to the public and change-agent navigators of the focus-distracting privatization and commercialization of higher education (Oliff et al., 2013). Adding to the complexity is the culture shift in CES with expectations of all universities to step out of the "ivory tower" to create space for more democratic learning and research and be more collaboratively immersed within their communities (Longo & Gibson, 2016). These emerging challenges, reflective of the evolution of higher education's community-engaged scholarship, call for an emergence of novel solutions.

Although a new field, outreach and engagement leaders and scholars recognize the importance of professionalizing community-engaged scholars across all levels of outreach and engagement (DeGraaf & Hirt, 2015; Dostilio, 2017; McDonnell et al., 2023). To establish the groundwork for the professionalization of community engagement, scholars continue to evolve the models of core CES competencies (Atilas,

2019; Blanchard et al., 2009; Dostilio, 2017; McNall et al., in press; Suvedi & Ghimire, 2015). Just as these competencies evolved through critiques and commentaries, so must the strategies with which we provide meaningful and sustainable professional development efforts.

Problem Statement

The central problem of the study was the lack of knowledge surrounding the capacity of new higher education outreach professionals to influence others to act. The evolving landscape of higher education's community-engaged scholarship (CES) increasingly demands that universities move beyond the traditional "ivory tower" model to foster democratic, community-centered learning. However, institutions face significant challenges in developing the leadership skills necessary for community engagement. Often, new leaders in outreach and engagement roles are thrust into administrative positions without sufficient preparation for the complexities of their roles. These leaders must effectively navigate both internal university dynamics and external partnerships, yet they frequently lack the skills necessary to manage conflict, build relationships, and foster collaborative efforts.

The literature suggests understanding the relationship between knowing one's personality type and influencing preferences and the development and use of a professional development plan to enhance the leadership effectiveness and capacity of higher education outreach/engagement administrators. Faculty as researchers and professors tend to work independently and entrepreneurially to advance their research and teaching careers. However, when established faculty advance into administrative leadership roles, with duties often comprised of supervising and directing others, these

new leaders are often unprepared and lack the skills to influence others successfully. These new leaders are often promoted into administrative roles in response to their research achievements instead of their management experience or skills (Bryman, 2007; Coates et al., 2008; Floyd & Dimmock, 2011; Parrish, 2013; Yelder & Codling, 2004).

Study Significance

Parrish (2013) contends that the ability to positively influence, inspire, and guide others in higher education administration are essential skills to mobilize subordinates, colleagues, and executive leadership to support and contribute to the development and execution of unit-level expectations and goals (Bolden et al., 2009; Branson et al., 2016; Degn, 2015; Preston & Price, 2012; Whitchurch & Gordon, 2017). Influence is significant for new outreach administrators tasked to build a “critical mass” of community engagement partners and pedagogical faculty within the university (Butin et al., 2005; Dostilio, 2017; Engstrom, 2003; Furco, 1999; Gibson, 2012; Jacoby & Mutascio, 2010; Pigza & Troppe, 2003; Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013a, 2013b).

Secondly, new outreach/engagement administrators are not only tasked with navigating their influential expertise within the academy but must also externally develop and maintain positive partnerships with outside stakeholders and communities (Dostilio, 2017). These new administrators may also be responsible for cultivating and securing external funding streams, which include persuading alumni and other external partners to support community engagement endeavors financially (Weerts, 2007). Beyond local borders, it is not uncommon for outreach/engagement unit directors to be charged with shaping university consortia, promoting international research partnerships, and

expanding the institutional footprint via extended and international campuses (Pryor & Henley, 2018).

Creating such local, regional, and international partnerships requires leaders who can eliminate internal and external barriers to create conditions that advance engagement and participation (Baaken et al., 2021; Zare & Khorasgani, 2022). Such collaborative efforts necessitate a leader who can simultaneously promote change while building trusting relationships between the university and diverse partners (Chupp et al., 2021). However, being unable to navigate different cultures and values persuasively can impede university and outside collaborations (Kaufman, 2013). Kaufman (2013) cautions university leaders of the potential roadblocks when trying to partner with community groups, such as pre-existing conflicts and rivalry between community organizations, prestigiousness, and resource commitment. New administrators who are under-skilled in persuasive interpersonal engagement will face obstacles extending beyond campus boundaries.

Lastly, in the increasingly globalized, competitive job market, developing and retaining skilled leaders in outreach/engagement is critical to meeting strategic goals and advancing a university's mission. Stress and job dissatisfaction are often mitigating factors for administrators who choose to leave their positions (Gmelch & Burns, 1994; Sarros et al., 1999). Morris and Laipple (2015) argue that insufficient professional development opportunities for new leaders contribute to burnout and departure or low productivity for those who remain in their positions. Intrinsically, many leaders choose not to share their professional vulnerabilities with colleagues or their supervisors because

they may be viewed as weaknesses (Morris & Laipple, 2015). Meanwhile, repressing the need for professional support contributes to job stress (Morris & Laipple, 2015).

Additionally, research shows a direct relationship between job stress and job satisfaction (Kurniawati, 2020; Unger-Aviram et al., 2018). For new administrators, the learning curve to influence change and lead diverse internal and external groups toward achieving time-sensitive goals and expectations is very small. This challenge is exacerbated when they take on new responsibilities without mentorship or relevant professional development. Instead of strategic professional development, they are expected to acquire these interpersonal skills via on-the-job trial and error (Coates et al., 2008; Fielden, 2009). Therefore, it is no surprise that many underdeveloped academic administrators report negative well-being in their administrative jobs due to high stress, jobs satisfaction, and ineffectiveness (Gmelch & Burns, 1994; Wolverson, Gmelco, Wolverson & Sarro, 1999). Administrators without access to leadership development can also negatively impact subordinates by reducing overall morale resulting from their incompetency (Morris & Laipple, 2015).

Purpose

This study focused on bridging the gap in leadership capabilities among new CES administrators by exploring how an understanding of personality traits—specifically with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)—can enhance their influence and leadership effectiveness. The research aimed to develop a professional development model that includes personality assessments, workshops, and coaching to enhance social influence competencies among higher education leaders in community engagement.

Objectives / Research Questions

The objectives of this study are outlined below:

1. Benchmark the initial social influence competencies of new community engagement administrators before any targeted intervention.
2. Assess the impact of MBTI-based training on enhancing these competencies by increasing self-awareness and adaptability.
3. Evaluate the effectiveness of a comprehensive professional development program, combining personality assessments, workshops, and coaching, on the leadership capacity of these administrators.

The research questions for this study are:

- RQ1: What is the perceived social influencing competency of new community engagement leaders?
- RQ2: Is there an association between the knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences and perceived competency to influence others.
- RQ3: How does the MBTI personality assessment, combined with a professional development program comprised of a workshop, professional development plan, and individualized coaching consultations impact the perceived competency in influencing others?

Assumptions

Based upon the participant selection criteria, the researcher assumed that all participants were current higher education community engagement professionals who had

assumed a managerial or director level role within the last 5 years. It was also assumed that the professionals had little to no past professional development experience using personality-based tools to enhance their social influence capacity.

Limitations

As outlined below, the logistical and methodological limitations of this study prohibit broadscale inferences. However, results suggest an opportunity for further exploration in individualized, contextualized, and purposeful personality-based leadership professional development in higher education community-engaged scholarship.

1. Number of participants: Funding limitations, qualified participant availability, and participant attrition limited the diversity and depth of qualitative feedback from participants. Despite this, noticeable themes were identified and aligned with the expected outcomes of this study. Quantitatively, the participant count is not significant enough to statistically confirm behavioral changes resulting from this study.
2. Participant diversity: The study participants were all male and female Caucasian U.S. Citizens. As such, cultural and racial diversity was not considered part of the study.
3. Limitation of time: The participant's and researcher's time availability limited the program's capacity for progressive coaching sessions to advance capacity and self-efficacy or additional workshops to support team development and influence competency. Time constraints did not allow for measurement of the long-term impact of retention and applied program knowledge.

4. Evaluative competency assessment: The evaluative post-workshop surveys were conducted immediately following the workshop and did not consider the holistic impact of the program's coaching and goal setting. As such, the post-workshop survey may not have allowed sufficient time to self-assess behavioral change but only present knowledge-based self-understanding.
5. Institutional diversity: All participants in the study were employed by a land-grant university. Therefore, perspectives on the definition and importance of influence may have exhibited greater variance if the cohort represented a greater variety of institutions (i.e. community colleges, urban commuter colleges, rural liberal arts colleges).

Definitions

Community-engaged Scholarship: An approach to scholarship that creates mutual benefits for both the academic and public communities, emphasizing collaborative knowledge creation with community partners (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, n.d.).

New community engagement leaders: Community engagement professionals who have been in higher education community engagement managerial leadership roles for five years or less.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): A psychological assessment tool grounded in Carl Jung's theory of personality types. It is used to identify individual preferences in how people perceive information and make decisions (Myers, I.B. & Briggs, P.B., 1998). The MBTI categorizes individuals into 16 distinct personality types based on four pairs of contrasting preferences (Myers, I.B. & Briggs, P. B., 1998):

- **Extraversion (E) vs. introversion (I):** Preference for focusing on the external world versus the internal world of thoughts and ideas.
- **Sensing (S) vs. intuition (N):** Preference for concrete, factual information versus abstract concepts and possibilities.
- **Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F):** Decision-making based on logic and objectivity versus personal value and emotions.
- **Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P):** Preference for how people prefer to organize and structure their world.

Personality traits: Stable, instinctive patterns of thoughts, emotions, and actions that define how individuals typically react to different circumstances (Roberts, 2009).

Professional development coaching: A relationship focused on professional growth, has been found to increase self-awareness, apply new strategies, and increase self-efficacy (Moen & Allgood, 2009).

Scaffolding: An instructional technique in which learning occurs through applied activities beyond their current skill level (Bruning et al., 1995).

Methodology

The study employed a mixed-methods approach, integrating quantitative assessments with qualitative insights to evaluate participant's influence competencies before and after the professional development program. The program included an MBTI assessment, influence-focused workshops, and individualized coaching sessions tailored to each participant's personality type and leadership context.

Key Findings

- **Personality Insight and Influence Competency:** Understanding one's personality type was positively associated with improved influence skills, especially among those with extroverted tendencies. However, the development of influence capabilities was not solely dependent on personality type, as introverted individuals also reported gains in influence when provided with targeted coaching.
- **Comprehensive Professional Development:** A combination of MBTI assessments, workshops, and coaching significantly enhanced participants' self-awareness, critical thinking, and self-efficacy. This, in turn, improved their ability to engage effectively with both university colleagues and community stakeholders.
- **Coaching and Reflective Practice:** Personalized coaching emerged as a critical tool in helping new leaders apply learned strategies in real-world contexts, leading to sustained behavioral change and goal achievement. Participants reported that

coaching sessions provided them with the confidence and practical skills needed to navigate complex relationships and influence outcomes effectively.

Implications

1. **Professionalizing Community Engagement Leadership:** This research highlights the need for structured professional development programs in higher education to support new CES leaders. By focusing on influence and relationship-building, institutions can better prepare administrators for the challenges of community engagement.
2. **Impact of Personality-Based Training:** The findings emphasize the value of personality assessments like MBTI in helping leaders understand their influence preferences and adapt their strategies accordingly. This understanding fosters better collaboration, conflict resolution, and rapport-building in diverse settings.
3. **Reducing Job Stress and Increasing Satisfaction:** The study revealed that enhancing social influence competencies can alleviate the stress and job dissatisfaction commonly reported by CES leaders. By fostering a sense of self-efficacy and providing practical tools for influence, institutions can improve the overall job satisfaction and retention of these administrators.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As a new and emerging field, community-engaged scholarship has a brief, but rich history. This chapter will explore the historical factors and significant milestones that have evolved into the CES scholarship we have today. This chapter will also focus on the study's conceptual contexts of leadership in community-engaged scholarship, influence in leadership, and personality-based coaching. The chapter concludes with an overview of the theoretical frameworks guiding this study: self-determination - goal setting and social learning – self efficacy.

Historical Context of Community-Engaged Scholarship

1850-1900's: In the Beginning

Founded upon agricultural and industrial productivity, the American colleges of the American Colonies established in the 17th and 18th centuries produced only distinguished scholars - lawyers, doctors, and theologians (Abramson et al., 2014). Such an emerging elite class of intellectuals could not prepare this young nation for the growing pains that lie ahead such as the 1837-38 poor land management induced crop collapse and resulting in multi-million-dollar food imports (Abramson et al., 2014). Recognizing the demand for practical knowledge for the masses, New England agricultural societies attempted to organize area private schools to train students in agricultural labor through learning by on-site farming (Abramson et al., 2014).

The precarious state of U.S. agriculture soon reached Capitol Hill with Congressmen worrying that the unbounded pillaging of natural resources could be the linchpin to America's demise because of U.S. Commissioner of Patents push for Congress to make agricultural education a national fiscal priority (Abramson et al.,

2014). It was at this time that Vermont Congressman Justin Morrill joined the call for change. Despite being an industry supporting capitalistic conservative, he was a fierce proponent for an educated populous and is most known as the securing force in the passage of the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862 (Cross, 1999; Sorber, 2018). 30,000 acres of federal land from each state was sold for the construction of at least one college to provide instruction on military strategies, agriculture and the mechanical arts, and other relevant disciplines “in order to promote the liberal and professional education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life” (Morrill Act, 1862; Morrill Act, n.d.).

However, in the late 1870s rural midwestern farmers and communities in the grips of economic decline became increasingly angered at the corrupt Washington D.C. political class and urban tycoon’s monopolizing mining, industry, and transportation – placing insurmountable economic chokeholds on rurality’s dependent on these resources (Sorber, 2018). This urban-rural economic imbalance resulted in a Texas-organized Farmers’ Alliance to battle the railroads, bankers, and similar wealthy elite who were stripping them of their economic liberties (Sorber, 2018). By the 1880’s, The Farmers’ Alliance had nationally aligned with other like-minded groups to fight the tyranny of the tycoons through their power at the polls (Sorber, 2018).

The farming-class fury against the industrial and political elite continued to burn hot and ignited a battle within higher education amidst the view that colleges, even after the Morrill Act, were still high-class halls of higher learning focused solely on impractical knowledge within the rural populous (Sorber, 2018). Their frustration led the Farmers’ Alliance and partners to demand more support for farming communities

through opportunities for applied agricultural education. Politicians soon bended to their demands, establishing the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts (now NCSU) which offered easier access to practical training and coursework (Sorber, 2018).

The South and Western U.S. were not the only one's concerned with the performance of land grant institutions. New England civic leaders believed that land-grant curricula were driving students from their rural towns to white-collar careers in business, industry, and government, resulting in the demand that land-grant schools empower and educate rural youth to return home become farming and community leaders (Sorber, 2018). Attempting to stifle this new firestorm, state legislatures revoked Morrill Act designations from Brown University, Dartmouth College, and Yale University's Sheffield Scientific School to redirect the funds toward new vocation-focused colleges (Sorber, 2018).

Hearing these concerns of insufficient agriculture education, twelve land-grant institutions convened in Chicago in 1871 on the future of United States agricultural experiment stations (Knoblauch et al., 1962). Then, shortly after in 1875, California and Connecticut pioneered state supported agricultural experiment stations with other states to follow (United States Department of Agriculture, 1987). Agriculture education innovation continued into the late 1800's with the emergence of agricultural societies disseminating farming knowledge to rural communities through exhibits, county fairs, and presentations (Sorber, 2018). However, between the societies and new experiment stations, the only disciplinary sciences being shared with community were agricultural chemistry and botany (Danbom, 1986). At a time when effective land practices were dire,

such impractical agriculture programs were not sufficient to satisfy the urgent needs of an agrarian America.

Meeting these needs and the societal expectations of a more professionalized network of agriculture experts, the Hatch Act of 1887 was passed ensuring that land-grant institutions had equally credentialed experts at the local level to serve and address the needs of their communities (Danbom, 1986). Initially authored in the early 1880's by Iowa State College's professor Mr. Seaman Knapp and proposed by Iowa Republican Representative Cyrus Carpenter, the 1882 bill recommended \$15,000 in annual funds for salaries and facility operating costs with building and land costs covered by land-grant colleges (Knapp, 2003; Mercier & Halbrook, 2020). The bi-partisan legislation eventually captured the interest of Missouri Democrat Representative William Hatch and chairman of the House Agricultural Committee to accept the bill as its lead sponsor, later signed by President Grover Cleveland in 1887 (Mercier & Halbrook, 2020).

In the following years, agriculture stations were conflicted to find a balance between farmer-demanded practical knowledge and new discoveries. Upon his departure from academia and just before the passage of the Hatch Act of 1887, Professor Knapp moved to Louisiana to develop and sell swamp area land to farmers, teaching them best practices to use the land for rice cultivation and sales. Although his early years of land marketing was only to white farmers, Knapp later partnered with Dr. George Washington Carver, plant scientist at Tuskegee Institute (today Tuskegee University) to implement a similar program among Black farmers (Knapp, 2003).

The Knapp-Carver farming plan did not come a moment too soon. With the Emancipation Proclamation signed by President Abraham Lincoln in 1862, the enslaved

people freed by his signature were now parents to a freed generation of young Blacks who aspired to achieve the American dream. Understanding that an educated Black populous is a successful and thriving populous, Dr. Booker T. Washington, first president of Tuskegee Institute, took charge to secure practical vocational education for southern Blacks (Lee A Craig, 1992).

However, Dr. Washington's vision was not without criticism. Dr. W.E.B. Du Bois, leading Black intellectual of the late 19th century, he believed that vocational education would subject Blacks to "industrial slavery and civic death" (Browning & Williams, 1978; N.A.A.C.P., n.d.). Dr. Du Bois's belief was that a classic liberal arts education would create a class of Black intellectual elites who could lead the charge of advancing civil rights and social equality of Blacks (Lee A Craig, 1992). Yet, despite these philosophical differences the national demand for trained blacks in both farming and industry proved to be a stronger force than the Jim Crow Southern states banning blacks from land-grant enrollment (Christy & Williamson, 1992; Kelsey & Hearne, 1955).

While the 1862 Morrill Act created a small cadre of Black land-grants (Alcorn State University and Hampton University), support for Black land-grants was grossly underfunded (Cross, 1999). States with large numbers of Blacks refused to release land-grant funds to support Black schools and land-grants which offered Black enrollment were rampant with discrimination and segregation (Cross, 1999). Therefore, many Blacks choosing to attend southern Black schools to earn their undergraduate education found they were not college-ready due to dire conditions in southern Black primary and secondary schools (Lee A Craig, 1992; Cross, 1999). It was at this time Frederick

Douglass, renowned Black Abolitionist orator, reached out to Justin Morrill writing, “I see no great or happy future for my race or for the Republic outside general education and it seems to me that you, dear sir, standing where you do can do no better work for the nation than to press this idea upon the nation’s mind and heart” (Cross, 1999).

Returning to Congress in 1890 on the heels of the success of the 1862 Morrill Act - producing a thriving and educated class from its 48 colleges, Morrill presented an additional Black college-supporting land-grant bill demanding that more funding must be appropriated (Cross, 1999). Signed into law by President Benjamin Harrison on August 30, 1890, the additional land-grant funding allocations were approved with one significant provision – no funding to land-grants who prohibited enrollment of a particular group from their schools (Brooks & Marcus, 2015). However, the 1890 Act included a provision that land-grant funds could create “equal-but-separate” institutions (Cross, 1999).

Despite early 1890 funding insufficient to support equitable agricultural and mechanical arts programs combined with historical concerns tied to agriculture among recently emancipated Black freemen, 1890 land-grants focused their vocational disciplines upon outreach-focused teacher training to address the increasing primary and secondary enrollment demands of Black families in under-resourced Black schools (Lee A Craig, 1992). The outcomes resulted in an educated, trained teacher workforce just in time for World War II when skilled human capital was a matter of national and global security (Lee A. Craig, 1992). Most notable during this time were the movements of scientific research innovators Booker T. Washington and George Washington Carver to communicate scientific discoveries directly to the Black community to “lift the veil of

ignorance”, setting the groundwork for Extension in Black land-grants and the outreach-centered professional values which still remain core to the mission of Extension today (Campbell, 1936; Christy & Williamson, 1992; Denton, 1993).

