Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs

Volume 39 | Issue 1

2023

Undergraduate Students' Perception of Leadership Development Programs and Leadership Self-Efficacy

Benjamin Phillips
Georgia Southern University, bp01287@gmail.com

Juliann Sergi McBrayer
Georgia Southern University, jmcbrayer@georgiasouthern.edu

Brandon Hunt
Georgia Southern University, bhunt@georgiasouthern.edu

Antonio P. Gutierrez de Blume
Georgia Southern University, agutierrez@georgiasouthern.edu

Katherine Fallon
Georgia Southern University, kf10548@georgiasouthern.edu

Recommended Citation

Phillips, B., McBrayer, J. S., Hunt, B., Gutierrez de Blume, A. P., & Fallon, K. (2023). Undergraduate Students' Perception of Leadership Development Programs and Leadership Self-Efficacy. *Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs, 39*(1). https://doi.org/10.20429/gcpa.2023.390108

Undergraduate Students' Perception of Leadership Development Programs and Leadership Self-Efficacy

Benjamin S. Phillips (Georgia Southern University)

Juliann Sergi McBrayer (Georgia Southern University)

Brandon Hunt (Georgia Southern University)

Antonio Gutierrez de Blume (Georgia Southern University)

Katherine Fallon (Georgia Southern University)

Colleges and universities across the United States face continual pressure to meet enrollment and retention goals as budgets in this performance-based environment continue to become more important. On-campus student involvement, such as in undergraduate leadership development programs, has been shown to have a positive influence on student success which is often measured in the form of retention. A survey was utilized to examine leadership self-efficacy and engagement of undergraduate students that participated in campus-based leadership development programs and explore some motivators (contributing factors) and barriers (detracting factors) to involvement in those programs. One emergent theme within contributing factors to participation was alignment with personal goals (74.7%), whereas a theme for detracting factors was lack of time to invest in the leadership opportunity (51.1%). Exploration of which factors contributed to and detracted from leadership development participation showed that contributing factors were a positive and significant predictor of leadership self-efficacy. For every one-unit increase in contributing factors, leadership self-efficacy score increased by $\beta = .38$ standard deviations. This study encourages leadership educators to examine their own leadership development programs and build recruitment strategies to increase engagement among underrepresented student demographics such as gender, racial status, and first-generation college students. In the future, researchers could consider including students that did not participate in leadership programs to gain more valuable insights on the motivators and the barriers that students face to participation in these programs.

Phillips, B.S., Sergi McBrayer, J., Hunt, B., Gutierrez de Blume, A., & Fallon, K. (2023). Undergraduate Students' Perception of Leadership Development Programs and Leadership Self-Efficacy. *Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs, 38*(1), 170-198.

ISSN: 2330-7269

GEORGIA
College Personnel Association

Student success measures, such as first-year retention rates, in higher education are an area of concern for colleges and universities (Bennett, 2017) and it is the responsibility of universities to provide programming to retain students. Part of the concern of first-year retention comes from declining enrollments across the United States. From 2011 to 2016, total enrollment dropped by 7.8% nationwide (Hershan & Lauderdale, 2018). As enrollments have declined, institutions have focused on addressing this issue by increasing first-year retention but have only been marginally successful over the previous decade as overall first-year retention rates have only increased slightly (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020) and thus, the researchers sought to examine programming that may lead to increased retention.

Institutions of higher education in the United States have developed programs and support systems that are focused on socially integrating their new learners (Jafee, 2007). Braxton et al. (2014) suggested a student's social integration within an institution is the primary indicator for student persistence. Additionally, a student's social integration is his or her perception of socialization with other members of campus and the similarities shared among the institution and the student are based on attitudes, beliefs, norms, and values of the university community. Social integration efforts are particularly important for first-year students, as upperclassmen have already become oriented to campus and have begun to focus more on their academic efforts (Webber et al., 2013). There are a variety of educationally purposeful activities that lead to a socially integrated student and increased first year retention rates such as first-year seminars, service-learning courses, learning communities, and leadership opportunities (Kuh et al., 2008).