Prior to the Morrill Act of 1890, Extension work was well underway. Within the Black community, it was led by Tuskegee Institute’s Dr. Booker T. Washington and associate faculty (Campbell, 1936). By 1900, Tuskegee’s Extension work was spread among more than 1,000 students across 28 states and several foreign countries (Comer et al., 2006). Washington and Tuskegee’s global footprint did not go unnoticed as the Cooperative Extension System was federally established by the Smith-Lever Act, fourteen years later. Signed in 1914, the Smith-Lever Act formalized scientific information dissemination into what we now know as Cooperative Extension (Campbell, 1936; Christy & Williamson, 1992; Sorber, 2018). It allocated funding for a designated partnership between the USDA and land-grants, support for county-level branch offices in each state (Comer et al., 2006). Despite the pioneering Extension outreach of Washington and his Tuskegee students, funding from the Smith-Lever Act was placed under control of the 1862 land-grants with very little trickling down to 1890 institutions (Christy & Williamson, 1992; Hightower, 1973). It was a half century until research funding was collectively allocated for 1890 institutions with the 1967 passage of Public Law 89-106, finally creating federally supported space for 1890 institution research (Comer et al., 2004). Despite the barriers faced by 1890 institutions for more than a century, their outreach efforts educated millions within the Black community and paved the way for the eventually of the 1994 Equity in Educational Land-Grant Act which recognized tribal colleges as land-grant institutions granting substantive funding for

programs in agriculture and natural resources and Extension Services for tribal communities (National Education Association, 2022).

1940's – 1950's: The Research Revolution

The post-World War II timeline heralded one of the greatest government-funded science and technology innovation gateways in US history. Institutional innovations and public interest were becoming intertwined as institutions were increasing their social, political, and economic clout. Basic science discoveries such as penicillin for human use and chemotherapy were transforming how institutional research can change humankind (Tree, 2014). It was also during this time that renowned scientist and inventor Vannevar Bush called for basic science to be the core of knowledge production with the goal of applied discoveries being disseminated out to society (Aaron, 2023; Bush, 1945). At a time when America was facing innovation-based national security fears from the USSR Sputnik launch, Bush's (1945) scientifically philosophical *Science, the Endless Frontier* led the way for the research expansion of higher education through the establishment of the National Science Foundation (Leslie, 1993; Saltmarsh, 2017). Yet with significant society changing discoveries coming from higher education, their siloed discipline-centric movements and special interest research funding sources areas caused society to critique institutions as again solely focused on interests of the elite rather than the increasingly complex needs of the citizenry (Saltmarsh, 2017).

1960's – 1980's: The International Expansion

With the popularization of television and mainstream media and the USA's immersion in the Vietnam War, American households were now privy to their privilege

compared to televised struggling Third-world countries half-way around the world. At this time, the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 expanded the mission of land-grant universities toward international development. A strategy that would appreciate, rather than depreciate, the value of internationally engaged scholarship, Berg (1961) viewed international efforts as a university's obligation to expand knowledge to the global community,

Meanwhile, the increasingly globalization of land-grant engaged service-learning sprang forth a new field of service-learning and leadership focused professional organizations. Among those was the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE). Founded in 1978, its mission is to create a collaborative space for teachers and communities to work directly with service-learning thought leaders to advance research and scholarship in the field (Bailis, 2001). What differentiated NSEE from other large gatherings was its' interest in drawing from other disciplines (i.e. internships, co-op's, etc.) to grow the scholarship and practice of service-learning (Bailis, 2001).

Moving beyond the national focus of the NSEE, the International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership was established in 1982. Its mission is to align academic curricula with volunteer engagement to support universities, students, and non-government organizations (International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership, n.d.). Today it's international efforts still focus on creating ethical opportunities for students to become more socially engaged (International Partnership for Service-Learning and Leadership, n.d.).

Further efforts continued in the early 1980's to springboard service-learning students into become socially conscious citizens. The National Youth Leadership Council

was established the following year and remains today a central resource sharing repository, as well as a leader in outcomes-oriented comprehensive service-learning pedagogical practices across P-16 education (National Youth Leadership Council, 2017).

In 1984, the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy convened, to expand the mission of the U.S. Cooperative Extension System (CES) to grow the experience and capacity of U.S. Extension personnel and enhance the CES's expertise in translating the effect of global markets on U.S. agriculture (Ludwig & McGirr, 2003). Later in that year, the USDA's Extension Service partnered with the Consortium for International Cooperation in Higher Education to create outreach initiatives to improve community-level understanding of international topics related to world hunger, development, and commerce (Ludwig & McGirr, 2003).

This was also the year when college students began to organize themselves to become more civically involved. The Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) was established to provide a professional space to lead annual conferences focused on civic engagement and community service among college students (Impact Conference, n.d.). Founded in response to college students being viewed as civically ambivalent, the movement resulting from COOL opened the doors to the establishment of one of the most widely recognized service-learning organizations today – Campus Compact (Ludwig & McGirr, 2003).

Founded in 1986, Campus Compact is the oldest non-profit organization focused on higher education community engagement (Campus Compact, n.d.). Today, the largest organization in higher education community engagement, it remains the leader in skill

and capacity development - connecting presidents, scholars, students, and citizens as a network of knowledge-sharing professionals to advance society (Campus Compact, n.d.).

1990's: The Era of Reformation

The 1990's shepherded an era of higher education increasingly viewed through the public's critical lens demanding that public universities utilize their disciplinary expertise to scaffold societal change (Glass & Fitzgerald, 2010). Land grant universities were pressured to refocus their historical obligations to address the broad needs of society (Bonnen, 1998; Lerner & Simon, 1998; Votruba, 1992). It was at this time that faculty became a central focus of CES. While faculty had traditionally been relegated to traditional teaching roles, groups like Campus Compact expanded beyond student service-learning to begin highlighting the need to recognize the importance of faculty to be publicly involved, professionally socialized, and institutionally rewarded for their civic scholarship (O'Meara, 2011).

With the emergence of faculty prioritization as a central theme, Ernest Boyer (1990) definitively addressed this issue in *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*. In his CES changing manifesto, Boyer spotlighted the contemporary flaws of higher education – failure of balanced teaching, research, and service among faculty, ambiguity in reward priorities among colleges and universities, and the focus on external rankings over internal priorities (Boyer, 1990). However, it was his call for a fundamental restructuring of the definition of scholarship focused on a new commitment to addressing societal problems that still resonates today (Boyer, 1990).

Building on the momentum of the Boyer (1990) manifesto for a new scholarship, Donald Schon's (1995) "Knowing in Action: The New Scholarship Requires a New

Epistemology” demanded the bench science traditional ways of knowing be rebuilt from the ground up (Schon, 1995). His view of a new epistemology was in shared knowledge creation especially that which is discovered through engaged scholarship (Schon, 1995).

These calls for a complete reform of scholarship led the way to Lynton’s (1996) article claiming elitist research-supremacy mindsets are destined to doom universities into a society-alienated abyss. His warning flags planted the groundwork for a new professionalization of the university – one which is focused on shared knowledge creation through mutual respect and reciprocity (Lynton, 1996). His views are credited among those which reshaped university policies and cultures to value and prioritize the importance of engagement (Saltmarsh, 2019).

These calls for a new covenant among land-grants was heard loud and clear. Funded by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation, the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges convened what is known as the Kellogg Commission missioned to alert public universities to the requisite changes needed to face 21st century challenges (Glass & Fitzgerald, 2010). The Commission called for public universities, especially research institutions, to “renew their covenant” by realigning scholarship for students, teaching, and service as key institutional priorities and rewards (Glass & Fitzgerald, 2010).

2000’s: The New World Order

The early 2000’s drew new complaints that higher education was prioritizing neoliberalist, self-serving results of student learning rather than civic outcomes within the communities they were involved (Billig & Waterman, 2014; Mooney & Edwards, 2001; Root et al., 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2009). Nudging educational leaders to act and

hold institutions socially accountable, these concerns mobilized The Carnegie Foundation, a prominent force in promoting educational research and classification, expanded to provide a data-driven recognition of a university's community efforts with a new elective classification for community engagement in which institutions reflectively evaluate their performance in addressing community-based social issues via engaged scholarship and research (Driscoll & Sandmann, 2019)(American Council on Education, n.d.).

The local call for institutional efforts to refocus on engaged work grew into a need for land-grant universities to concentrate efforts more internationally. The public call for land-grants to step and address pressing world needs, especially world hunger, initiated new federal funding allocations with the Freedom from Hunger Improvement Act of 2000 (FPFHIA) (Atilas et al., 2014). The amendment charged land grants and Cooperative Extension to conduct global research on challenges and human capacity development in agriculture, environmental sciences, and natural resources, enhance international agricultural trade, and address socioeconomic insecurities, food, and environmental concerns (FPFHIA, 2000).

It was also at this time that universities were at the leading edge of science and technology development, with their capitalist influence in the globalized economy greater than ever (Calderone & Rhoads, 2005). Thus, institutions began to develop their international plan with the 2002 strategic plan from the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities entitled "Enhancing the Global Engagement of Land-Grant Universities". It declared global engagement as one that is mutually beneficial, both locally and globally, and could not have been more well timed, considering that

institutions were not only critiqued as self-serving but also commoditized (Atilés et al., 2014; Geiger, 2004).

2010's: The Era of Professionalization

As scholarly research outreach grew in scope and clout, the focus turned to the capacity of engaged faculty and professionals to adequately problem-solve with communities (Collins, 2012, 2015). With universities becoming significant economic and social machines, the 2010's were a time when engaged universities were also expected to have the capacity to lead as lobbyists, business entrepreneurs, environmental experts, and financial analysts (Fear, 2015; Fitzgerald et al., 2020). Judith Ramley (2014) opined that “workable responses and solutions to today’s problems require new ways of learning, new ways of working together, and new definitions and measures of progress and success” (p. 9).

Understanding that professionalizing a field of engaged scholarship must be one collaborative, transdisciplinary, ethical, socially motivated, and purposeful, Dostilio (2017) published the foundational model of competencies for all professionals and leaders in community-engaged scholarship. The framework opened the door to a new field of scholarship and practice in community engagement – professionalization and development. Since then, new additional competency models have either adapted from Dostilio (2017) or emerged with a new agenda (Atilés, 2019; McNall et al., in press).

Conceptual Context

The Role of Leadership in Community-engaged Scholarship

Substantive research shows that sustainable university-community partnerships are founded upon trust and interpersonal relationships emphasizing rich interpersonal interactions, mutuality, and long-term face-to-face interactions (Hutchinson & Huberman, 1994; Maurrasse, 2002; Sandmann & Simon, 1999; Votruba, 1996; Walshok, 1999; Ward, 1996; Zlotkowski, 1998). Effective engaged leaders are experts in relationship development and maintenance, skilled interdisciplinary boundary spanners, and able to respect community partners as knowledge co-creators (F. William Brown & Michael D. Reilly, 2009; Dostilio & Welch, 2019; Ramaley, 2010; Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013b). Below the surface of these relational competencies, it is important to understand the key values and interpersonal characteristics that makeup today's collaborative leader in CES.

Effective community collaboration can involve unpredictable conditions, personalities, long hours, and unrewarded efforts. To overcome these challenges, engaged leaders must have an intrinsic purpose that drives them to commit to social advancement despite the institutional and external barriers they face every day. Among the core values of engaged leaders are ethics, authenticity, and commitment to social justice. Ethical leaders are those whose transformative leadership strategies are guided by their moral compasses, not based on what's best for the organization, but whether it is fundamentally right or wrong (Campbell & Peacock, 2021). Ethical CES leaders recognize the power imbalances that commonly occur between institutions and community partners and remain diligent to ensure the partners are not exploited (Scheepers et al., 2023).

Simultaneously, their ethical values ensure that the dignity and autonomy of their community partners are maintained, as well as the right to equality and reciprocity throughout the engagement (Scheepers et al., 2023)

Authenticity is also important among leaders. This core belief guides and translates how they interact with others (Sarkaria, 2014). Authentic leadership based on knowledge sharing transparency and feelings creates a safe space for follower authenticity, thus increasing group cohesion and outcomes (Sarkaria, 2014). Therefore, a CES leader's true-to-self mindset has resonating benefits by creating and enhancing the trust levels and psychological wellbeing of co-creating others (Zeb et al., 2019).

CES leaders are also those culturally committed and driven to support meaningful and equitable change. Leaders focused on social empowerment are motivated by the recognition that equity and justice are achieved by overcoming power imbalances and that shared global understanding to empower emancipation, democracy, and justice are fundamental to the racial and ethnic disparities that plague society (Shields, 2010). They believe their position of privilege and imbalanced power as academic calls for CES community to point out injustices and seek to understand the source of power differences and causes to initiate change against dehumanizing oppression (Camacho, 2004; Catlett & Proweller, 2011; Dostilio, 2017; Dunlap et al., 2007; Mitchell, 2013).

CES leaders as boundary spanners are frequently faced with diverse stakeholders with divergent challenges. Purcell et al. (2020) describe an effective boundary spanner as an opportunistic innovator organizing partners and resources while spanning institutional and public borders to identify and pursue new efforts. These leaders have their fingers on the pulses of the communities they work with and use their analyses to help guide

visionary strategies for change (Jacoby & Mutascio, 2010; McReynolds & Shields, 2015; Oates & Leavitt, 2003; Pigza & Troppe, 2003).

Collaboratively communicating CES leaders are also individuals who view interactions relationally, prioritizing transparency and respect for the views of their collaborators (Dumlao, 2018). Accordingly, engaged leaders must be skilled in speaking as well as listening (Purcell et al., 2020). This is exponentially important for CES leaders to persuasively interact with a diverse body of involved internal and external stakeholders (Dostilio, 2017; Engstrom, 2003; Jacoby & Mutascio, 2010; Stimson et al., 2009). A communicatively competent CES leader is also an “interpersonal orchestra conductor” – boundary spanning to define and clarify the mutual goals and purpose of the partnership, negotiating competing interests between the institution and community, as well as interpersonal challenges that may arise internally and externally (Dostilio, 2017; Holland, 2001; Van Meerkerk & Edelenbos, 2018).

In addition to communication expertise, CES leaders must be able to dynamically navigate internal and external organizations to influence and manage the relationships between the two groups (Friedman & Podolny, 1992; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010). Often challenged by the expectation of professional neutrality, boundary spanners must be able to facilitate productive interactions between the community partner and university by breaking down cultural barriers, facilitating expectations between the groups, and scaffolding new university-community partner interactions through their flexible boundary-spanning activities (Van Schyndel et al., 2019; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010).

Considering the ever-changing dynamics of community-engaged partnerships, a CES leader’s ability to make decisive actions and reflect accordingly is critical to success

(Day et al., 2004). Accordingly, effective analysis of uncertainties and decisions is through reflection-in-action”. Successful leaders of change are competent in this area as they are not only able to critique, correct, and assess in real-time but are challenging their core beliefs and assumptions (Raelin, 2002).

Research shows that higher education leaders agree that self-awareness is essential to success in community-engaged scholarship as well as within the institution (Parrish, 2011; Zare & Khorasgani, 2022). McKee et al. (2008) contend, “Emotional intelligence enables leaders to deal with their own internal responses, moods, and states of mind. Social intelligence informs how we understand and interact with others” (p. 25). Characteristics of emotionally and socially intelligent leaders are comprised of emotional self-awareness and the capacity to manage their emotions productively, ensure emotions are supporting desirable conditions for effective decision-making and problem-solving, and reflectively evaluate their emotions and those of others, an other-oriented empathetic focus, and contagious, but practical optimism (Dumlao, 2018; Kotzé & Venter, 2011; Wood, 2015).

Emotional intelligence allows CES leaders to motivate and mentor others to reach their highest potential (Parrish, 2015). Furthermore, it provides emotional self-management to leaders, ensuring they can maintain high conduct standards by mitigating potentially destructive emotions and maintaining positive, productive relations with others (Greenockle, 2010; Parrish, 2010). Therefore, emotional and social self-awareness is essential for leadership relational capacity building to guide CEP leaders in navigating the early phases of relationship development with community partners (Duck, 1988; Duck, 1994). Self-awareness is a key component of authenticity by recognizing how their

personality preferences impact their CES is essential to establishing authentic relationships (Dostilio, 2017).

Roger's (2003) view of successful change leaders describes one who recognizes the importance of building a strong knowledge-sharing relationship. Doing so requires CES leaders to ensure the partnership has a clear mission with compatible partners (Dostilio, 2017). Effective leaders in establishing a knowledge-sharing partnership are those who build a positive bond with their clients to ensure they are viewed as empathetic, credible, knowledgeable, and principled (Rogers, 2003). Rogers (2003) further posits that establishing a positive rapport with a partner is essential before change considerations can be considered.

A key strategy is building a cycle of trust. Collaborative change between institutions and community partners hinges on trustworthiness, because the greater the levels of trust, the less expenditures in human capital and resources in meeting mutual goals (Scott & Storper, 2003). Pollitt and Bouckaert (2017) contend, "Trust is a governance device in the sense that it contributes to prosperity by reducing transaction costs. It does so by enabling much shorter contracts and radically reducing monitoring costs" (p.7). To establish a trusting partnership, leaders must be adaptive to risk-taking and uncertainty (Fairholm, 1994). Vangen and Huxham (2003) Suggest a collaboration-oriented "trust building loop" that recognizes trust occurs in cycles and maintenance requires continuous effort. Initiated by basic practical goals and ending in satisfying outcomes, an effective cycle of trust resets to restart with increasingly aspiring collaborative activities (Vangen & Huxham, 2003).

In community-engaged activity, the professional must understand that successful leaders are those who recognize it is shared and not ordained (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). Once social capital has been established, the implementation phase, carried out by those directly involved, becomes critical to achieving tangible outcomes. Shared leadership is essential to reach successful outcomes. Emerging in the new era of professionalized CES is the expectation of empowered democratic engagement (Fung & Wright, 2001). Shared leadership will seek to empower resource-deficient community partners to state the needs of the partnership (Honnett & Poulsen, 1989).

Influence in Leadership

Leader influence is an essential tool for strategic change within all levels of an organization, with numerous studies recognizing its usefulness and importance. Oreg and Sverdlik (2014) investigated the relationship between persuasiveness and the personality of the persuasive person, finding that extroversion and openness were highly associated with persuasive outcomes, converse to neuroticism which had a negative association with persuasiveness. Effective leaders use influence through knowledge sharing, fairness, transparency, a positive attitude, and trustworthiness (Hoy & Smith, 2007). Among middle managers, effective up-line and down-line influence was found to enhance organizational performance and impact strategic decision-making among executives, and increased adaptability and change-oriented mindsets among subordinates (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1997). The outcomes of influential leadership can create a ripple effect from organizational change, greater resources, growth of networks, and professional advancement, to follower loyalty and organizational commitment (Chaturvedi et al., 2019; Floyd & Wooldridge, 1997).

Within the context of goal interdependence and leader power, Tjosvold et al. (1992) surveyed one hundred forty-three Canadian employees regarding their manager's influence tactics, finding that influence strategies emphasizing shared goals and collaboration were effective at influencing employee performance and loyalty. Research has shown that leadership outcomes are associated with distinct leadership actions and implementation results (Ford & Ford, 2012). Successful leadership influence outcomes are not unidirectional, but instead are dynamic feedback loops that consider the change recipient's willingness and preparedness for change, and inclination to resist (Herold et al., 2008; Oreg & Berson, 2019). Lunenburg (2010) contends that relationship-oriented leadership, termed referent power, is grounded on influencing others through high levels of follower trust, cooperation, and commitment. Ford and Ford (2012) note leadership effectiveness hinges on the dynamic interplay between leader behaviors and deployment results. Positive influential leadership outcomes hinge upon favorable relationships with followers or change recipients and the strategies used to affect influence.

Within higher education leadership positions, Lumby (2019) emphasizes that the organizational complexity of an institution demands that effective leaders collaborate with others, recognizing that legitimate leadership does not necessarily infer authority within the autonomy-emphasized culture of academia. Often, former colleagues who suddenly become subordinates will view the leader negatively. According to Lumby (2019), building power in academia is a political maneuver through the establishment of influence and relevance among high-level leaders while maintaining a self-awareness of remaining grounded and strategically cautious on the use of one's ordained power amongst former peers.

Personality and Leadership

Personality traits are termed as stable, instinctive patterns of thoughts, emotions, and actions that define how individuals typically react to different circumstances (Roberts, 2009). Organizationally, personality assessments are becoming increasingly valued in executive coaching, team development, and matters of hiring and promotion (Moyle & Hackston, 2018). Research suggests that personality does not reflect leadership developmental level, yet it is associative with general leadership tendencies and leadership influencing style (Bahreinian et al., 2012; Strang & Kuhnert, 2009). Leader personality traits have been shown to impact communication effectiveness and organizational outcomes among successful leaders in U.S. and select Asian cultures self-identifying as extraverted, conscientious, and agreeable, whereas neuroticism-aligned traits were viewed negatively (Silverthorne, 2001; Solaja et al., 2016).

From an influence perspective, research suggests that personality traits are associated with varied influence situations. According to Anderson et al. (2008), extroversive personalities (those who prefer social interaction and are lively) tend to exert greater influence within team dynamics. Conversely, conscientious personalities (those who may be more cautious and diligent) are most influential among those who work independently or on technical projects (Anderson et al., 2008). Persuasive behavior has also been positively aligned with Big Five extroversive and open traits, while negatively among those associated with neuroticism (Oreg & Sverdlik, 2014).

In higher education, traits aligned with empathy, inspiration, motivation, and self-awareness show to be among the highest importance for leaders (Parrish, 2013). However, Houpt et al. (2015) contend that having leadership personality traits diverging

from these does not disavow one for leadership roles. Instead, they argue that a leader's knowledge of potentially destructive traits creates opportunities for development outside of one's personality-based behavioral comfort zones and enhances strengths that could advance their professional success. Harms et al. (2011) further adds that negatively associated personality traits and disorders call for an understanding of the importance of considering appropriate interventional strategies that will work best for these types as misaligned trait-intervention strategies could stifle growth, supporting the findings of Zinbarg et al. (2008). Accordingly, Sethuraman and Suresh (2014) suggests that effective leadership styles can be developed if one considers inborn personality preferences within their leadership development model.

Failing to understand and address negative leadership personality traits can result in destructive personal and professional outcomes. The Diller et al. (2021) exploration of the dark triad (DT) of leadership personality traits found DT were positive correlates to higher leadership roles and negative organizational implications such as leaders' decision-making prioritizing image enhancement over organizational benefits, exploitive strategies to build power, and harmful, impulsive goal-setting supporting the discoveries of Van Dijk and De Cremer (2006), Christie and Geis (2013), Paulhus and Williams (2002), and Boddy (2011).

As a resource to develop effective leadership, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was developed during World War II by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Cooks Briggs, drawing on Carl Jung's theory of psychological types (Myers, I.B., & Briggs, P.B., 1998). Their primary aim was to help individuals, particularly women entering the workforce, gain a deeper understanding of their personality preferences, thus enhancing

career choices and personal development (Myers, I. B., & Briggs, P. B., 1998). Since its inception in 1943, the MBTI has been continuously refined and is now one of the most widely utilized personality assessment instruments worldwide. It identifies sixteen distinct personality types, based on preferences in four key areas: how people focus their energy, take in information, make decisions, and interact with the world (Myers I. B., & Briggs, P. B., 1998).

While it has faced some critique (Pittenger, 2005; McCrae & Costa, 1989), numerous studies (Furnham, A., & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004; Hammer, 1996; Quenk, 2000; The Myers & Briggs Foundation, 2021) have shown that the MBTI is a reliable tool and valid for fostering self-awareness, improving communication, and promoting personal and professional growth in a variety of settings, including counseling, education, and organizational development.

Goal Setting for Leadership Development

For many years, goal-related research has resulted in a well-established body of diverse literature. Goal setting's increasing popularity among scholars as a key strategy for ideal performance outcomes and self-satisfaction in leadership development is tied to its capacity to provide learners the space to establish their own goals for change and further elevates the importance of leadership development (Johnson et al., 2012).

Goals have shown to provide positive explanations for performance outcomes among board members within a non-profit leadership development program (Kaufman et al., 2008). Examining the effects of goal setting, Kaufman et al. (2008) findings showed short-term and long-term perceived views of improved performance from participants.

Such outcomes align with the role of goal setting and improved self-efficacy (Gist et al., 1991). Secondly, their findings found negative outcomes resulting from the low level of difficulty in the goals, supporting Locke and Latham (1990, 2002) in which challenging goals lead to higher performance (Kaufman et al., 2008).

Measuring outcomes of a 5-day leadership development program, Johnson et al. (2012) found that goal setting among program participants resulted in a perceived improvement in two-thirds of the competencies in the development program. Furthermore, goal-setting outcomes stretched beyond competency achievements showing positive associations with improved self-awareness, and a greater number of perceived performance outcomes when compared to participants who had fewer, or no goals established.

Personality-based Coaching

For many years, coaching has been a common practice among executive leaders with solidly reputable outcomes. Smith (2015) investigated how tailored coaching programs can impact leadership resilience and found that leaders believed coaching improved their resilience, revived their self-efficacy, scaffolded their learning, and gave them the supportive space to consider and develop big-picture perspectives. Professional development coaching has been found to increase self-awareness, apply new strategies, and increase self-efficacy (Moen & Allgood, 2009).

Effective self-efficacy-building coaching plans are comprised of thoughtful and responsive coaching via attentiveness, elucidation, exemplified application, and applied interpretation (Popper & Lipshitz, 1993). Thus, it is not surprising that incorporating personality assessments with coaching plans is becoming increasingly viewed as a

valuable symbiosis as the understanding of personality and situational behavior preferences can set the tone for personality-focused coaching strategically addressing leadership behavioral areas for improvement (Burch & Anderson, 2008; McCormick & Burch, 2008).

Until recent years, experts have been reluctant to accept coaching as a strategic means for changing personality traits as these were viewed as only adaptive with prolonged intensive interventions (Hughes, 2002; McCrae & Costa, 2003). Citing Williams (2003), Martin et al. (2012) contend that goal-oriented trait change coaching strategies are practical and achievable. Emerging literature supports these arguments and contends that personality traits are adaptive to routine environmental factors (Fleeson & Nettle, 2008; Judge et al., 2014; Robinson, 2009).

Synthesizing existing literature, Martin et al. (2012) argue that coaching for personality change can be an effective substitution to counseling or therapy if conducted among clients absent significant psychological disorders. They further contend that intentional one-on-one coaching could be beneficial when goals are established and aligned with a development or learning plan.

A survey of executive coaches and executives found that personality assessments were essential to leadership development among both coaches and coachees by identifying strengths and weaknesses and destructive trait-based behavior (also known as “dark traits”) (Nicolaidis, 2019). Results from the study also concluded that having this knowledge supported the ability of the coaching partnership to develop specific goals and development plans – resulting in improved communication, self-understanding, and goal attainment (Nicolaidis, 2019).

An exploration into a university leadership development program in which learners utilized a peer coach and self-set development plan identified positive outcomes (Ladyshevsky, 2007). The Ladyshevsky (2007) study concluded that results from multiple 360-degree assessments showed improved leadership competency. Feedback included improvements in perceived performance, emotional competence, and critical thinking skills in conflict resolution Ladyshevsky (2007).

Another personality-centered leadership coaching initiative explored by McCormick and Burch (2008), examined the relationship between the use of the five-factor model of personality and executive coaching. Their recommendations suggest personality-focused adaptive coaching strategies that recognize and acknowledge trait-based preferences by adjusting coaching strategies to compensate for current trait preferences while coaching for behavioral change (McCormick & Burch, 2008).

Seeking to establish focused strategic underpinnings for effective personality change coaching, Martin et al. (2014) developed a model for coaching for personality change. Emphasized in the model are the identification of personality traits and values, deep dive into one's self-identity and ideal self, recognition of variances between self and ideal self, the establishment of personality-based change goals, measurement of motivation and attitudes toward change, development and execution of coaching plan, followed by a series of progress evaluations, coaching sessions, and revision and change maintenance plans.

Other successful personality-based coaching initiatives which include emotional intelligence training and coaching activities such as email check-in's (Nelis et al., 2011) and 10-week life coaching initiatives comprised of both peer and professional coaches

(Spence & Grant, 2005) showed specific development in areas related to extroversion and a decline in neuroticism-based behaviors. Spence and Grant (2005) further concluded that interventions specific to an identifiable trait were more likely to exhibit positive results, instead of those focused on generalized personality change.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical models to address motivation and performance outcomes in this study are the theories of self-determination and goal setting, and the theories of social learning and self-efficacy.

Self-Determination and Goal Setting

Incorporated in this intervention are the mechanisms for study participants to establish their learning goals and outcomes based upon what they intrinsically desire as a means for using goals as a strategy for as a means for enhancing performance outcomes and self-efficacy (Gist et al., 1991; Travers et al., 2015). To capture the factors of the intrinsic motivators to drive one toward goal achievement, self-determination theory argues that motivation is based upon the psychological needs for capability, independence, and association (Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to the theory SDT focuses on the psychoanalytic nurture vs nature perspective in which social environments either support human development or stifle it (Ryan & Deci, 2002). In return, psychological development responds and translates its impact across all forms of the human experience (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Thus, different goals associate with different behaviors, mental processes, and needs satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

From an applied perspective, Gagné and Deci (2005) describe SDT as quantifiable over a continuum measured from extremes between amotivation (no existing motivation) to intrinsic motivation (self-determined drive). Simultaneously, overlapping the continuum is the four types of extrinsic motivation – external regulation (controlled by rewards and penalties) at the amotivation end, followed by introjection regulation (ego and peer driven) and identification (autonomy and value-aligned goals) midway, and integration (goals fully aligned with beliefs and values) overlapping self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Fowler (2018) argues that self-determination transforms motivation “from the *quantity* of motivation a person has for a goal to the *quality* of their motivation” (p. 187).

Highly cited and broadly considered, SDT is not in short supply of scholarly supporters. Champions argue that employees in their “flow” (intervals of work motivation, engagement, and satisfaction) tend to use SDT’s aspects of independence, proficiency, importance and to fuel this condition and enhance performance (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2017). Additional beneficial workplace implications include its combination with performance expectations through empowerment-based leadership strategies and alignment of job roles with a greater purpose and organizational values (O'Donoghue & van der Werff, 2022).

Guided by the scholarship of Thomas Ryan and Kurt Lewin, and argued as the “most dominant theory in the field” (Mitchell & Daniels, 2003), Edwin Locke’s (1966) initial goal setting framework would later expand goal setting into new conditional factors such as job satisfaction based upon the how much job satisfaction drives goal attainment (Locke, 1970; Locke & Bryan, 1969) and then draw from Bandura’s (1982)

self-efficacy theories to argue that a person's self-view of their ability to meet a goal is positively related to future goal attainment (Locke & Latham, 1990). Defining the theory, Locke (1990) later added that clear high goals support better outcomes compared to ambiguous non-specific ones and the degree of commitment determines the difficulty of the goal and achievement level, as well as the fact that extrinsic goals and feedback only guide goal-setting and not outcomes.

Considering its' usefulness in professional development self-efficacy, Gist et al. (1991) argue that the correlation between one's self-efficacy and goal setting having a significant role in early performance and performance maintenance. Goal setting which incorporates progressive self-evaluations has been shown to create opportunities for learners to celebrate their progress and increase their belief in growth, thus the increasing the difficulty of higher goals (Schunk, 1990). Among students, outcomes have been very similar showing a measurable number reporting that goal setting have a positive impact on self-efficacy, goal-setting ability, wellbeing and stress, in addition to academic performance (Moeller et al., 2012; Travers et al., 2015).

Social Learning and Self-Efficacy

Social learning theory is based upon the concept that successful performance outcomes result in feelings of achievement (Bandura, 1982; Bandura & Walters, 1977). According to Bandura (1977), people's behavior is influenced by both internal and external factors. As such, behavioral change occurs either by experience or observation, with sustained behavioral change resulting from desirable outcomes. Organizationally, social learning can have lasting impacts between leaders and subordinates, even outside of formal developmental conditions. Bai et al. (2019) argue that within teams, the ethical

behavior practices of a leader are imprinted upon followers resulting in more ethical work behaviors and leader effectiveness. Within leadership development circles, social learning theory is showing positive results. Black and Earnest (2009) found that leadership development programs modeled upon social learning theories showed substantial growth among participants both professionally and personally with participants reporting increased self-efficacy, motivation, and job satisfaction. Personally, respondents noted an increase in cultural sensitivity and civic engagement (Black & Earnest, 2009).

Self-efficacy refers to a person's confidence in their ability to perform adequately in a particular situation (Bandura, 1995). According to Bandura (1978), self-efficacy has significant behavioral effects from how people actively choose their environments and behaviors to how they self-sabotage their potential by protecting their negative self-views by facing all challenges through a risk averse lens.

Numerous studies have explored the role of self-efficacy in personal and professional development. Judge and Bono (2001) determined that there is a strong relationship between self-efficacy and the effective completion of a task. Found to influence "the initiation, intensity, and persistence of a behavior" (Paglis, 2010, p 771), self-beliefs establish the framework for how a person views their present and future self (Jayawardena & Gregar, 2013). Significant in both tasks and roles, successful task achievements lead to expectations of future positive outcomes (Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010). Guided by the sense of autonomy, as mentioned earlier, self-efficacy is fueled by the belief that one's outcomes are self-determined (Lussier, 2017).

Ross (2014) argues that effective leadership development programs must consider the role of self-efficacy; doing so allows for designing better leadership development initiatives by creating programs focused on motivation and improvement over performance outcomes. Such efforts seed a sense of achievement which leads to more challenging goals as a means for self-development (Ross, 2014). Furthermore, in addition to enhanced self-efficacy, increased self-awareness among leaders has a ripple effect among followers by creating opportunities for improved leader integrity and trusting relationships with followers (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The phenomenological mixed-methods investigation was conducted using a purposefully selected pool of six higher education professionals who have transitioned into significant leadership roles in community-engaged scholarship with five or fewer years of managerial experience. Six participants were selected for this study as numerous scholars contend that deep, context-rich insights can be obtained from small sample sizes of six or fewer participants from a phenomenological perspective, rather than a broad generalization approach (Sandelowski, 1995; Patton, 2002; Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007; Creswell, 2013). Mixed methodology was used in segments of this study because of its ability to triangulate data from varied measures, clarify the different results, enrich the validity of the results by one data source enlightening the other, deepening the discoveries from the synthesis of different data sources and views, and protract the range of inquiry using various data collection methods (Greene et al., 1989).

A merged analysis and interpretation of the data legitimizes, strengthens validity and produces a more meaningful significance of the data (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Using mixed methods research “enhances our beliefs that the results are valid and not a methodological artifact” (Bouchard Jr, 1976). Furthermore, it is useful in initial sampling identification (quantitative) and instrument conceptualization (qualitative), as well as the assertion of results via evaluative generalization within the analysis and interpretation stages (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Sieber, 1973).

Participants

Study participants were current community engagement professionals who have been in higher education community engagement managerial leadership roles for five years or less.

Recruitment

Supported by program implementation grants of \$1,000 through the Virginia Tech Office of Outreach and International Affairs (OIA) and \$300 from Dr. Rick Rudd's research funding, qualified potential candidates were nominated by OIA executive leadership. The candidate pool was contacted via email with a flyer and program details inviting them to voluntarily participate in the development program and study.

Upon voluntary acceptance to participate, subjects were screened to confirm eligibility regarding employment status and current-role leadership experience. Following the screening, participants were provided with a document that details their rights as study subjects and rights and procedures for withdrawing from the study at any time, as well as a timeline for program milestones and completion.

Procedures

Intervention

The interventions in this study were comprised of a Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality assessment and optional individual consultation (addressed in the Quantitative Approach section), a Myers-Briggs personality-based professional

development group workshop on influence practices, a goal-setting professional development plan, and two sessions of individualized coaching (see attachment 7).

The professional development intervention workshop was conducted using the Myers-Briggs and CPP, Inc., professional development program *Impactful Influencing Harnessing the Power of Myers-Briggs Type*. An analysis of the use of this workshop program in developing influence capacity among participants of the sixteen MBTI personality types, Killen et al. (n.d.) concluded that the role of personality factors are associated to influence, and personality-based information processing preferences are consistent with how people influence and how they are influenced by others. Researchers contend that the effective use of personality assessments for professional development hinges on the use of exceptional training programs which concentrate on a particular personality aspect and developmental focus, use positive language, incorporate experiential activities and memory aides to support learning retention, and a coach or facilitator to assist learners in understanding and applying what they have learned (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015; Keller et al., 2006; Moyle & Hackston, 2018)

At the beginning of the workshop intervention, participants were tasked to complete a development plan of learning outcomes in which they expected to have at the conclusion of the workshop. During the day-long workshop intervention, participants participated in interactive learning activities, as well as team and individual application and reflection exercises using a licensed copy of the Myers-Briggs Company's facilitation kit *Impactful Influencing: Harnessing the Power of Myers-Briggs type* and individual copies of the *Impactful Influencing Participant Workbook*. At the end of the

workshop, participants reflected upon their learning goals and new knowledge gained to develop a one-week implementation strategy plan and four-week implementation plan.

Upon conclusion of the two-week milestone, participants individually communicated with the MBTI practitioner coach who helped them review their plan and progress, recognize growth achievements, and identify barriers and strategies for overcoming them. At the four-week intervention conclusion, the same coaching program was repeated with the MBTI practitioner coach focusing on results and outcomes, and a semi-structured interview (detailed in the Qualitative Approach section)

Quantitative Approach: Likert Surveys of Perceived Influence Competency & MBTI Measurement

To provide preliminary baseline understanding of perceived influence competency before the workshop intervention, a brief Myers-Briggs Company-developed Likert-styled pre-workshop perceived influence capacity evaluation survey was administered online to each study participant (Killen et al., 2023). Likert surveys are scales which measure attitudes across a dimension of extremes of strongly agree to strongly disagree with varying intervals of preference and neutrality across the symmetric scale (Joshi et al., 2015). Likert surveys are deemed to have scientific and construct validity as the responses are assessed by the survey creator and the variety of intervals to respond to a question reduce the chances of misinterpretation among respondents (Joshi et al., 2015).

In tandem with the influence surveys, personality self-assessment surveys were completed by all participants. The personality measurement in this study allowed for a deeper understanding of personality preferences among new CES leaders and the

reflective information it collects. Self-reporting of personality and leadership behavioral tendencies are increasingly viewed as preferred methods of data collection because respondents understand their cognitive and emotional interplays, which influence their behavior (Kornør & Nordvik, 2004).

Despite the prevalence of several widely validated behavioral and personality measurements (i.e. Five Factor, Adaption-Innovation), this study used the Jung influenced Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) as a quantitative survey instrument to assess the personality characteristics within four primary domains which identify preferences in how people gain their energy from people, process information, make decisions, and interact with the world around them (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The MBTI was selected for this study because of multiple investigations over time which conclude it to be generalizable and with high reliability and measurement validity (Randall et al., 2017; Thompson & Borrello, 1986). Through a factor analysis of 359 college students, Thompson and Borello (1986) was able to provide positive results regarding the validity of the MBTI. A first-of-its-kind comprehensive systematic review of the literature on the validity and reliability of the MBTI also found as reasonable means for construct validity across the literature examined (Randall et al., 2017).

A recent study by Isaksen, Lauer, and Wilson (2003) attempted to benchmark its validity against another widely respected cognition-based assessment. It measured the correlation between the MBTI and the Kirton Adaptation-Innovation Inventory (Kirton, 1999) and found that the MBTI measures construct beyond KAI, yet showed statistical significance when comparing personality preferences and cognitive styles. This

measurement of construct validity is of particular interest as the MBTI and KAI share over 200 published studies (Isaksen, Lauer, & Wilson, 2003).

Moyle and Hackston (2018) contend that the MBTI is the most ideal personality assessment tool in professional development because of its positive language and avoidance of neuroticism-related terminology. Furthermore, within a professional development context, MBTI has shown to be a valuable tool in conflict management, decision making, alignment with organizational interest and occupational interests, and transformational leadership development (Briggs et al., 2007; F William Brown & Michael D Reilly, 2009; Fleenor, 1997; Gallén, 2006; Garden, 1997; Haley & Stumpf, 1989; Hautala, 2005; Hough & Ogilvie, 2005; Insko et al., 2001; Kilmann & Thomas, 1975; Mills et al., 1985; Sundstrom & Busby, 1997).

Qualitative Approach: Individual Semi-structured Interviews

This study also attempted to gain insight into how the professional development workshop, a goal-setting professional development plan, and coaching increased self-awareness, improved internal and external relationships, elevated professional relevance, and enhanced perceived influential impact to improve leadership behavior. This data collection was conducted using semi-structured qualitative interviews. Qualitative data collection for this component of the study was chosen as it provides meaning by giving insight into “what is going on” (Sandelowski, 2000).

Interviews are among the most frequently used approaches for data collection (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Contrary to structured questionnaire interviews which tend to be used for quantitative assessment, individual semi-structured interviews create conditions for personal, familiar seeming interviews using "open, direct verbal

questions," creating reciprocal conditions for drawing rich narratives and responses (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Galletta, 2013). Using this form of interview allowed respondents space for more free expression of phenomenological interpretations and decision-making thought processes related to personality and influence.