Webber et al. (2013) found that students were two to three times more likely to have a positive student experience if they perceived that their institution emphasized both academic and non-academic support and interaction. One of the ways institutions are emphasizing nonacademic support is through undergraduate leadership development programs. Undergraduate leadership development is largely influenced by a student's collegiate environment and individual experiences (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Studies have shown there are a variety of experiences that have positive predictive relationships on student leadership development such as student involvement, community engagement, on campus leadership positions, faculty mentors, and undergraduate leadership development programs (Dugan, 2006; Komives et al., 2006). Undergraduate student leadership development has served as a central purpose in higher education for many years and this has been displayed by

an increase in undergraduate leadership development programs across the United States.

There has been a renewed emphasis placed on the importance of community engagement and leadership within higher education as institutions have mission statements that support these initiatives. Leadership and community engagement programs are highly efficient ways to provide resources and impact the development of students (Bowman et al., 2010).

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership self-efficacy of undergraduate students who participated in on-campus leadership development opportunities, identify student demographics in these programs, and explore some of the factors that contributed to and detracted from participation in these programs. The goal was to identify underrepresented groups in these undergraduate leadership development programs and examine the leadership self-efficacy of undergraduate students who participated in on-campus leadership development opportunities, identify student demographics in these programs, and explore motivators and barriers to participation in leadership opportunities. The examination of underrepresented student populations should include demographics such as gender, racial status, and first-generation college students. While there is a significant amount of research on student leadership development, there is limited research on leadership self-efficacy of participants in undergraduate leadership development programs. The overarching research question for this study was: To what extent do students in leadership programs perceive themselves to be self-efficacious in terms of leadership? To further explore the answer to this question, the following research sub-questions were developed: What demographic characteristics are represented in leadership programs on campus? What are some of the factors that contribute (motivators) to and detract (barriers) from participation in undergraduate leadership programs? To what extent do factors that contribute to or detract from participation in undergraduate leadership programs predict leadership self-efficacy?

Review of the Literature

This background includes a brief review of the literature pertaining to student success rates, campus involvement, student leadership development, a comparison of male and female leadership perceptions, and the transformational leadership theory, the last of which will serve as the theoretical framework.

Student Success Rates

First year retention rates are viewed by many universities as a major factor when it comes

to the success of an institution, both financially and academically (Turner & Thompson, 2014). When a student is retained after their first year, the university is not only helping a student progress towards graduation but is also gaining financially in the collection of tuition and fees as well as gaining state funding if the university is a public institution. The National Center for Educational Statistics (2018) reported that 19% of full-time students who entered a four-year university for the first time in the fall of 2015 did not return to that same institution in the fall of 2016. While institutions have continued to increase efforts to drive up retention rates within the last decade, minimal impact has been made, as the national first-year retention rate at a public four-year institution in 2009 was 77% and 81% in 2018 (National Center for Education Studies, 2018).

There are several personal indicators that can influence a student's decision to not return to an institution for their second year, such as prior academic performance, socioeconomic status, race, and first-generation college student status (Turner & Thompson, 2014). Students have also indicated that family dynamics and financial means have played a major role in first-year retention (Van Duser et al., 2020). These factors are outside of the control of an institution; however, there are other factors affecting the retention of a first-year student that an institution can play a part in, such as both large-scale and smaller-scale social events (Turner & Thompson, 2014). Additionally, 67% of individuals attributed freshmen-focused events and activities as the greatest enabler in returning to their institution for their second year. Students that are more frequently engaged in student life initiatives have earned higher grades and greater levels of satisfaction during their college experience (Webber et al., 2013) and this would also be true for the focus of this study, leadership programming.

On Campus Involvement

Important to note, as first-year retention rates continue to be a high priority for most institutions, university administrators are developing a variety of programs that focus on first-year retention by targeting first-year students (Jacobs & Archie, 2008). These programs include themed housing in residence life, leadership programs, Greek life, multicultural affairs, career and professional programming, student activities, recreational activities, and community engagement opportunities. In their study, Braxton et al. (2014) noted that a primary indicator for first-year retention is a student's social integration within a university. In an effort to socially integrate first-year students, some institutions are building leadership development programs and service-learning initiatives that engage

undergraduate students (Panke & Stephens, 2018). These programs not only help to socially integrate first-year students but also help to carry out university missions by accomplishing some of the traditional societal contributions of higher education, such as educating community members, improving individual competencies, and boosting economic development by serving the local community (Altbach et al., 2009).