The semi-structured interviews used main-theme questions to gather information on how the workshop, development plan, and coaching increased self-awareness, performance, internal and external relationships, professional relevance, and perceived impact on influence competency. Follow-up questions were used as guiding questions to assist participants in better articulating their thoughts or understanding of the questions (Smith & Osborn, 2003). Preliminary pilot tests were conducted among social science researchers, who are subject matter experts, as well as proficient in conducting semi-structured interviews among higher education professionals to ensure that useful interview question have been formulated. Pilot testing is a mechanism using a sampling of participant-like subjects to understand better participant perceptions (Kallio et al., 2016; Maxwell, 2012).

Notetaking, audio, and video recorders are recognized as the ideal tools for recording interviews (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). During semi-structured interviews, the use of recording devices diminishes the need to focus energies on notetaking and, instead, allows the researcher to concentrate on the questions and conversational flow (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). All interviews were recorded via Zoom videoconferencing technology to ensure a lasting record and natural flow of the interview, to provide convenience of interview participation since most participants are remotely located, and to provide a transcription copy to guide in final interpretive transcription by researcher.

Following the interviews, transcriptions were completed using Microsoft Word. Individual transcripts were provided to participants for voluntary verification. Once validated, individual identifiers were tagged with each transcription to ensure confidentiality and data integrity and stored on a secure remote server.

Data analysis

The data analysis was conducted through sequential data mixed methodology. This analysis methodology was selected because it provides for the first series of analyzed data (quantitative) to inform the second data source (qualitative).

In the first step of data analysis, reviews of the MBTI self-assessment results were conducted by a certified practitioner with results confidentially disseminated to both the researcher and individual participant to understand better the phenomena behind the respondent's fundamental behavioral traits.

Because this is a small group, Individual post-workshop personality-based perceived influence capacity self-evaluation results were compared back to pre-workshop personality-based perceived influence capacity self-evaluation outcomes for interpretive analysis to understand the interplay between personality and perceived improvement in influence capacity.

The third analysis reviewed post-workshop interview transcripts. For this study, Creswell and Creswell's (2017) selective coding was conducted to identify themes within the categorical areas of perceived competency, motivation, learning outcomes, goal setting, and self-efficacy. A preliminary series of transcript readings were conducted to obtain general insight into the interviews and identify initial codes that describe the phenomena investigated. The initial readings were followed by additional readings

conducted to classify and interpret the emerging themes. Findings were then grouped and translated into broader explanatory descriptions for generalization. Analysis results informed how the professional development program (workshop, goal setting and coaching) enhanced perceived influence competency and impacted motivation, learning outcomes, goal setting and goal achievement, and self-efficacy.

Quantitative and qualitative data was synthesized for mixed-method validity, then coded qualitative data was analyzed using an individual side-by-side comparison to statistical results of pre and post-tests. From this approach, the researcher reported interpretive explanations regarding perceived quantified outcomes and explanations for those results. Following, results were cross-referenced across all results to highlight congruency in perceived performance and explanatory interviews. Interpretation of the results guided the explanation of perceived competency of new leaders in community-engaged practice and the impact of a professional development program comprised of a workshop, goal setting development plan, and coaching.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

The purpose of this study focused on bridging the gap in leadership capabilities among new CES administrators by exploring how an understanding of personality traits—specifically with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)—can enhance their influence and leadership effectiveness. The research aimed to develop a professional development model that included personality assessments, workshops, and coaching to enhance social influence competencies among higher education leaders in community engagement. Findings determined that although quantitatively measured changes in perceived influence competency showed slight growth, qualitative feedback from

program participants showed the widespread use of terms related to self-awareness of one's personality-based influence preferences and an understanding of how other personality types influence and interpret influence behavior. Thematic findings also showed that participants found influence competency and influence-focused professional development programming important in community-engaged scholarship. Lastly, coaching as a strategy for influencing behavioral change was also prevalent among participants with their reasoning aligned with widely accepted professional coaching literature. The MBTI assessment, workshop, and pre/post quantitative assessments comprised six participants. However, due to the withdrawal of one participant before the completion of the coaching consultations, five participants fulfilled all components of the program. Specific details of participant contributions are detailed in the relevant sections below.

RQ1: What is the perceived social influencing competency of new community engagement leaders?

Influence competency among extroverted personality preferences reported satisfactory levels of social influence competency. Based on the small sample, the quantitative data could not conclude that individuals with more introverted personality preferences reported low levels of influence competency. Introverted personalities did not view their influence effectiveness as underperforming, but the average perceived influence effectiveness among introverted versus extroverted types was measurably lower (see Appendix 1).

Using a 10-point Likert-type scale, quantitative survey results show that before the development workshop, the individuals with introversive type personalities ($n=5$) measured their level of influence effectiveness as slightly above average at a score of 5.8. The extroversive participant ($n = 1$) responded with a higher perceived level of influence effectiveness score of 7. These findings support the Caldwell and Burger (1997) position that individuals measured with high extroversive personality levels and sensitivity are adaptive influencers. Unlike extroversives, who seek common ground through broad-topic discussions, introversive types tend to prefer sticking to the facts of the conversation topic (Thorne, 1987). This suggests that introversives may not have sufficient social flexibility to adapt to different influence-focused interactions.

RQ2: Is there an association between the knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences and perceived competency to influence others?

Outcomes assert that there is an association between the knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences and perceived competency to influence others. Findings conclude that knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences is associated with enhanced perceptions of influence effectiveness.

Quantitatively, results showed that influence effectiveness had a positive increase of 3.4% after completion of the workshop (see Appendix 1 for data; Appendix 8 for formula). Further quantitative outcomes showed a positive change in perceived social influence competency with post-workshop proficiency growth in:

- 1) practical, positive, and personal interactions ($\bar{x} = +6.6\%$)
- 2) passionate, encouraging, and impactful interactions ($\bar{x} = +2.4\%$).

This measurable change may be associated with most participants identifying as introversive ($n=5$) versus the extroversive participant ($n=1$). Therefore, the findings suggest that a participant's new self-awareness of the social and relational importance of influence over fact-based impersonal assertions may contribute to this positive change in influence competency.

Despite the positive overall perceived influence behavioral competency change, influence-specific behaviors showed some adverse changes in how participants perceived their personality-based influence behaviors. Further quantitative post-workshop results (see Appendix 1 for data; Appendix 8 for formula) show changes in:

- 1) competent, challenging, and compelling interactions ($\bar{x} = -6.6\%$)
- 2) influence behavior reflecting hesitation or too many emotions ($\bar{x} = +6.6\%$)
- 3) influence behavior that is deceptive or uses big words ($\bar{x} = +6.6\%$)
- 4) influence behavior which engages values and imagination ($\bar{x} = -6.8\%$),
- 5) influence behavior that provides too many details or lacks energy ($\bar{x} = +3.2\%$)
- 6) influence behavior that acknowledges the expertise and ideas of others ($\bar{x} = -6.6\%$).

Findings suggest that these post-workshop adverse changes are associated with the new knowledge and awareness of the personality-based influence behavior patterns that participants may not have had self-awareness of before the workshop, especially considering that most participants ($n=5$) identified as introversive. Anderson et al. (2008) suggest that extroversive types tend to exert greater team and organizational influence

which supports the quantitative results of lower influence proficiency averages across the group since it was predominately comprised of introversive trait types who tend to exhibit greater influence in technical, independent projects. Furthermore, the post-workshop survey was conducted immediately afterward, not allowing participants sufficient time to implement new self-awareness influence behavioral changes in real-life settings. Although perceived influence-based competency in these areas did not show improvement after the workshop, perceived influence effectiveness did present positive change. These novel discoveries show that the workshop provided participants with a new understanding and self-awareness of adverse influence behavior tendencies. Literature shows that such findings can translate to greater self-efficacy and performance. Goleman (1998) suggests that a leader's honest self-assessment of their abilities, values, and goals, positively impacts self-confidence and job satisfaction.

RQ3: How does the MBTI personality assessment, combined with a professional development program comprised of a workshop, professional development plan and individualized coaching consultations impact the perceived competency in influencing others?

An MBTI personality assessment, combined with a professional development program comprised of a workshop, professional development plan and individualized coaching consultations positively impacts the perceived competency in social influence by enhancing self-awareness, critical thinking, and self-efficacy. As noted earlier in the results, qualitative participant feedback ($n=5$) found the comprehensive program to be valuable in enhancing participant self-awareness and self-efficacy of how they influence

and the ability to understand the influence styles of others and respond strategically. An unanticipated finding was the value of team-building and improved influence-based understanding within the cohort of colleagues who do not regularly interact socially as they are located at different offices across the state. Coding frequencies and associated thematic syntheses describing the qualitative findings are in Appendix 2 and 3.

Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality-based influence behavior

In this study, participants appreciated the general knowledge of different personality and influence-based personality perspectives. Such insight provided participants with new knowledge on how diverse personalities interpret influence behavior, as well as a new lens in understanding and interpreting personality-based influence behavior from others. This discovery supports the fundamental goal of the MBTI assessment which is to provide individuals with a greater understanding of differences and the impact on their work and social lives (Briggs, 1976).

A developed understanding of diverse personalities can positively impact individuals professionally and personally. Awareness of other personalities with the MBTI can help transcend specific influence activities and mitigate conflict, support job performance and satisfaction, break gender barriers, and increase group performance (Aviles, 2001; Montequín et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2004; Townend, 2007).

Participant 1 valued the knowledge of how others receive and respond to information differently in being better mindful when engaging with others stating, “I think recognizing that different people take in information differently or act upon the same information differently is a good reminder.”

Beyond how diverse preferences take in and process information, Participant 5 appreciated how understanding diverse influence preferences can navigate conversations.

Honestly, it's just the better idea of how do I best communicate with someone who may not be coming from my perspective? . . . It helped with that. And it was a very good reminder that there are certain people who really kind of just intuitively think that this is their gut. And this is what's going to happen, and that sort of thing. And there are other people who really do need to have the facts before they come up with that [influence-based decision]. They must be very empirical before they are confident in anything. There are people who are probably going to have to be more swayed by feelings versus thinking. So, thinking about different ways of communication, I think is always a valuable thing."

Participant 4 commented that they tended to try to always push their objective through a conversation without pausing to listen and interpret how others are seeking to leverage their perspectives or how others were interpreting the participant's influence efforts. Workshop outcomes enlightened Participant 4 toward being more relationally other-oriented when engaging influentially. "This has helped me to realize that. . . I can do a better job, and perhaps make it more of an ongoing ability to influence someone . . . developing more of a rapport with the person instead of just trying to close the deal, I suppose, or win the argument, or have them see my way. I'm always running full steam, so I need to take time to be in the moment. . . it's helped me pay attention to that."

Participants appreciated the general knowledge of different personality and influence-based personality perspectives. Such insight provided participants with new knowledge on how diverse personalities interpret influence behavior, as well as a new lens in how to understand and interpret personality-based influence behavior from others. This discovery supports the fundamental goal of the MBTI assessment which is to provide individuals with a greater understanding of differences and how these differences impact our work and social lives (Briggs, 1976).

Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior

In leadership development, self-awareness leads to self-reflection by comparing one's values, motives, and behaviors (Natsoulas, 1998). With proper feedback, an individual's perceptions about behavioral skills which are typically unmeasured can improve the knowledge of self (Zell & Krizan, 2014). Ruben, De Lisi, Gigliotti, et al. (2023) further adds that self-awareness is essential to effective ongoing leadership development. Study results found that participants developed a new understanding of their own personality-based influence tendencies and recognized areas in which they can improve. This finding is deemed a positive discovery in leadership development as leader self-awareness highlights their present self and who they want to become in the future, thus finding opportunities to grow into their ideal leadership identity (Showry & Manasa, 2014). Furthermore, Showry and Manasa (2014) contend that self-awareness is a greater determinant of leadership success than IQ and technical proficiency.

Participant 6 commented on how the new self-awareness helped them better understand how they enter the influence space and respect how other personality types

may use or interpret influence. Instead of an adversarial position, the new knowledge allowed the participant to understand others and be more open-minded.

“I think it’s a reflection that I can come back to as I think about how I’m interacting or plan to interact with different people, knowing how my influence factors, if you will, how they kind of came about. Why they are what they are. Allows me to think about how I might interact, then, with somebody [who] might be coming from a different perspective or different sort of characteristics.”

Appreciating the new self-understanding, Participant 5 noted that it helped them have a changed perspective on influence, a new awareness of their influence tendencies, and a more contextualized lens on how others within their organizational team approach the influence space.

“I think just the value of knowing myself a bit more, and how I might come off to others or show up when it comes to the work that I do is really helpful. Like that kind of self-awareness as a first step is something that I personally see value in. . . I didn’t necessarily think of influence in the most positive way when we started this process. . . it wasn’t necessarily aligning with how I looked at my work, or what I was doing from my work perspective. But now, kind of circling back to that I do see that in a different way. I think having the awareness of myself and frankly, the others that were on my team, and part of this process was super valuable, because we all show up different.”

Upon beginning the program, Participant 4 had an already established positive view of their influence competency. Completion of the program highlighted key aspects

of successful influence they had not previously considered and reflectively provided them the opportunity to identify areas for development.

“I thought I was pretty good at influencing others. But this has helped me to realize that even if that is the case that I can do a better job, and perhaps make it more of an ongoing ability to influence someone instead of just the one-time thing. Not transactional, but transformational. Those are my fundraising words. You know, developing more of a rapport with the person instead of just trying to close the deal, I suppose, or win the argument, or have them see my way. I’m always running full steam, so I need to take the time to be in the moment, and you know it’s helped me with paying attention to that as well. “

The program helped highlight the self-awareness of how Participant 3 strategically used influence. Rather than influencing through facts, Participant 3 developed a new appreciation for balancing influence as not just data-driven and pragmatic, but a social and relational tool for change

“I think it’s made me in some ways better understanding kind of where my viewpoint is coming from and where I need to occasionally break out of that viewpoint, to provide different sorts of arguments of different sorts of communicating. . . . Honestly, it’s just the better idea of how do I best communicate with someone who may not be coming from my perspective? . . . It was a very good reminder that there are certain people who really kind of just intuitively think that this is their gut. And this is what’s going to happen, and that sort of thing. And there are other people who really do need to have the facts

before the come up with that. There are people who are probably going to have to be more swayed by feelings versus thinking. So, thinking about different ways of communication? I think it is always a valuable thing. . .”

Participant 5 achieved a new self-awareness of influence within the context of CES and identified areas of improvement.

“Coming from AP faculty that are master-of-none jack of a few trades, like that’s an interesting perspective to think about how I show up in a community versus someone that is very specifically trained and how we can make sure that both parties are prepared to influence appropriately and with the best of their abilities to represent the university . . . We talked a lot about warmth and trust and some of these things that come really second nature to some personalities and not so much to others. And I think just for me, that refreshing reminder of this is something that I need to work on is helpful in making sure that that happens.”

Participant 1 developed a new leadership-based influence self-awareness from the perspective of others in thinking more about how others view them in the space of influence, which in turn helped to reflectively identify areas for improvement.

“I think recognizing my own biases and my own lenses helped me be a become a better leader. Especially, when I have someone who’s a different personality type, or has different skills. Understanding how to better bring them into the conversation, or how to make things more effective for them to give them to create that sort of safe space is something that I want to continue to try to work on, and I think that this workshop has helped give me another tool in the toolbox to do that.”

Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Scholars have referred to aspects of community-engaged scholarship as selling due to its practice of change agents – selling and telling a story to internal and external stakeholders to garner support and commitment to a belief that aligns innovative ideas and community resources through the development of partnerships (McReynolds & Shields, 2015). The capacity to organize mutually beneficial outcomes among diverse stakeholders with diverse interests and goals hinges on the capacity to strategically influence others. Termed as “influence-oriented reciprocity”, Dostilio (2012) contends that activities and outcomes from collaborative engagements are a direct result of personally, socially, and environmentally impacted participant influence behavior. The feedback from participants was overwhelmingly positive in how they view the importance of influence competency in CES leadership. Their views aligned with the perspectives of leading CES scholars as they appreciated the new awareness and understanding of influence within the context of community-engaged to change opinions, build transformative relationships, and be visionary connectors within varied social and environmental conditions.

Participant 3 noted the new understanding of influence as a strategy for effectively translating passionate CES work to others with diverse viewpoints.

“I think it usually takes certain people to really want to engage in community-engaged scholarship. I think it’s a certain type of person, and I think we’re all very passionate, normatively, about what we’re doing. But we don’t necessarily live in a society where everyone is as passionate about that component. So, knowing how to communicate with others who are perhaps less passionate or less

understanding of why community engagement and community-engaged scholarship is important, being able to clearly get that across and clear to other people is important for the overall progress and effectiveness of the whole field.”

Rapport, an essential component of effective influence, is also important for community change. Kania and Kramer (2011) support the value of rapport by arguing that behind-the-scenes communications and reinforcing background activities are important for collective community transformation. Relationship development and maintenance are fundamental to mutually positive influence outcomes. During the influence workshop, rapport was a theme of discussion and participants attached its worth to community-engaged scholarship.

According to Participant 1, “I really appreciated the discussions about rapport building, examining what rapport is and how it impacts influencing positively or negatively sort of thing. How you can systematically think about building rapport, building trust, you know, compounding that with warmth sort of thing.”

Entering the program, Participant 5 did not believe influence was an aspect of their activities. However, a new self-understanding has given them a new awareness and appreciation for the influence work they unknowingly performed in their role.

“I think I started out a little naïve in this process. And I was like, I am not having influence. Like that’s not directly happening in my day-to-day life and if it is, it may not be intentional. And so now I do it, again, think that self-realization, understanding of overall concepts of what influence looks like in this space in the work that I do for the university was really helpful because I am doing that work.

I just never approached it that way or called it those terms or thought about it I the same kind of framing.”

Participant 6 appreciated the new understanding as it helped to better understand the value of influence in navigating internal and external partnerships.

“I think having an understanding of influence, and the factors that go into influence is helpful because we work with so many different types of folks on a regular basis. . . The fact that we serve many different communities, both internal to the university and external to the university, influence factors in developing these competencies among leaders allows us to be better listeners of these communities to understand where the issues are, where those solutions possibly could be. And then think more strategically about, how do we help communities and individuals operating in those environments to be able to accomplish what they want to accomplish? According to Participant 4,

“Influence comes into the factor of, ok, now that we understand the issues, we understand where their potential solutions among our community partners, how do we put it all together? And how do we bring in some of these influence factors in order to accomplish what we want to accomplish? So, I think the skills are very relevant in this context and in leadership contexts, especially given the kind of multifaceted nature of people with which we work.”

Participant 4 also suggested that a new understanding of influence could help support more broadscale leadership success at any leadership level by understanding influence preferences through a personality-focused lens.

“It [the understanding of influence] helps you communicate better, helps you to learn about other people, and how they communicate, which will certainly make you more successful in anything you’re doing, whether you’re trying to influence others or just trying to communicate or learn more about the different areas where you work. We don’t all think the same way. We don’t all work the same way, and as a leader, if you expect everyone to function the same way you do, it’s not really a recipe for success. So, I think it’s 100% absolutely useful for anyone at any stage in their career.”

Participant 6 further reiterated how influence competency is essential for CES leader success.

“I think having an understanding of influence, and the factors that go into influence is helpful because we work with so many different types of folks on a regular basis. And you know a lot of times we are trying to encourage them to work with us in a business development context. We are trying to navigate individuals’ participation in programs and having an understanding of influence within the context of instruction, I think, is kinda helpful as we think about ways that we can navigate organizations and individuals and how they interact with the university. . . presenting university perspectives on things it’s helpful to kind of that influence understanding as we engage in those conversations.”

Coaching for reflective influence behavioral change

Individualized trait-based leadership programs have been shown to increase self-awareness, advance leadership-oriented behavioral practices, and improve teamwork and collaboration, employee performance, and motivation of others (Holt et al., 2018; Zadel,

2006). Goal setting also positively impacts self-efficacy, performance, and performance goals (Gist et al., 1991; Kaufman et al., 2008; Latham et al., 2002; Locke & Latham, 1990; Smith et al., 1990). Personality-based coaching has been shown to support self-awareness, motivation for change, and critical thinking (Ladyshevsky, 2007; Martin et al., 2014). Participants in the program commented that coaching sessions were opportunities to think more about workshop learning outcomes in an applied context, thoughtfully reflect on what they learned and how they could strategically improve within an improvement-oriented goal setting.

Participant 1 commented that a big part of their role was influencing others through storytelling and messaging and found that coaching created a space to reflect upon what drives them and the intrinsic challenges to successful influence noting, “It allowed me to examine my own motivations, my own biases. The one-on-one’s [coaching], in particular, helped me drill down conversationally. I think it’s always helpful to be in dialogue about these sorts of things.”

Participant 3 also viewed the reflective coaching as opportunities to contextualize what was learned in the workshop noting, “I think the reflection afterwards of it. . . the discussion with [Researcher] afterwards were helpful in terms of processing the stuff that you learned at the workshop a little bit more. . .”

Participant 4 also appreciated the coaching sessions for the individualization and reflective translation of the learning module into real-life scenario discussions and applications.

“...the one-on-ones [coaching] were more specific and personalized individually, catered to the person she’s talking with, which is great, and getting that one-on-

one attention of like, ‘What did you learn? What’s happened this week that has made me? Do you think about this or what’s coming up? Where do you think you can use this? And how can you use this in your work coming up as you’re planning to influence others?’ Whether its next week or three months down the road to be a participant or be a stakeholder in my programs, et cetera.”

Perspectives of value on influence program and individual components

The influence program was comprised of an MBTI assessment, a personality-based influence development workshop, and two coaching sessions. Most aspects were received positively by participants, however the individual MBTI assessments received mixed reviews.

The first part of the program was the MBTI assessment. As a stand-alone assessment, it received mixed reviews.

According to Participant 1, “. . .Some of the MBTI, the specifics, you know. She’s an NF, he’s an NT kind of thing. My brain doesn’t really remember those very well. And so, being able to catalog those instantly is not gonna be real helpful to me. But being aware of that as a frame of reference, I think is always good. And you know, being aware of the model sort of thing.”

Participant 3 also noted an ambivalence to the MBTI as an independent development tool. However,, after translating it into a component of the workshop Participant 3 found it worthwhile stating, “There was a little jadedness coming into it [MBTI assessment]. So that’s probably the least effective [part of the program]. But it [the program] made it [MBTI assessment] into something that was a more useful tool and a lot more thoughtful than normally, I would have taken it as.”

Coaching was also appreciated in the program with participants commenting that the activity created a supportive space for reflection, goal setting, and accountability. Successful outcomes of coaching have been shown to reduce stress and frustration levels in the workplace and home, and enhance self-esteem and quality of life (Flaherty, 1999; Hudson, 1999; Hunt & Weintraub, 2002). According to Wood Daudelin (1996), effective workplace reflective behavior among leaders only requires a small degree of time and effort for measurable results, which may be far more beneficial than any other structured or expert-led instructional curricula. Goal setting and accountability, as aligned with Self-Determination Theory which is driving by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, is shown to positively impact performance outcomes and overall wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2012). In this case, the intrinsic goal-orientation toward improving one's influence capacity was aligned with the extrinsic motivational factor of desiring approval by the researcher at the next coaching session by following through with the goal-challenges.

Participant 3 viewed coaching as opportunities for reinforcing and applying what was learned in the workshop component.

“It [coaching] helped me to kind of bring back my learning from the workshop. . . it's good for embedding the knowledge. It was good for holding, yeah, that accountability aspect . . . Now that I learned this at the workshop and I made a goal, am I maintaining that?”

Leadership-based reflection, also termed managerial reflection-in-action, occurs as a real-time problem identification, self-assessment, action, critique, and adjustment guided by a reflective discuss throughout the actionable activity (Schon, 1984).

Positive goal-oriented coaching feedback was also contributed by Participant 6 who stated, “I think the goal setting was beneficial. Follow-up coaching was also helpful to kind of solidify how I can think and eventually practice influence behaviors.”

Goal setting and accountability in coaching stood out as surprisingly valuable to Participant 5.

“The goal setting and the coaching I think were the pieces that I was probably frankly the least excited about. But they provided the most tangible action items to me where that accountability that came with me knowing that [Researcher] was expecting me to do certain things and that she was going to have a follow-up meeting with me. I wanted to make sure that I fully was active as a participant in the process. The goal setting was helpful because we just wrapped up our coaching session last week and we set the goals and I made sure that I followed through on those things. . . I think that follow up piece was very tangible, how can you apply this? What does this look like for you to walk out and actually think about a project or an individual that you kind of assert this opportunity of influence around? And the coaching that followed was super helpful for me.”

Strong overall positive program feedback was also provided by participants who appreciated its intrinsic value to develop themselves and think differently about the role of influence in their CES leadership work.

Holistically, Participant 5 appreciated all aspects of the program. The participant valued its inclusion of the MBTI. Participant 5 also found the group composition [colleagues] and phased components of the program to be developmentally valuable by scaffolding each learning component, which is defined as an instructional technique in

which learning occurs through applied activities beyond their current skill level (Bruning et al., 1995) . If guided by effective questions, feedback, and guidance, learners can quickly meet the challenge even if they have not mastered the information (Reiser & Tabak, 2014; Wood & Wood, 1996). Throughout the program and coaching, participants were tasked with increasingly challenging activities within a safe and success-oriented learning space.

“I loved it being based in Myers-Briggs. I just think, again, tried and true, trusted reputation there as far as all of that knowledge and grounding from a place of understanding for that. And that self-realization, as well as the team structure. So, I think it was really great. The workshop itself, I feel like, and maybe it was our group, maybe we didn’t know 100% what we were in for, or how it would play out, knowing what I know now. But I think we also needed that workshop in the middle to get to the implementation point. Frankly, that’s where I was most impacted. After the workshop, I was able to think about the thought and theory a little bit more in terms of what we had described and then put those into action, kind of grounding it in the Myers-Briggs and coaching were super, super helpful.”

Participant 3 also had a positive overall view of the workshop and found the workshop group activities, particularly impactful.

“I think the whole workshop group learning component was really nice. I think that helped a lot. Some of the activities we did around the different personalities or how we come to think. There was one thing like, where are we going to go on vacation? We decided where are we going to go on vacation and have to come up

with an argument. So, the stuff where we worked on together was helpful and beneficial to the overall process.” Participant 1 summed up their positive view and usefulness of the program in a brief comment stating, “. . . I think everyone in that room needs no persuading that engaged scholarship is important. That engaged leadership is important. I think everyone came in open to learning new things and learning things about themselves. And I found it a very good way to spend a couple of hours, man.”

Additional discovery

The day-long small group workshop initiated intimate self-sharing and verbal and non-verbal interactions which typically had not occurred due to the participant’s geographic worksite distances. This format helped support positive interpersonal perceptions and a sense of community among colleagues. Accordingly, additional findings determined that participants appreciated the group structure consisting of new leader colleagues whom they seldom interact with outside of specific work-centered programmatic activities.

Established research suggests that team building satisfaction may have resulted from the open discussions and self-disclosure in the instructor-designated confidential safe space, aligning with Berger and Calabrese’s (1975) uncertainty reduction theory which posits that likeability and relationships are cultivated when positive social norms and disclosures occur. The theory further adds that intimacy and verbal and non-verbal reciprocity in interpersonal interactions lasting for more than a moment enhance intimate knowledge of the other individual. Participant 5 articulated this through their appreciation of how the program enhanced relationships with their colleagues.

“The workshop was great because it takes something very specific to me and my personality, and then put that in a group of other trusted colleagues and how does that play out? And so, that was interesting to not only learn about myself, but to learn about some of those folks I work with on a pretty regular basis. It gave me some good insights into how I can even influence in that kind of relationship dynamic with them as well.”

Participants could confidentially self-disclose personality-based personal information within the workshop while others responded with reassuring and affirming social cues of nods and smiles. By reducing uncertainty, the workshop indirectly cultivated a greater sense of trust resulting from personal information shared within the group (Kelvin, 1977).

Participant 4 appreciated how the self-disclosures and interactions from colleagues along with a new understanding of their personalities created a new perceived sense of cohesion.

“I loved participating in this with some of my colleagues that I work with on a daily basis. It helped me to understand myself better and understand their methods of communication better. . . I found this [workshop] to be very really helpful. . . Because I have colleagues in it that I know them and their personalities [better], and we’re in it together. I can like relate it to them, as far as how different personalities communicate to influence others.”

The aspect of how colleagues view and interpret influence was a key takeaway for Participant 3 stating, “. . . How people are analyzing and understanding and language and

different arguments. . . that [workshop] kind of helped with that [understanding] combined with working with fellow peers in outreach.”

This study explored how understanding personality traits—specifically through the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)—can enhance leadership influence and effectiveness among new administrators in CES. The goal was to develop a professional development model that integrates personality assessments, workshops, and coaching to improve social influence competencies among higher education leaders. While quantitative results showed only slight growth in perceived influence competency, qualitative feedback from participants was overwhelmingly positive. They acknowledged the value of influence competency in CES leadership, aligning with the views of leading CES scholars, and saw influence as a key tool for changing opinions, building transformative relationships, and acting as visionary connectors in diverse social and environmental contexts.

Participants also shared strong overall positive feedback and especially appreciated the program’s intrinsic value in helping them develop personally and think differently about their leadership roles. The day-long small group workshop was highlighted as a significant experience by fostering intimate self-sharing and verbal and non-verbal interactions that are typically limited by geographic worksite distances. This face-to-face interaction helped create a sense of community and camaraderie among colleagues who seldom interact outside of specific work-centered program activities. They valued the opportunity to engage with new leader colleagues in a supportive environment, which further strengthened their perceptions of the program. Additionally, coaching sessions were seen as an essential part of the development model, offering a

reflective space for participants to apply workshop learnings, set improvement-oriented goals, and hold themselves accountable. Coaching has been shown to reduce stress, enhance self-esteem, and improve quality of life (Flaherty, 1999; Hudson, 1999; Hunt & Weintraub, 2002), and participants reported similar benefits, highlighting the effectiveness of this strategy for leadership growth.

Ultimately, the findings emphasize the critical role of self-awareness in leadership development. Participants gained a deeper understanding of their personality-based influence tendencies, which allowed them to identify areas for growth. This supports existing leadership development literature, which underscores self-awareness as a key determinant of leadership success (Showry & Manasa, 2014; Zell & Krizan, 2014). In sum, the study demonstrates how personality-based professional development—combined with coaching and peer interactions—can cultivate more self-reflective, adaptive leaders capable of navigating complex community-engaged environments, fostering positive change, and strategically building relationships.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

The problem in this study was the lack of knowledge surrounding the capacity of new higher education outreach/extension professionals to influence others to act. Moving from independent, entrepreneurial practitioners into operationalized leaders tasked with supervision, volunteer and project coordination, and budget and operational management, places these new administrators into roles in which they are often under-skilled to manage such dynamic responsibilities successfully. Particularly, within the role which requires competencies such as relationship development, conflict resolution, university-community collaboration, and interdisciplinary bridge building, scholars argue that professional development ranks among the top strategies for ensuring these change leaders are adequately prepared to lead as institutional strategists as well as community transformers (Hübler & Quan, 2017; Kezar et al., 2011).

The purpose of this study focused on bridging the gap in leadership capabilities among new CES administrators by exploring how an understanding of personality traits—specifically with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)—can enhance their influence and leadership effectiveness. The research aimed to develop a professional development model that includes personality assessments, workshops, and coaching to enhance social influence competencies among higher education leaders in community engagement.

Based upon the overarching goal of this study, the objectives are detailed as follows:

1. **Benchmark** the initial social influence competencies of new community engagement administrators before any targeted intervention.

2. **Assess** the impact of MBTI-based training on enhancing these competencies by increasing self-awareness and adaptability.
3. **Evaluate** the effectiveness of a comprehensive professional development program, combining personality assessments, workshops, and coaching, on the leadership capacity of these administrators.

Outlined below are the conclusions, implications, and recommendations based on the findings of this study.

Summary of Results

Findings from this study concluded that perceived influence competency is aligned with personality traits among those with extroversive preferences ($n=1$) reporting satisfactory levels of social influence competency. However, outcomes determined that individuals with introversive personality preferences ($n=5$) did not consistently report low levels of influence competency. Knowledge of personality-based preferences was also positively associated with enhanced perceptions of influence effectiveness upon workshop completion.

Furthermore, the personality-based influence workshop, combined with an MBTI personality assessment, a professional development plan, and individualized coaching positively impacted the perceived competency in social influence by enhancing self-awareness, critical thinking, and self-efficacy. Respondents noted that the comprehensive program was valuable because it enhanced their self-awareness and self-efficacy in how they influence and the ability to understand the influence styles of others and respond strategically.

Discussion

The synthesis of the quantitative and qualitative outcomes of this study positively supports the position that among new community-engaged scholarship leaders in higher education, an understanding of how one's personality-based influence preferences impact their perceived influence capacity. Furthermore, findings suggest that the new development of one's influence capacity extends into a greater understanding of how others perceive and use personality-based influence techniques, the value of influence competency in community-engaged scholarship, and the utility of coaching as a tool for knowledge application and reflection in influence-based behavioral change.

Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality-based influence behavior

Qualitative outcomes suggest that personality-based influence leadership development develops a new CES leaders reflective and other-oriented understanding of how others use and interpret influence-based interactions. Improved understanding and self-awareness among leaders support ethical individual growth, organizational effectiveness, and leadership empowerment within these leaders, their colleagues, and the workplace (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016). For successful leaders, development is also a lifelong learning process (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). According to Ruben et al. (2023), the key to leadership growth is the ongoing cycle of knowledge, understanding, and self-awareness. Results of this study exhibit developmental growth in influence-based self-awareness among these leaders which has the potential to translate across other interpersonal activities which necessitate socially strategic finesse.

Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior

The quantitative results supported by qualitative feedback from this study support the hypothesis that an MBTI personality assessment, combined with a professional development program comprised of a workshop, professional development plan and individualized coaching consultations positively impacts the perceived competency in social influence by enhancing self-awareness, critical thinking, and self-efficacy. Respondents in this study noted that the personality-based influence development workshop was instrumental in providing them with previously unconsidered insight into their behavioral preferences in influencing others and in how they perceive and interpret influential interactions by others. Study results exhibited developmental growth in influence-based self-awareness among these leaders, which has the potential to translate across other interpersonal activities that necessitate socially strategic finesse.

Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Qualitative results reflected a highly positive view on the importance of influence competency in CES leadership supporting Dostilio's (2012) concept of reciprocal influence dynamics. Before entering the program, the participant's perspectives on influence were not viewed in a mutual, purposeful way. Influence was termed as online social behavior, one-sided, and non-existent in their work. However, participants gained new strategies on personality-oriented strategies to use socio-behavioral techniques and fact-specific information according to diverse personality preferences in their influence efforts. Upon conclusion of the personality-based influence workshop, participants gained new insight into how influence is more than goal-specific persuasion but is comprised of ongoing relationship cultivation and maintenance built on trust and rapport.

Coaching for reflective influence-based behavioral change

Responses from qualitative interviews positively showed how one's personality-based influence preferences impacts the perceived influence capacity of new community-engaged scholarship leaders in higher education. Beyond the enhanced influence capacity, discoveries also support the importance of influence-based leadership development in CES, the value of coaching in influence-based leadership development in CES, and the appreciation of cohort personality-based leadership development programming in CES. Participants positively viewed the follow-up coaching sessions as opportunities for implementation planning and accountability. Most participants perceived outcomes of their influence goals to be successful, supporting the Spence and Grant (2005) argument that directed and engaged coaching results in greater perceived goal attainment.

Implications

Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality-based influence behavior

A new CES leader with a developed understanding of how personality preferences impact their influence behavior and those of the individuals and groups they are working with can have a substantive impact within the higher education institution, the administrative unit they lead, and the communities they serve. From an institutional perspective, knowing how others influence and interpret influence gives new CES leaders greater insight into the personality and communicative preferences of the individuals they are interacting with. As relationship development and management are key factors in effective influence, understanding different influence dynamics provides new CES leaders the adaptive ability to engage with stakeholders, which is most beneficial to

effective interpersonal interactions and mutually successful outcomes. As new leaders interact with senior-level executives, having skilled expertise in influence can positively impact how they are perceived by senior administrators and expand their professional creditability within and beyond the university (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016; Floyd & Wooldridge, 1997).

Influence competency can also contribute to positive outcomes within the office space. The strategic use of influence among subordinates to value organizational outcomes over individual achievement can result in an employee's greater appreciation of the institutional goals, finding purpose within their work, and greater loyalty to the leader and organization (Chaturvedi et al., 2019).

Furthermore, influence competency can help to support the expectation of CES leaders to lead as successful boundary spanners (Weerts & Sandmann, 2010) and intersectionally link the calls to action by Van Schyndel et al. (2019) for CES leaders to fulfill the roles of community-based problem solvers and internal and external engagement advocates.

Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior

The recognition of how one influences and is influenced by others is not only a strategic means for how to impact and interpret persuasive efforts in interpersonal interactions but develop one's influence preferences within the context of personality preferences can resonate across other areas within leadership and team development. Individualized trait-based leadership programs have shown an increased self-awareness, advance leadership-oriented behavioral practices, improve teamwork and collaboration, employee performance, and motivation of others (Holt et al., 2018; Zadel, 2006).

Improved understanding of self-efficacy and self-awareness is shown to support ethical individual growth, organizational effectiveness, and leadership empowerment within themselves, their colleagues, and the workplace (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016; Parrish, 2010). Successful leadership development hinges upon lifelong learning (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). According to Ruben, De Lisi and Gigliotti (2023), the key to leadership growth is the ongoing cycle of knowledge, understanding, and self-awareness.

The new self-awareness of how these leaders influence and are influenced by others has implications among how subordinates perceive them. This discovery creates opportunities for new CES leaders to further their self-understanding, step outside themselves, and contextualize how their team views them as Moshavi et al. (2003) argue that leader self-awareness of their leadership behavior is associated with greater supervisor and job satisfaction than leaders less adept in their leadership competencies.

Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Outcomes showed a new knowledge-based understanding and appreciation of the role of influence among new leaders in community-engaged leadership who participated in the personality-based influence workshop. Insight into the role of influence is a strategic asset for new leaders as it provides a reflective understanding of personality preferences to influentially impact others, how others seek to impact them influentially, and translating knowledge into success as skilled communicators in community partnerships, within the office as managers and volunteer supervisors, and as resource allocators within the university.

Such insight can help fulfill the longstanding need for skilled change agents to have the capacity to promote incentivized faculty engagement and interdisciplinary

research in community-engaged scholarship (Kellogg Commission, 1999). Furthermore, skilled influence capacity can greatly impact the historical challenges of university-community engagement among oppressed communities as unilinear, dismissing the power imbalances and perpetuating the indoctrination and silencing of underserved communities without creating reciprocal space for influential feedback from these populations (Hernandez & Pasquesi, 2017).

Coaching for reflective influence-based behavioral change

Despite the positive outcomes of coaching exhibited in this investigation, the depth of literature on coaching-based leadership development among new CES leaders and the broader field of higher education middle management (Cruz & Rosemond, 2017) remains shallow. This is surprising considering substantive findings that show that personality-based coaching supports self-awareness, motivation for change, and critical thinking (Ladyshevsky, 2007; Martin et al., 2014). Numerous studies also show that positive outcomes related to coaching extend beyond workplace performance and result in greater job satisfaction and motivation and a better quality of life in the workplace and at home (Flaherty, 1999; Hudson, 1999; Hunt & Weintraub, 2002).

Recommendations

Community-engaged scholarship is in an era of transition at the organizational and individual levels. Once viewed as coordinator roles, CES professionals are now expected to be transformative experts prepared to influentially lead change-oriented initiatives through strategic programming and civic engagement (Dostilio & Perry, 2017; Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013b). Whereas executive-level CES leadership development

literature has a robust body of scholarship (Kezar et al., 2011; Liang & Sandmann, 2015; Plater, 2011; Sandmann & Plater, 2009), data has remained insufficient on how unit-level administrators can effectively develop themselves as transformative, social entrepreneurs (Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013b).

This study presents a tremendous opportunity to reframe the limited understanding of leadership development strategies for unit-level leaders into a model for limitless opportunities for exploration, which is furthermore supported within this study by the desire and appreciation of new CES unit leaders to advance their leadership competencies to achieve better outcomes within their new roles amid rapidly changing expectations. For example, Bringle et al. (2009) referenced Duck's (1988; 1994) work on the relational value of self-awareness in partnership development, facilitation, and management.

Thematic findings showed an appreciative new self-awareness of how the knowledge of personality-based influence preferences can impact how one interacts and interprets relational interactions, specifically influence-oriented interactions. Such insight supports the Weerts and Sandmann (2010) call to transform task-oriented practitioners into community-oriented engagement champions bridging the duality of community-campus partnerships.

Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality-based influence behavior

As an emerging field, the literature in community-engaged scholarship has developed numerous models on the professional expectations and supporting competencies of CES leaders regarding how these leaders fulfill the roles of change agents by bridging institutions and communities. However, the literature does not yet

firmly grasp the strategies needed to cultivate such skilled requisites of how these leaders can be effectively prepared to impact others. The outcomes of this study show that personality-based influence development can help to develop future leaders in dynamic ways that address much of the competencies and expected outcomes listed among the widely accepted CES leadership models by providing them with the other-oriented understanding of how influence can have mutually beneficial outcomes. Therefore, this study highlights the need for scholars to reflectively pause on advancing the complexity of current CES leadership models and focus on the need for developmental programming strategies on how to develop leaders to successfully achieve such expected outcomes.

Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior

Emotional intelligence is shown to have a widespread impact on a leader's performance outcomes and overall quality of life (Parrish, 2010). Developing a skilled professional into advanced leadership roles takes significant amounts of time and effort by the professional and the institutional leaders guiding their career development. To ensure a satisfactory return on investment, institutions should prioritize new leader soft skill development as a strategic long-term investment toward their professional success and personal satisfaction. CES leaders as competent influencers aligns with both the literature in leadership as well as emerging scholarship in community engagement. Focusing on the development of new CES leaders as effective influencers can establish them as innovative bridge builders between the institutions and communities they serve, as well as enhance their job performance and satisfaction which is tied directly to emotional intelligence.

Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Participant feedback noted the influence program's emphasis on rapport building as a component of influence was highly valuable in enlightening them about the long-term importance of recognizing partnerships as networks of sustainable relationships instead of transactional collaborations. As this study only interpreted the new understanding of influence and rapport among participants, future research should explore the long-term impact of rapport building upon a CES leader's influence capacity as perceived by both the professional and partner. Outcomes from such efforts can help to inform the literature on developing strategies for non-specific rapport building and relationship maintenance as a strategy for new CES leaders to leverage influence with community partners.

Coaching for reflective influence-based behavioral change

Due to the time constraints of this study, only a limited number of coaching sessions on a specific influence-based goal were conducted. Suggestions for future research should consider an exploratory longitudinal study on the role of long-term leadership development coaching and its impact on leadership-based job-satisfaction, influence-based self-efficacy, and overall quality of life. Outcomes within this area of research can help inform CES leadership development programming to incorporate strategies that support job satisfaction, motivation, and job retention. Higher education institutions that employ CES leaders should incorporate goal-oriented coaching as part of the professional development plan of new leaders. Such coaching strategies will allow space for new leaders the guided space reflect upon their development and a scaffolded plan for more challenging goals to enhance their proficiency and self-efficacy.

Influence-based Leadership Development in CES

This study's specific focus on influence development also addresses the argument that CES leaders must be able to establish a sense of trust and accountability within the university-community partnership (Leiderman et al., 2002). Studies show that trust (based on shared values) and confidence (based on experience or proof) support people's inclination to accept new innovations (Christopher et al., 2008; Earle & Siegrist, 2006; Siegrist et al., 2003). This study highlighted numerous positive implications from influence-based leadership programming. Resulting from this workshop, participants had a new understanding of how others use and interpret influence behavior, a new reflective recognition of their influence preferences and the role of personality in how they use and interpret influence, a new appreciation of the value and importance of influence in community-engaged scholarship, and a community-building greater understanding and appreciation of how their professional colleagues who attended the workshop use and interpret influence. Therefore, institutions focused on community-engaged scholarship should prioritize cohort-focused programming emphasizing personality-based influence preferences to develop CES leaders as transformative community change agents and translational institutional collaborators.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Table 1
Perceived Influence Competency and Importance

Question	<i>n1</i> = Pre-test Mean	<i>n2</i> = Post-test Mean	Variance	Change %
Level of influence effectiveness	6.0	6.17	+.17	+3.4%
Direct, reasoned, straightforward: Importance	4.5	4.33	-.18	-3.6%
Direct, reasoned, straightforward: Proficiency	3.5	4.0	+.5	+10%
Practical, positive, personal: Importance	4.5	4.33	-.18	-3.6%
Practical, positive, personal: Proficiency	3.67	4.0	+.33	+6.6%
Passionate, encouraging, impactful: Importance	4.5	4.33	-.18	-3.6%
Passionate, encouraging, impactful: Proficiency	3.5	3.67	+.12	+2.4%
Competent, challenging, compelling: Importance	4.0	4.17	+.17	+3.4%
Competent, challenging, compelling: Proficiency	3.33	3.0	-.33	-6.6%
Influence: Provide pros and cons	3.5	3.5	0.0	NC
Influence: Hesitate or become too emotional	2.0	2.33	+.33	+6.6%
Influence: Are honest, leading by example	4.17	4.0	-.17	-3.4%
Influence: Deceptive or use big words	1.5	1.83	+.33	+6.6%
Influence: Engage values and imagination	3.67	3.33	-.34	-6.8%
Influence: Provide too many details or lack energy	2.83	2.67	-.16	-3.2%
Influence: Acknowledge expertise and ideas of others	4.33	4.0	-.33	-6.6%
Unprepared or focused	2.0	2.0	0.0	NC

Appendix 2

Table 2
Coding Frequency Table

Code	Freq.	Theme
Impact of reflection in coaching activities in influence skill development	5	Coaching to support influence behavioral change
Impact of coaching-based goal setting and accountability in influence skill development	2	Coaching to support influence behavioral change
Impact of coaching-based goal setting as a strategy for putting knowledge into practice	1	Coaching to support influence behavioral change
Impact of coaching-based self-set goals and reflection	1	Coaching to support influence behavioral change
Impact of coaching-based self-set goals for empowerment	1	Coaching to support influence behavioral change
Perception of the value of MBTI as a component of the workshop program	4	Perspectives of value on influence program and individual components
Perceptions MBTI as a stand stand-alone development activity	3	Perspectives of value on influence program and individual components
Positive perceptions of professional value and learning outcomes of the workshop	3	Perspectives of value on influence program and individual components
Self-awareness of participant influence preferences	6	Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior
Self-understanding of influence-based behavioral change resulting from program	1	Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior
Enhanced influence self-efficacy	4	Self-efficacy of one's perceived ability to influence others
Self-understanding of individual influence-based areas of improvement	4	Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior
Workshop: Team building understanding how colleagues influence and are influenced	9	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Understanding how others influence and are influenced	4	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Leadership development through the understanding how others influence and are influenced	3	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Leadership development through the understanding of rapport in influence	1	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Influence communicative professional development through the self-awareness of the differences in how one is influenced	1	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Professional development through the understanding of organizational influence-based diverse viewpoints	1	Understanding how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior
Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship	9	Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Professional impact of self-awareness of the value of influence in community-engaged scholarship	2	Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship
Applied understanding of the role of influence in community-engaged scholarship	3	Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship

Appendix 3

Table 3
Main Themes

Main Themes	Frequency
Understanding of how others perceive and utilize personality- based influence behavior	19
Self-awareness of one's personality-based influence behavior	15
Value of influence in community-engaged scholarship	14
Coaching for reflective influence behavioral change	10
Perspectives of value on influence program and individual components	10

Appendix 4

Qualitative Interview Questions

- 1.** How has knowing your personality preferences for influence impacted your understanding of how you influence others?
- 2.** How did the MBTI personality assessment, influence-focused workshop, goal-setting, and individualized coaching consultations impact your perceived competency in influencing others?
- 3.** Which aspect or aspects of the program had the greatest impact on your skill development in influencing others? Why?
- 4.** Which aspect had the least impact on your skill development in influencing others? Why?
- 5.** Do you think there is value in developing the social influencing skills of new leaders in community-engaged scholarship? Why?

Appendix 5

Pre- and post-workshop personality-base perceived influence capacity evaluation survey

Adapted from: Killen, D., Carter, D., Doyle, B., Flaherty, A., & Moran, S. (2023). *Impactful Influencing Participant Workbook*. The Myers-Briggs Company.

First Name

Last Name

Phone

Email Address

How would you rate your current level of influence effectiveness?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Level of influence effectiveness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Importance [Not Important, Very Important]

	1	2	3	4	5
Direct, reasoned, and straightforward	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Practical, positive, personal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Passionate, encouraging, impactful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent, challenging, compelling	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Proficiency[No Proficiency,Very Proficient]

	1	2	3	4	5
Direct, reasoned, and straightforward	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Practical, positive, personal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Passionate, encouraging, impactful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent, challenging, compelling	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

When you are influencing others, you . . .

	Never	Once in a while	About half the time	Most of the time	Always
Provide pros and cons	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hesitate or become too emotional	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are honest, leading by example	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are deceptive or using big words	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Engage values and imagination	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide too many details or lack energy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Acknowledge expertise and ideas of others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are unprepared or unfocused	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 6

IRB Approval Letter



Division of Scholarly Integrity and
Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120 (MC 0497)
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-3732
irb@vt.edu
<http://www.research.vt.edu/sirc/hrpp>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: March 25, 2024
TO: Rick Rudd, Cris Thompson
FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572)
PROTOCOL TITLE: A Mixed-methods Investigation of How the Knowledge of Personality and Personality-based Influencing Preferences Impact the Perceived Influence Capacity of New Leaders in Higher Education Community Engaged Practice
IRB NUMBER: 24-081

Effective March 25, 2024, the Virginia Tech Human Research Protection Program (HRPP) determined that this protocol meets the criteria for exemption from IRB review under 45 CFR 46.104(d) category (ies) 2(ii),3(i)(B).

Ongoing IRB review and approval by this organization is not required. This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these activities impact the exempt determination, please submit an amendment to the HRPP for a determination.

This exempt determination does not apply to any collaborating institution(s). The Virginia Tech HRPP and IRB cannot provide an exemption that overrides the jurisdiction of a local IRB or other institutional mechanism for determining exemptions.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

<https://secure.research.vt.edu/external/irb/responsibilities.htm>

(Please review responsibilities before beginning your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Determined As: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.104(d) category(ies) 2(ii),3(i)(B)**
Protocol Determination Date: **March 25, 2024**

ASSOCIATED FUNDING:

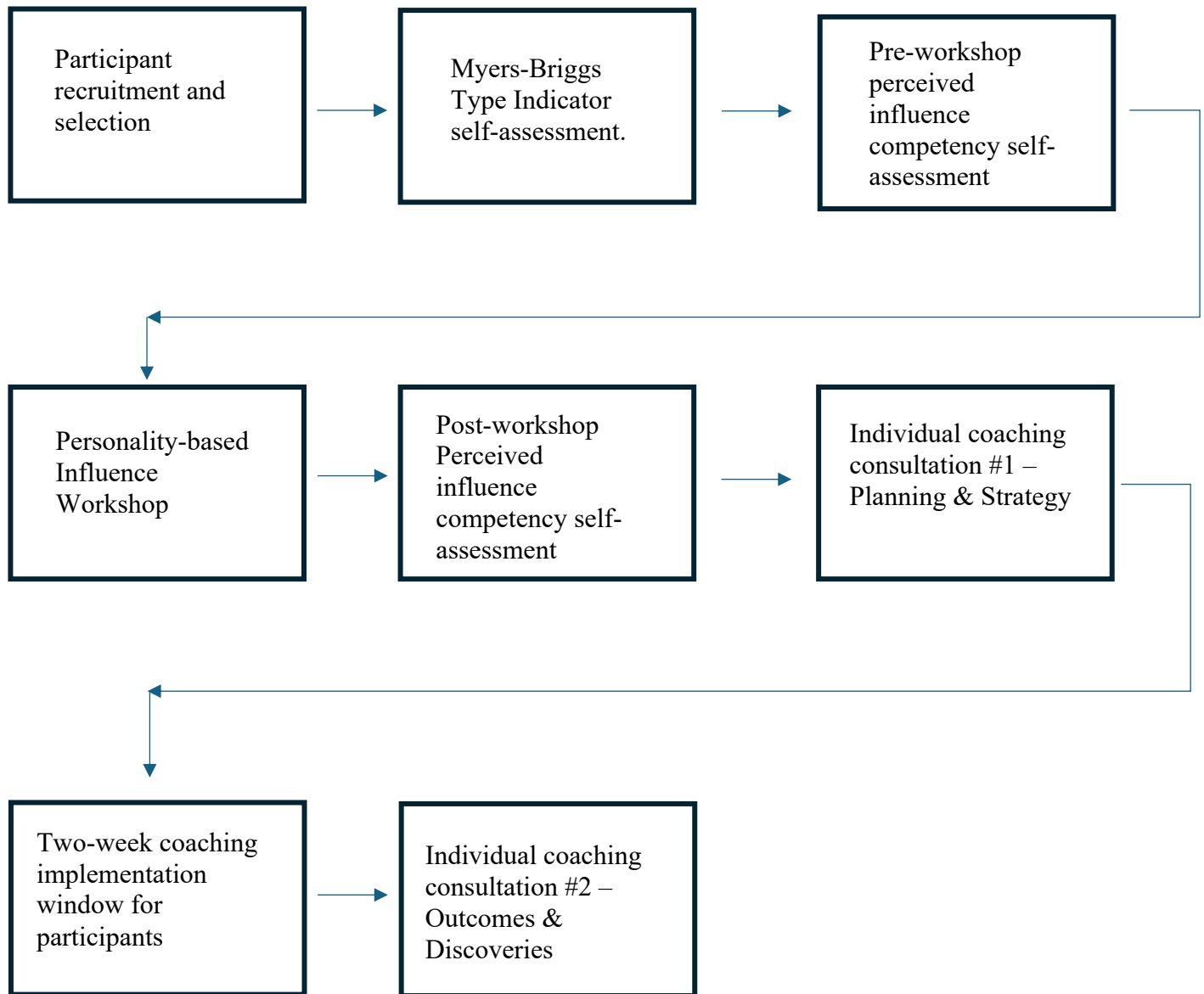
The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this protocol, if required.

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Appendix 7

Figure 1
Illustrative Showing Steps of Intervention



Appendix 8

Figure 2
Data Analysis

RQ1: What is the perceived social influencing competency of new community engagement leaders?

Data: Pret-workshop
Perceived influence
competency self- assessment

Analysis: Likert 5- point scale score
mean calculated from all 6
participants

Calculation:

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6}{6} \right) = n1$$

RQ2: Is there an association between the knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences and perceived competency to influence others?

Data: Post-workshop
Perceived influence
competency self- assessment

Step 1 Analysis: Likert 5- point scale score mean
calculated from 6 participants

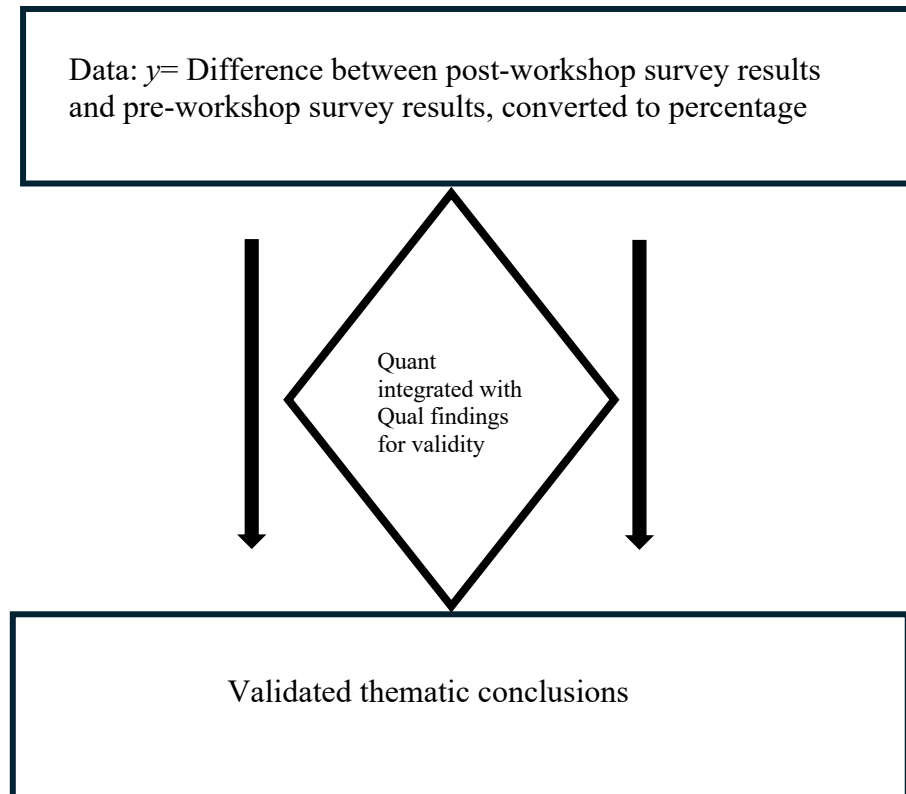
Calculation:

$$\frac{(x1_1 + x1_2 + x1_3 + x1_4 + x1_5 + x1_6)}{6} = n2$$

Step 2 Analysis: Difference between post-
workshop survey results and pre-workshop
survey results, converted to percentage

$$\frac{n2 - n1}{n1} \times 100 = y$$

RQ3: How does the MBTI personality assessment, combined with a professional development program comprised of a workshop, professional development plan, and individualized coaching consultations impact the perceived competency in influencing others?



Appendix 9

Statement on Research Paradigm

As a researcher grounded in a pragmatist philosophy of inquiry, my approach is driven by the goal of addressing real-world problems and generating practical, actionable knowledge that can have a tangible impact. I believe that research should be a dynamic and flexible process, responsive to the needs and complexities of the situation at hand, rather than being constrained by rigid methodologies or theoretical doctrines.

At the core of my approach is the understanding that truth is not absolute but emerges through practical application and real-world consequences. Knowledge is something that evolves, grounded in its utility and relevance to the context in which it is applied. For me, research is not an abstract exercise but a tool for solving problems, improving practices, and driving positive change. This pragmatist orientation leads me to embrace both qualitative and quantitative methods, drawing from each depending on the nature of the research question and the specific context. I do not see one methodology as superior but rather use them in complementary ways to offer a fuller, richer understanding of the issues being investigated.

As an MBTI practitioner, I am acutely aware of how personality preferences might influence participants' engagement with research or programs. My knowledge of personality types sometimes subjects me to presumptive biases, where I may make assumptions about how individuals will respond or interact based on their personality profiles. Recognizing this, I remain mindful of these biases and actively work to mitigate them, ensuring that my research remains objective, and participants' behaviors and perspectives are understood in a holistic and non-reductive way.

Additionally, I acknowledge that my professional relationships with participants create a dual dynamic in my research process. On one hand, these relationships can foster a comfortable and open environment, allowing for easier communication and collaboration. On the other hand, they may present challenges, particularly when it comes to intimate self-disclosures. Participants may feel both at ease and, at times, constrained by the presence of established interpersonal dynamics, which could affect the depth and authenticity of their disclosures. Being aware of this, I aim to create a balance where participants feel safe to share openly while maintaining professional boundaries that respect both their comfort and privacy.

I approach my research with reflexivity, continuously examining how my own background, experiences, and relationships shape my interactions and interpretations throughout the research process. This reflective stance is central to ensuring that I remain aware of my own biases, assumptions, and positionality as a researcher. By being mindful of these influences, I can better navigate the complexities of research and ensure that the findings are both credible and ethically grounded.

Ultimately, my commitment to pragmatism lies in creating research that not only enhances our understanding of the world but also leads to practical, evidence-based solutions that can improve the lives of individuals, communities, and organizations. I strive for knowledge that is adaptable, context-sensitive, and oriented toward meaningful, real-world outcomes.

Appendix 10

IRB Protocol

INSTRUCTIONS:

- Use this “*TEMPLATE PROTOCOL (HRP-503)*” to prepare a study protocol outlining your research plan.
- Depending on the nature of your study, some major sections might not be applicable to your research. If so, simply mark as “N/A.” For example, a simple survey might have many sections with “N/A.” For subsections (e.g., 1.x or 8.x) you can mark as “N/A” if you are certain that the subsection is not applicable.
- Once the IRB/HRPP approves your submission, your latest approved version of the protocol will be stored in the IRB Protocol Management online system.
- If your research plan changes and you need to modify the protocol, please submit an amendment to Protocol Management with the requested modifications. Download your current protocol from Protocol Management and indicate the changes/revisions using the track changes feature in order to make review of the modifications easier to follow. If you are unable to use track changes, please create a new paragraph wherever you need to make a change, and indicate “Amendment: Date” before making a change to any section. Protocol management will store the older versions of your protocol if the IRB or HRPP staff need to compare them during the review.

PROTOCOL TITLE:

Include the full protocol title.

A Mixed-methods Investigation of How the Knowledge of Personality and Personality-based Influencing Preferences Impact the Perceived Influence Capacity of New Leaders in Higher Education Community Engaged Practice

PROTOCOL NUMBER:

Include the number assigned in Protocol Management (verify this has been added before submitting protocol to HRPP).

24-081

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR:

Full Name and Degrees: Rick Rudd, Ph.D.

Department: Agricultural, Leadership, & Community Education

Telephone Number: 540-231-4849

Email Address: rrudd@vt.edu

FUNDING:

Sponsor(s): na

Funded already or in the proposal phase?: [Click here to provide a response.](#)

Is Virginia Tech the primary awardee or the coordinating center of this grant or contract? If not, list the primary institution: [Click here to provide a response.](#)

VERSION NUMBER/DATE:

Include the version number and date of this protocol. Versions should start at 1.0.

[Click here to provide a response.](#)

REVISION HISTORY:

Use this table to keep track of changes. Add more rows as needed.

Revision #	Version Date	Brief Summary of Changes (i.e., the different sections)	Consent Change?
1	02/25/2024	Replace orig 503 a with 503	y

1.0 Study Summary

Study Title	
Study Design	<i>e.g., your research design and statistical/analytic plan</i>
Primary Objective	<i>The primary outcome or goal of your research</i>
Secondary Objective(s)	<i>The secondary outcome(s) or goal(s) of your research</i>
Study Population	<i>To whom will you be generalizing your findings?</i>
Sample Size	<i>How many people will you recruit for your study?</i>
Research Intervention(s)/ Investigational Agent(s)	<i>e.g., surveys, interviews, observations, collection of EEG data, behavioral interventions</i>
Study Duration for Individual Participants	<i>How long will a participant spend in your study? If multiple sessions, list time required for each session plus total.</i>
Acronyms and Definitions	

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Describe the purpose, specific aims, or objectives of this study:

The purpose of this proposed study is to understand the relationship between knowing one's personality type and personality-based social influencing preferences and their effect on enhancing the perceived influence capacity of new higher education leaders of community-engaged practice (CEP) using Myers-Briggs Type personality assessment combined with an influence-focused workshop, goal-setting, and coaching.

2.2 State the hypotheses to be tested:

RQ1: What is a new community engagement leaders perceived social influencing competency?

RQ2: Is there an association between the knowledge of personality and personality-based influence preferences and perceived competency to influence others?

RQ3: How does the MBTI personality assessment, influence-focused workshop, goal-setting, and individualized coaching consultations, impact the perceived competency in influencing others?

3.0 Background

3.1 Summarize the relevant prior research on this topic and gaps in current knowledge within the field of study:

The skilled community engagement professional (CEP) (Dostilio, 2016; Dostilio & McReynolds, 2015; Jacoby & Mutascio, 2010; McReynolds & Shields, 2015) acts as the keystone to change, leading successful outcomes between university change agents and community-based partners (CBP). Throughout their roles, community engagement professionals must be influential leaders, competent in the ability to navigate diverse groups and divergent perspectives, create mutually successful partnerships, champion community engagement within the institution, community, region, and beyond, manage and resolve conflict, empower students, staff, and the communities they serve, collaborate across disciplines, and facilitate – meetings, faculty reflections, student discussions (Dostilio & Perry, 2017). Doberneck et al. (2018) argue that competent community-engaged professionals are also experts in facilitating social change, engaging with diverse populations, and spanning boundaries between academic and community groups. However, careered faculty and engagement professionals transitioning to community engagement administration may need help translating professional experience and technical expertise into their new roles as leaders. A substantive body of research shows a shortage in

community-engaged scholars' approach to cultivating equitable partnerships (Jagosh et al., 2012; Lantz et al., 2001; Sandy & Holland, 2006). To establish the groundwork for the professionalization of community engagement, scholars continue to evolve the models of core CES competencies (Atilas, 2019; Blanchard et al., 2009; Dostilio, 2017; McNall et al., in press; Suvedi & Ghimire, 2015). Therefore, as a new and emerging field, the focus of this study seeks to contribute knowledge towards the professionalization of community-engaged scholarship (DeGraaf & Hirt, 2015; Dostilio, 2017; McDonnell et al., 2023).

3.2 *Describe any relevant preliminary data:*

na

3.3 *Based on the existing literature, provide the scientific or scholarly rationale for and significance of your research and how will it add to existing knowledge:*

The outcomes of this study will contribute to the gap in literature related to the practice of higher education-engaged scholarship. No known literature exists regarding individualized personality-based professional development in the field.

4.0 Study Endpoints

4.1 *Describe the primary and secondary **study** endpoints. See links below for discussion of study endpoints and how they may differ from study objectives. These are most common in clinical trials but are sometimes applicable to other types of biomedical research, as well as social, behavioral, or educational research. See link below for a discussion.*

https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Wocz7K7a0hCQJPP0_khh5l1SQQjhGDDGHzcOPRHR5Tw/edit?usp=sharing

The study begins when participants complete the first qualitative self-efficacy survey and ends when each participant completes the summative qualitative interview to assess the perceived change in influence self efficacy.

4.2 *Describe any primary or secondary **safety** endpoints. These should be included for all studies that are greater than minimal risk. (Minimal risk: The probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research that are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or*

during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.):

Risks to subjects are minimized to the extent possible by using sound research design.

5.0 Study Design and Statistical Analysis Plan

5.1 *Describe the basic study design/approach (e.g., qualitative study using five focus groups of first year students to describe assimilation into the university community; randomized controlled trial of a behavioral change intervention to increase dietary intake of whole grains; pre- post-test evaluation of new pedagogical techniques to improve adult literacy):*

1. Quantitative survey to benchmark perceived self-efficacy of influencing others.
2. Individual MBTI personality assessment 3. Group workshop intervention. 4. Retake quantitative survey to measure perceived self-efficacy of influencing others post-workshop. 5. 2 individual coaching sessions. 6. Wrap up individual 1-hour qualitative interviews.

5.2 *Describe corresponding data analysis plan/approach (e.g., content analysis of focus group transcripts; descriptive analysis followed by linear regression modeling; nonparametric analysis of pre- and post-test measures):*

Qualitative analysis of individual interviews, quantitized to support quantitative survey results. Pre and post test results will be comparatively analyzed with simple t test analysis.

6.0 Setting

6.1 *Describe the sites or locations where your research team will conduct the research. Consider each of the items listed below:*

- *Identify where your research team will identify and recruit potential subjects.*
- *Identify where the team will perform the research procedures.*
- *Describe the composition and involvement of any community advisory board(s).*
- *For research conducted in other locations, describe:*
 - *Site-specific regulations or customs affecting the research at those locations.*
 - *Local scientific and ethical review structure at those locations.*

Examples include work in other cultures or ethnic groups (within or outside of the U.S.) and work with churches. The HRPP will provide additional guidance for international research.

Recruitment sites will be among units with the Virginia Tech Office of Outreach and International Affairs with approximate recruitment numbers below:

Virginia Tech main campus Blacksburg - 5

Virginia Tech Roanoke Campus 2

Virginia Tech Abingdon Higher Ed Center - 1

Virginia Tech Newport News Campus 1

Virginia Tech Reynolds Homestead Critz VA - 1

Virginia Tech Richmond 2

7.0 Study Intervention(s)/Investigational Agent(s)

7.1 Describe the study interventions (including behavioral interventions) and/or investigational agents (e.g., drugs or devices) to be used in this study. Consider each of the items listed below:

- *Drug/Device Handling: If the research involves drugs or devices, describe your plans to store, handle, and administer the drugs or devices so that they will be used only on subjects, and only by authorized investigators.*
- *Describe whether any of the following will be used: microwaves, X-rays, DEXA scans, general anesthesia, or sedation*
- *If control of the drugs or devices used in this protocol will be accomplished by following an established, approved organizational SOP (e.g., Research Pharmacy SOP for the Control of Investigational Drugs, etc.), please reference the SOP in this section.*

Behavioral interventions: MBTI consultation, Professional development workshop, individual coaching sessions

7.2 List the name of all drugs (including any vitamins, supplements, herbs, or nicotine) to be used in the study. Indicate whether they have FDA approval, and list any limitations for their use:

na

- 7.3 *List all devices, how they will be used, their purpose in the study, and if they will be used in a manner consistent with their approved uses. If they will be used in ways that are not yet FDA approved, indicate whether they need an IDE or a determination that they are exempt from the IDE Determination. If a determination of significant risk or non-significant risk is needed for any of the devices, include the researcher's recommendation for each of those devices:*

Myer's Briggs Personality Assessment (Test details are behind a paid firewall):

<https://www.mbtionline.com/en-US/How-it-works/How-it-works> .Questions used in MBTI are proprietary information. Users pay to get results. Document attached. – Software is confirmed for VT research use.

[Name, email, phone, job title, office address, length of experience - will be collected through Qualtrics](#)

- 7.4 *If the drug is investigational (has an IND) or the device has an IDE or a claim of abbreviated IDE (non-significant risk device), include the following information:*
- *Identify the holder of the IND/IDE/abbreviated IDE.*
 - *Explain procedures followed to comply with sponsor requirements for FDA regulated research for the following:*

FDA Regulation	<i>Applicable to:</i>		
	<i>IND Studies</i>	<i>IDE studies</i>	<i>Abbreviated IDE studies</i>
<i>21 CFR 11</i>	<i>X</i>	<i>X</i>	
<i>21 CFR 54</i>	<i>X</i>	<i>X</i>	
<i>21 CFR 210</i>	<i>X</i>		
<i>21 CFR 211</i>	<i>X</i>		
<i>21 CFR 312</i>	<i>X</i>		
<i>21 CFR 812</i>		<i>X</i>	<i>X</i>
<i>21 CFR 820</i>		<i>X</i>	

na

8.0 Procedures Involved

8.1 *Describe and explain the study design:*

The study's professional development intervention incorporates the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality assessment and consultation, a personality-focused workshop on influence, a goal-setting development plan, and individualized follow-up coaching sessions. Intervention results inform the study questions regarding perceived social influence competency, knowledge of personality-based influence preferences and perceived influence competency, and the impact of the professional development program on perceived influence competency. Research methods include quantitative workshop pre- and post-tests measuring perceived influence competency, an end-of-study semi-structured interview interpreting the program's impact, and data from both sources quantitized into a mixed-methods analysis for correlative explanation and validity.

8.2 *Provide a description of:*

- *All research procedures being performed*
- *If the study has more than one procedure, session, and/or subject population, describe each procedure, session, and/or study population separately. For complex studies, you are encouraged to include a figure or chart.*

. Upon voluntary acceptance to participate, subjects will be screened to confirm eligibility regarding employment status and current-role leadership experience. Following the screening, participants were provided with a document that details their rights as study subjects and rights and procedures for withdrawing from the study at any time, as well as a timeline for program milestones and completion. Participant Estimated Timeline: Qualification pre-screening (5 mins), MBTI self- assessment (1 hour), MBTI post-assessment consultation (1 hour), Perceived influence competency survey pre-test (10 minutes), Workshop (8 hours) Perceived influence competency survey post-test (10 minutes) Coaching session 1 (1 hour), Coaching Session 2 (1 hour), Program conclusion interview (1 hour) Total estimated: 13 hours, 35 minutes. Study procedures: The interventions in this study comprise a Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality assessment and individual consultation (addressed in the Quantitative Approach section), a Myers-Briggs personality-based professional development group workshop on influence practices, a goal-setting professional development plan, and individualized coaching. The professional development interventional workshop will conducted using the Myers-Briggs and CPP, Inc. professional development program Impactful Influencing Harnessing the Power of Myers-Briggs Type. The first step in the study will be for participants to complete an online Likert-style survey instrument to measure their perceived influence competency. The second step in the study will be for participants to individually complete a Myers- Briggs Type Indicator personality self-assessment on a computer and location of their choice (Use of MBTI in VT research has been previously approved). Following completion, participants will individually meet via Zoom with an

MBTI certified practitioner (who is also study PI- Rick Rudd) for results debrief and consultation. Step three will be comprised of a one-day in-person and Zoom based group personality-focused workshop on influence development. At the beginning of the workshop intervention, participants will be tasked to complete a goal plan of learning outcomes they expect after the workshop. During the day-long workshop intervention, participants will participate in interactive learning activities and team and individual application and reflection exercises to develop a one-week implementation strategy plan and a four-week implementation plan. Upon conclusion of the two-week post-workshop milestone, participants will individually communicate with the MBTI practitioner coach, who will help them review their plan and progress, recognize growth achievements, and identify barriers and strategies for overcoming them. At the four-week intervention conclusion, the same coaching program will be repeated with the MBTI practitioner coach, followed by repeated measurement of the post-workshop quantitative perceived influence capacity survey and a semi-structured interview (detailed in the Qualitative Approach section) Quantitative Approach: Likert Surveys of Perceived Influence Competency & MBTI Measurement A brief Likert-styled self-assessment survey measuring perceived influence competency was administered online to each participant to provide a preliminary baseline understanding of perceived influence competency before the workshop intervention. Preliminary pilot tests will be conducted among social science researchers and subject matter experts proficient in conducting semi-structured interviews among higher education professionals to ensure that helpful end of study interview questions were well formulated. All interviews will be recorded via Zoom videoconferencing technology to ensure a lasting record and natural flow of the interview, to provide convenience of interview participation since most participants are remotely located, and to provide a transcription copy to guide in final interpretive transcription by the researcher

8.3 Describe:

- *Procedures or safeguards intended to reduce the probability and magnitude of risks. (For example: Reducing the risk of injury in a virtual reality study either by having the subjects sit during the study or by providing an obstacle-free space for walking.)*
- *Be sure to describe all drugs and devices used in the research, when they will be administered or used, and their purpose.*
- *Methods used to collect data about subjects. Please upload all data collection forms to Protocol Management. Some common examples are:*
 - *Screening questionnaires*
 - *Survey(s), including online surveys*
 - *Demographic questionnaire(s)*
 - *Interview guide(s), e.g., questions or pool of questions for semi-structured interviews*
 - *Focus group guide(s)*
 - *Other documents used to collect data*

No more than risks than are found in everyday life

Screening questionnaire, surveys, interviews, other: MBTI

*Documents in attached files

8.4 *What data will you collect during the study and how you will obtain them? Please include descriptions of electronic data collection, database matching, and app-based data collection:*

for use (see <https://vt.cobblestone.software/public/>).

Myer's Briggs Personality Assessment (Test details are behind a paid firewall):

<https://www.mbtionline.com/en-US/How-it-works/How-it-works> .Questions used in MBTI are proprietary information. Users pay to get results. Document attached. – Software is confirmed for VT research use.

Name, email, phone, job title, office address, length of experience - will be collected through Qualtrics

8.5 *Who will transcribe or code audio and/or video recordings?:*

Graduate student researcher will use closed captioning through Zoom software through Virginia Tech's license will be used to assist in preliminary transcription.

Further transcription and interpretation will be conducted through Atlas.ti.

8.6 *Include a description of any deception to be used in the study. Include justification for the use of deception (why the deception is necessary), describe the debriefing process, and describe how the study meets all the following criteria for alteration of consent (deception is considered an alteration of informed consent):*

- *The research involves no more than minimal risk to the subjects*
- *The alteration will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of the subjects*
- *The research could not practicably be carried out without the alteration/deception*

- *(Optional but encouraged in most cases) Subjects will be provided with additional pertinent information after participation (i.e., debriefing for studies involving deception)*

The research involves no more than minimal risk to the subjects

8.7 *If the study involves long-term follow-up (once all research related procedures are complete), describe what data will be collected during the follow up period and when it will occur:*

No long term follow ups anticipated. Study length est: 4-5 weeks

9.0 Data and Specimen Long Term Storage and Use

9.1 *If you will store data or specimens for future use, describe where you will store the data or specimens, how long they will be stored, and how and by whom the data or specimens will be accessed:*

Data collected will be entered into appropriate software systems and password protected from unauthorized changes. Changes to data outside of routine misspelled words or updated contact information will be logged in a separate file and retained for the data's storage life of 5 years according to Virginia Tech policy.

Data will be stored on researcher's google drive with authorized access only provided to study research team. Additional storage will occur via hard copy on Virginia Tech owned desktop. Data back up will occur no less than once per month by saving copies of files separately to secure data and prevent data corruption or loss.

VT Data retention and continuity of data access will be ensured by assigning co-ownership of data to the PI and at least one other research team leader.

9.2 *For specimens, list the data to be stored or associated with each specimen:*

na

- 9.3 *Describe the procedures to release data or specimens outside of the research team, including the process to request a release, approvals required for release, who can obtain data or specimens, and what data will be provided with specimens:*

No data will be released outside of research team.

- 9.4 *Describe the identifiers to be included with stored data or specimens, as well as any key or code that could be used to make them identifiable. Describe where the code will be stored, who will have access to it, and when it will be destroyed:*

Participant data will be interlinked through numerically assigned identifier. File with identifier information will be stored in a separate excel file on Virginia Tech owned computer; accessible by authorized research team members. Data will be destroyed after 5 years.

- 9.5 *Please select the identifiers you will obtain (whether directly from participants or from another source), including but not limited to:*

☒	<i>Name</i>
☒	<i>Geographical subdivisions smaller than a state, including street address, city, county, precinct, zip code, and equivalent geocodes (note, the initial three digits of a zip code are not considered identifiable)</i>
☐	<i>Elements of dates (except year) for dates directly related to an individual, including birth date, admission date, discharge date, date of death, and single year of age over 89 and all elements of dates (including year) indicative of such age (note, such ages and elements may be aggregated into a single category of age 90+)</i>
☒	<i>Phone numbers</i>
☐	<i>Fax numbers</i>
☒	<i>Electronic mail addresses (e-mail)</i>
☐	<i>Social Security numbers</i>
☐	<i>Medical record numbers</i>
☐	<i>Health plan beneficiary numbers</i>
☐	<i>Account numbers</i>
☐	<i>Certificate/license numbers</i>
☐	<i>Vehicle identifiers and serial numbers, including license plate numbers</i>

☐	<i>Device identifiers and serial numbers</i>
☐	<i>Web Universal Resource Locators (URLs)</i>
☐	<i>Internet protocol (IP) address numbers</i>
☐	<i>Biometric identifiers, including finger and voice prints (audio recording)</i>
☐	<i>Full face photographic images and any comparable images (including video recording)</i>
☐	<i>Student record number or identification number</i>
☐	<i>User name for online or computer accounts</i>
☒	<i>Any other unique identifying number, characteristic, or code (note this does not mean the unique code assigned by the investigator to code the data): Click here to explain. MBTI Personality assessments</i>

10.0 Sharing of Results with Subjects

10.1 *Describe whether you will share results (study results or individual subject results, such as results of investigational diagnostic tests, genetic tests, or incidental findings) with subjects or others (e.g., the subject's primary care physician). If so, describe how you will share the results and include this information as part of the consent document. Upload materials you will use to explain the results to subjects:*

MBTI assessment results will be shared with participants through certified consultation. Participants will also be given opportunity to voluntarily review qualitative interview transcripts for verification.

11.0 Study Timelines

11.1 *Describe:*

- *The duration of an individual subject's participation in the study (for example, 1 hour, 2-4 weeks, 3-5 years).*
- *The amount of time expected to enroll all study subjects (weeks, months, years, etc.)*
- *The amount of time expected for the investigators to complete this study including primary data analyses.*

Participant Estimated Timeline: Qualification pre-screening (5 mins), MBTI self-assessment (1 hour), MBTI post-assessment consultation (1 hour), Perceived influence competency survey pre-test (10 minutes), Workshop (8 hours) Perceived influence competency survey post-test (10 minutes) Coaching session 1 (1 hour), Coaching Session 2 (1 hour), Program conclusion interview (1 hour) Total estimated time committment: 13 hours, 35 minutes. Total length of study:4-5 weeks

12.0 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

12.1 Describe how you will screen individuals for eligibility. When will screening occur and what procedures will you use? Upload any screening scripts or surveys to Protocol Management:

Groups targeted will be managers, directors, and mid-level executives leading programs and units affiliated with the Virginia Tech Office of Outreach and International Affairs with 5 or fewer years of experience. These people have been selected as there is a measurable body of literature related to corporate and higher education executive leadership development, but professional development research in community-engaged practice supporting mid-level higher education administrators is limited. A few publications have guided general professional development strategies for CEPs (Bartha et al., 2014; Jacoby & Mutascio, 2010; Keith, 2015), but effective community engagement leadership methods are not yet emergent. Addressing this need for discovery, Dostilio and McReynolds (2015) contend that reflecting and challenging current theories, disciplines, competencies, and practices among CEPs are essential for growth as localized connectors and engaged citizens within the institution and community. A substantive body of research shows a shortage in community-engaged scholars' approach to cultivating equitable partnerships (Jagosh et al., 2012; Lantz et al., 2001; Sandy & Holland, 2006). Therefore, as a new and emerging field, the focus of this study seeks to contribute knowledge towards the professionalization of community-engaged scholarship (DeGraaf & Hirt, 2015; Dostilio, 2017; McDonnell et al., 2023).

12.2 Describe the eligibility criteria that define who will be included and who will be excluded from enrollment for each procedure of your study. Include any geographic criteria (e.g., Virginia Tech undergraduate students, a national sample of adults with engineering degrees, minors aged 8-12 in the New River Valley, university faculty in Virginia and Paris, France):

Study participants will be careered community engagement professionals in Virginia Tech community engagement managerial leadership roles for five years or less. Candidate pool (and contact information will be provided through recommendations of Virginia Tech VP and AVP for Outreach and International Affairs. Pre-screening will be conducted by brief interview from researcher confirming name, phone and email contact information, employment status and eligibility.

12.3 Indicate specifically whether you will include or exclude each of the following special populations: (You may not include members of these populations as subjects in your research unless you indicate them in the description of your subject population.)

- *Minors, as defined by state law where the study is performed (infants, children, teenagers)*
- *Pregnant women (can be included in minimal risk studies by mentioning in section 13.1)*
- *Prisoners (including all incarcerated individuals)*
- *Adults not capable to consent on their own behalf*

na

13.0 Vulnerable Populations

13.1 If the research involves individuals who are vulnerable to coercion or undue influence, please describe additional safeguards you will include to protect their rights and welfare. Consider the applicable items listed below:

- *If the research involves Virginia Tech students, indicate whether these are students of any of the investigators. If so, describe whether the activities will take place during class time as part of the curriculum and the steps you will take to reduce the possibility that students feel obliged to participate in order to improve their course grade. The HRPP can provide further guidance as needed. Describe whether you will request access to student records (e.g., SAT, GPA, GRE scores).*
- *If the research involves employees of Virginia Tech or the research sponsor, describe steps you will take to ensure that the employees are freely participating and describe how their data will be protected from inspection by their supervisors.*
- *If the research involves Virginia Tech NCAA athletes, you must obtain approval from the athletic department.*
- *For research involving Montgomery County Public Schools, you must obtain county approval (after obtaining contingent Virginia Tech approval). Other locales have different requirements; please check on these and describe here. Approval is typically granted by the superintendent, principal, and classroom teacher (in that order). Approval by an individual teacher is insufficient. School approval, in the form of a letter or a memorandum should be uploaded as a supporting document.*

- *If the research involves pregnant women, review “CHECKLIST: Pregnant Women (HRP-412)” to ensure that you have provided sufficient information in this protocol.*
- *If the research involves prisoners, review “CHECKLIST: Prisoners (HRP-415)” to ensure that you have provided sufficient information in this protocol.*
- *If the research involves persons who have not attained the legal age for consent to treatments or procedures involved in the research (minors), review the “CHECKLIST: Minors (HRP-416)” to ensure that you have provided sufficient information in this protocol.*
- *If the research involves cognitively impaired adults, review “CHECKLIST: Cognitively Impaired Adults (HRP-417)” to ensure that you have provided sufficient information in this protocol.*

na

14.0 Number of Subjects

14.1 *Indicate the total number of subjects to be enrolled and how this number was determined (e.g., sample size calculation [show], number of available subjects in a finite pool, number of tests funding award would allow):*

7 participants as allowed by funding.

14.2 *If this is a multi-site study, indicate the number of subjects to be enrolled at this site and the total to be enrolled from all sites:*

na

14.3 *If applicable, indicate the number of potential subjects you expect to screen for enrollment, and the number of subjects you will need to complete the research procedures:*

Estimated screen: 14, Expected enrollees: 7

14.4 *If the study has more than one procedure, indicate the total number of subjects to undergo each procedure separately:*

1 procedure - 7 participants

15.0 Recruitment Methods

15.1 Describe when, where, and how you will recruit potential subjects:

Emails and attached flyers will be used. Copies attached in appendices. Recruitment will begin immediately upon IRB approval.

15.2 Describe the source of subjects (for example, clinic patients with specific conditions, students in the library, community members at a gathering, or members of a local gym):

Candidate pool (and contact information will be provided through recommendations of Virginia Tech VP and AVP for Outreach and International Affairs.

15.3 Describe the methods that you will use to identify potential subjects:

Pre-screening will be conducted by brief interview from researcher confirming name, phone and email contact information, employment status and eligibility.

15.4 Describe materials that you will use to recruit subjects. Attach copies of these documents with this protocol in Protocol Management and be sure to include the IRB protocol number on each document.

- *For flyers, attach the final copy of printed flyers.*
- *For Virginia Tech News, Facebook postings and ads, newspaper ads, websites, MTurk/SONA/online survey systems, etc., attach the final wording and graphics to be used.*
- *For email recruitments, please include the subject line.*
- *For advertisements meant for audio broadcast, please submit the wording of the advertisement prior to taping (to avoid having to re-record with approved language) and submit the final recorded version for IRB review before use.*
- *Describe any compensation to subjects. Separate compensation into appropriate categories, such as: reimbursement for expenses, time and effort, and additional*

incentives for study participation. For each category, specify the amount (including any pro-rated amount), schedule, and method of payment.

Email and flyers - in appendices

16.0 Withdrawal of Subjects

16.1 Describe circumstances under which you anticipate subjects could be withdrawn from the research without their consent:

Failing to comply to study requirements; failing to meet appropriate timelines or deadlines.

16.2 If applicable, describe any procedures for orderly termination (e.g., discontinuation of a study drug or debriefing after a behavioral intervention):

Participants will be contacted at conclusion of study to be notified of study findings.

16.3 Describe procedures that you will follow when subjects withdraw from the research, including partial withdrawal from procedures with continued data collection (e.g., participant declines to continue with regular blood draws, but continues with periodic behavioral questionnaires):

[Click here to provide a response.](#)

17.0 Risks to Subjects

17.1 List the reasonably foreseeable risks, discomforts, hazards, or inconveniences to the subjects related the subjects' participation in the research. Include for the IRB's consideration a description of the probability, magnitude, duration, and reversibility of the risks. Consider physical, psychological, social, legal, privacy, and economic risks. Do not indicate "No risk" or "N/A." Instead, for studies with very low risk (e.g., anonymous online questionnaire on a mundane topic) indicate "The investigators are not aware of any risks from participation in this study." or "No more than risks than are found in everyday life." The example consent form presents a tabular method for risk information, which you can also use here. Common risk types include:

- *Physical (e.g., potential for pain, discomfort, infection)*
- *Psychological (e.g., potential for stress, discomfort, and/or embarrassment)*
- *Social (e.g., potential for discrimination or stigmatization and disruption of personal and family relationships)*
- *Legal (e.g., potential for disclosure of illegal activity, negligence)*
- *Privacy (e.g., potential for personal information being accessed, used, or disclosed without the subjects' knowledge or consent, breach of confidentiality/security)*
- *Economic (e.g., potential for individuals to lose access to economic services, employment, insurability)*

No more than risks than are found in everyday life

17.2 Indicate the measures you will use to minimize risks and monitor subjects for safety. (e.g., asking a subject at regular intervals to rate how they are feeling from 1 to 10, or to slowly crouch in order to check their balance.)

Throughout all phases of the study, subjects will be briefed that they may withdraw from the study at any time, with or without justification.

17.3 If applicable, indicate which procedures might have risks to the subjects that are currently unforeseeable. This will be rare, and usually applicable when testing a new drug or device or a new use of an existing drug or device:

none

17.4 If applicable, indicate which procedures might have risks to an embryo or fetus should the subject be or become pregnant:

Na

17.5 If applicable, describe risks to others who are not subjects (e.g., collection of sensitive health data that might affect sexual partners if disclosed, mandatory reporting of abuse, DNA testing that might affect family members or relationships):

na

18.0 Potential Benefits to Subjects

18.1 Describe the potential benefits that individual subjects might experience from participating in the research. Include the probability, magnitude, and duration of the potential benefits, as this will be useful to the IRB's risk:benefit analysis. Do not include benefits to society or others. Do not list monetary or non-monetary compensation for participation, as this is not a benefit. These should be included in section 2 or 3 of this document:

Participants anticipate a greater self-insight to understand better how their personality affects decision-making, interpersonal, and influence preferences, as well as strategies for improved social influence.

18.2 If applicable, specify that there are no anticipated direct benefits for participants:

na

19.0 Data Management and Confidentiality

19.1 Describe procedures that you will use for quality control to ensure validity of collected data:

Study will have continuous oversight of primary investigatory, knowledge expert research colleagues, data back up, and transcript review of study participants

19.2 Describe any existing data or biospecimens you will obtain as part of this study. Include:

- *Variables or samples to be obtained*
- *Source of the data or specimens*
- *Your authorization to access or receive the data or biospecimens*
- *Whether the data or biospecimens are publicly available*
- *Whether the data or specimens you receive will contain identifiers*

na

19.3 Describe the steps that you will take to handle and secure study data during data collection, storage, use, and transmission. Include information about training of study staff, authorization of access, password protection, encryption, physical controls, certificates of confidentiality, separation of identifiers and data, etc.:

Data collected will be stored in Virginia Tech Google Drive, with google sync disabled, and password protected from unauthorized changes. Changes to data outside of routine misspelled words or updated contact information will be logged in a separate file and retained for the data's storage life.

Data will be stored on researcher's google drive with authorized access only provided to study research team. Data back up will occur no less than once per month by saving copies of files separately to secure data and prevent data corruption or loss.

VT Data retention and continuity of data access will be ensured by assigning co-ownership of data to the PI and at least one other research team leader.

19.4 For multi-site studies, describe how data or specimens will be handled and secured for each site (e.g., central or disseminated data storage, data coordinating center):

na

19.5 Describe the plan for data disposition following the conclusion of the study (e.g., long term maintenance of data, data destruction methods).

- *What information will be included in the long term storage of data or specimens?*
- *How long will the data or specimens be stored?*
- *Where and how data or specimens will be stored?*
- *Who will have access to the data or specimens during long term storage?*
- *Who is responsible for receipt or transmission of the data or specimens?*
- *How will data or specimens be shared or transported?*
- *When and how will personal identifiers be destroyed?*

Video recordings from Zoom interviews will be stored in Virginia Tech Canvas and in Virginia Tech Google Drive, with google sync disabled, and authorized access only provided to study research team.

VT Data retention and continuity of data access will be ensured by assigning co-ownership of data to the PI and at least one other research team leader

20.0 Provisions to Protect the Privacy Interests of Subjects

20.1 Describe the steps that you will take to protect subjects' privacy interests. "Privacy interest" refers to a person's desire to place limits on with whom they interact or to whom they provide personal information (e.g., collecting the minimal amount of private information required to complete the study, protecting the data once it is obtained):

Will collect the minimal amount of private information required to complete the study, protecting the data once it is obtained

20.2 Describe steps that you will take to make subjects feel at ease with the research situation in terms of the questions being asked and the procedures being performed. "At ease" does not refer to physical discomfort, but the sense of intrusiveness a subject might experience in response to questions, examinations, and procedures (e.g., use of a same gender investigator to place sensors on the torso, a private changing area if clothing must be changed, sensitivity when discussing pregnancy testing with subjects, making it clear on surveys that participants can discontinue at any time, not asking questions about private or sensitive issues unless necessary for the research):

Surveys will state that participants can discontinue at any time, not asking questions about private or sensitive issues unless necessary for the research and statement will be reiterated at all data collection milestones in the study.

20.3 Describe how you plan to access existing sources of information about the subjects (e.g., medical records, grades) and how you will protect participant privacy through the data security plan:

MBTI assessment results will be stored on secure google server and only accessible by researchers as requisite for study only.

20.4 Describe any required reporting that might occur as a result of your research questions, study populations, and data collection methods. Examples for Virginia and Virginia Tech include:

- **Any** suspicions (e.g., circumstantial, disclosed) of child abuse (physical, emotional, sexual) and neglect
- Sexual discrimination and/or sexual violence that involves a student
- Disclosure or signs of intention to harm oneself (i.e., suicidal ideation and/or plan)
- Disclosure or signs of desire to harm others (i.e., homicidal ideation and/or plan)
- Suspected abuse, neglect or exploitation of vulnerable adults (e.g., individuals with a disability, elderly persons)

Any information disclosed during the study related to self-harm, harm of others, discrimination, or abuse, neglect, or exploitation of vulnerable populations will be reported to Virginia Tech's Title IX Coordinator for further investigation as deemed necessary.

21.0 Provisions to Monitor the Data to Ensure the Safety of Subjects

Safety monitoring is required when research involves greater than minimal risk and is sometimes appropriate for other studies.

21.1 Describe:

- *The plan to periodically evaluate the data collected regarding both harms and benefits to determine whether subjects remain safe (e.g., periodic reporting to the IRB, establishing a data monitoring committee, reporting data monitoring committee findings to the IRB and the sponsor).*
- *What data you will review, including safety data, unexpected events, and data that show the ability to produce the intended results.*
- *How the safety information will be collected (e.g., with case report forms, at study visits, by telephone calls with subjects).*
- *The frequency of data collection, including when safety data collection starts.*
- *Who will review the safety data and with what frequency.*
- *The statistical tests for analyzing the safety data to determine whether harm is occurring.*
- *Any conditions that will trigger an immediate suspension of the research (e.g., a serious adverse event).*

n/a

22.0 Compensation for Research Related Injury

22.1 If the research involves more than minimal risk to subjects, describe the available compensation in the event of research-related injury, if any:

na

22.2 Provide a copy of contract language, if any, relevant to compensation for research-related injury. At Virginia Tech, this is most common for sponsored research:

na

23.0 Economic Burden to Subjects

23.1 Describe any costs that subjects might be responsible for because of participation in the research, including any uncompensated costs for items such as transportation, missed work, and childcare:

na Upon expression of interest by the study subject, the subject will be provided with an information sheet with study details. Since the protocol is a low-risk interview, written consent will not be obtained. Upon sharing information sheets, the researcher will resolve any questions participants may have.

24.0 Consent Process

24.1 Indicate the process by which you will obtain consent for study participation. Please upload all consent, parental permission, and assent forms, documents, and scripts referenced in this section to Protocol Management.

Describe the following:

- *Where the consent process will take place (e.g., clinic waiting area, classroom, online)*
- *The time interval between sharing the consent information with the prospective subject and obtaining consent. For lab, interview, and focus group studies, the Virginia Tech IRB prefers that subjects have at least 24 hours to review the consent form and study information before the appointment where consent will be obtained. For simple online survey*

studies, you can typically present the consent information immediately before subjects begin participation.

- *If applicable, processes to ensure ongoing consent or assent (e.g., for multiple sessions; for research in which a minor will turn 18 during the study; for longitudinal research with minors who will later be asked to provide or affirm their assent).*
- *Please review “SOP: Informed Consent Process for Research (HRP-090)” for recommended procedure. Describe your process, being sure to include:*
 - *The name and role of all study personnel who will be trained and certified by the PI to conduct the consent process*
 - *The time that will be devoted to the consent discussion*
 - *Steps that you will take to minimize the possibility of coercion or undue influence*
 - *Steps that you will take to gauge or ensure the subjects’ understanding*

Upon expression of interest by the study subject, the subject will be provided with an information sheet with study details. Upon sharing information sheets, the researcher will resolve any questions participants may have. Since the protocol is a low-risk interview, written consent will not be obtained. Consent will take place online prior to beginning the self assessment survey. By consent at the beginning of the survey, participants will then be able to complete self assessment survey. Interventional activities will begin no sooner than 24 hours after completion of self assessment survey.

Non-English Speaking Subjects

- *Indicate what language(s) other than English are understood by prospective subjects or representatives.*
- *If non-English speakers will be recruited, describe the process you will use to ensure that the oral and/or written consent information provided will be in a language that they understand.*
- *If you translate consent forms and study materials, please provide a certified translation of the form as well as the certification document.*
- *Indicate the spoken language that study personnel obtaining consent will use. Describe how you will assess fluency of personnel obtaining consent to ensure that the translation is accurate.*

na

Waiver or Alteration of Consent Process (consent will not be obtained, required information will not be disclosed, or the research involves deception)

- Review the “CHECKLIST: Waiver or Alteration of Consent Process (HRP-410)” to ensure you have provided sufficient information for the IRB to make these determinations (i.e., that it meets the criteria for a waiver or alteration of the consent process).

na

Subjects who are not yet adults (minors: infants, children, teenagers)

- Describe the criteria that you will use to determine legal age for consent to treatments or procedures involved in the research under the applicable law of the jurisdiction in which the research will be conducted (e.g., in Virginia, individuals under the age of 18 years).
 - For research conducted in Virginia, review “SOP: Legally Authorized Representatives, Minors, and Guardians (HRP-013)” to determine which individuals in the state meet the definition of “minor.”
 - For research conducted outside of the state, please describe the legal requirements for the definition of “minor.”
- Describe the process for obtaining parental permission.
 - Permission from one parent is acceptable for studies that involve no greater than minimal risk OR involve greater than minimal risk but present the prospect of direct benefit to the minor subject.
 - Permission from both parents is required in all other cases (unless one parent is deceased, unknown, incompetent, or not reasonably available, or when only one parent has legal responsibility for the care and custody of the minor).
- Describe whether you will obtain permission from individuals other than parents or Legally Authorized Representatives, and if so, who will be allowed to provide permission. Describe the process you will use to determine these individuals’ authority to consent to the minor’s general medical care.
- Indicate whether you will obtain assent from all, some, or none of the minors. If you will obtain assent from some minors, indicate which minors will be required to assent. Consider chronological age and intellectual capacity when determining who will be required to provide assent (e.g., infants are unable to assent. However, teenagers are likely able to read and sign an assent form).
- When assent of minors is obtained, describe whether and how you will document it. Will minors sign an assent form or give verbal assent?
- Attach parental permission and minor assent forms or scripts in Protocol Management.

na

Adults Unable to Consent

- *Describe the process you will use to determine whether an individual adult is capable of consent.*
- *List the individuals from whom you will obtain permission in order of priority (e.g., durable power of attorney for health care, court appointed guardian for health care decisions, spouse, and non-minor child).*
 - *For research conducted in the Virginia, review “SOP: Legally Authorized Representatives, Minors, and Guardians (HRP-013)” to determine which individuals in the state meet the definition of “legally authorized representative.”*
 - *For research conducted outside of Virginia, please describe the legal requirements for obtaining permission from a legally authorized representative in the state where the research will occur.*
- *Describe the process for assent of the subjects.*
 - *Indicate whether you will require assent from all, some, or none of the subjects. If some, indicate which subjects will be required to assent and which will not.*
 - *If you will not obtain assent from some or all subjects, please provide justification for not obtaining assent.*
 - *Describe whether and how you will document assent.*

n/a

25.0 Process to Document Consent in Writing

25.1 *Consult “SOP: Written Documentation of Consent (HRP-091)” for recommended procedures, and describe whether and how consent of the subject will be documented in writing:*

na

25.2 *If the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written documentation of consent is normally required outside of the research context, you can request that the IRB waive the requirement to obtain written documentation of consent (e.g., consent to participate is indicated by pressing a button for an online questionnaire – after the consent information is presented and before the questionnaire begins):*

Waiver requested as consent will be incorporated into the beginning of the first survey questionnaire as a prerequisite to continue the survey.

25.3 *If you will document consent in writing, attach a consent document with places for signatures. If you will obtain consent, but not document consent in writing, please attach the consent script or text. Review “CHECKLIST: Waiver of Written Documentation of Consent (HRP-411)” to ensure that you have provided sufficient information. You should use “TEMPLATE CONSENT DOCUMENT (HRP-502)” to create the consent document or script:*

na

26.0 Resources Available

26.1 *Describe the resources available to conduct the research. For example, as appropriate:*

- *Describe the PI’s availability to supervise the research.*
- *Justify the feasibility of recruiting the required number of suitable subjects within the agreed recruitment period. For example, how many potential subjects do you have access to? What percentage of those potential subjects do you need to recruit?*
- *Describe the time that you will devote to conducting and completing the research.*
- *Describe your facilities.*
- *Describe the availability of medical or psychological resources that subjects might need as a result of an anticipated or unanticipated consequence of participation in the research.*
- *Describe your process to ensure that all persons assisting with the research are adequately informed about the protocol, the research procedures, and their duties and functions (e.g., training plans, detailed study notebooks).*

The PI is the dissertation committee chair and program PI and is providing weekly research activity and progress meetings and will be active in all phases of the study as either an interventionalist or supervisor.

6 participants have been determined and agreed upon by the committee because it is a mixed methods study and is a sufficient number of subjects to determine measurable and thematic outcomes.

Estimated total time commitment of the research group for study is 115 hours

No medical/psychological resources determined necessary for this study.

All people assisting with the research study will be provided with training, and required to maintain study activity journals to log all study related activities.

27.0 Multi-Site Research

Contact the HRPP for multi-site research (involving multiple institutions) and the details required for this section will be provided. Otherwise, indicate N/A.

na