There has been a renewed emphasis placed on the importance of community engagement within higher education (Bowman et al., 2010). In a 2015 survey, Campus Compact (2016) reported that 85% of public institutions have mission statements that support leadership and community engagement initiatives. Leadership and community engagement programs are highly effective ways of accomplishing the missions of institutions that seek to serve their communities and impact the development of students (Bowman et al., 2010). Additionally, leadership and community engagement programs encourage students to reflect on the importance of giving back. Furthermore, not only is there a renewed emphasis on leadership and community engagement by the university, there is also a renewed emphasis on these by the student body. Eagan et al. (2015) reported that 39.8% of incoming freshmen indicated that becoming a community leader was either “very important” or an “essential” life objective, and this marked an all-time high for that particular life objective.

Student Leadership Development

There has been increasing attention on college student leadership development since the early 1990s (Dugan & Komives, 2007). There have been several trends over the subsequent years that have supported a renewed focus on developing critical leadership outcomes in students with gaining momentum in recent years (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Some of these trends include: a paradigm shift in leadership theory to a relational model (Northouse, 2007), a movement within volunteerism, civic engagement, service-learning (Colby et al., 2003), the empowerment and subsequent leadership needs of emerging social identity groups (Bordas, 2007), and the student leadership educator role becoming more professionalized (Komives et al., 2006). These trends all come together to form an institutional and societal mandate that calls for colleges and universities to develop student leaders that are socially responsible (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Many institutions offer a vast array of student-led and university-sponsored student leadership opportunities that encourage students to engage with others, engage with thoughts and ideas, and engage with on-campus and off-campus entities. These leadership opportunities include serving as

campus ambassadors, becoming orientation leaders, acting as peer mentors for first-year programs, participating in service programs, joining the student government association, and serving on student organization committees (Haber-Curran, 2019). Additionally, while many of these programs are often initially associated with student life offices, they also exist in a number of pockets across campus such as academic colleges, career centers, and admission offices. Furthermore, these experiences can vary from active experiences, such as leading a group, to more passive ones, such as attending a speaker workshop series. On-campus leadership opportunities are often viewed as a metaphorical laboratory or a practice field in that they provide students a space with less risk and consequences than the *real world* to practice and develop leadership skills (Mainella, 2017). Additionally, individuals who serve as student organization leaders are a great example of how on-campus student leaders are engaging in leadership practices and behaviors as they are called on to make decisions for their organizations, develop and implement policies, and empower members of their groups.

Theoretical Framework: Leadership Self-Efficacy:

Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their capability of completing a task, and it influences their thoughts, emotions, behaviors, and motivations towards those ends (Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy has also been defined as an individual's judgment about the extent to which they can succeed in the difficult situations they may encounter in the future (Senemoglu, 2004). Bandura (1977) proposed that self-efficacy is derived from four principal sources: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Self-efficacy beliefs are typically concerned with individuals' own judgments based on how well they can execute the actions required to meet a certain goal or achievement (Ozdemir & Yalcin, 2018).

One type of self-efficacy, leadership self-efficacy, is a key predictor of development in leadership capacity as well as a factor in whether or not students actually engage in leadership behaviors (Dugan et al., 2013). For the purposes of this study, leadership self-efficacy will serve as the theoretical framework guiding the study. Self-efficacy is defined as "the strength of people's convictions in their own effectiveness" (Bandura 1977, p. 193), also referred to as a belief in one's ability to perform successfully. More specifically, leadership self-efficacy is defined as "self-assessment of one's perceived capability to organize and implement action required to effectively lead organizational change to achieve a performance

outcome" (McBrayer 2018, p. 603). Paglis and Green (2002) described leadership self-efficacy as a person's judgment that they can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the workgroup, building relationships with followers to gain their commitment to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change. Students with lower leadership self-efficacy could be less likely to engage in leadership opportunities because they do not believe they have the ability to be successful as leaders (Dugan et al., 2013). Furthermore, leadership self-efficacy is critical to students because it can contribute to increased motivation to engage in leadership behaviors, and development in leadership performance and leadership capacity is imperative to student success. Scholars have found that leadership self-efficacy is highly malleable (Machida & Schaubroek, 2011). A critical experience for students to develop leadership self-efficacy that has been identified is a positional leadership opportunity, as these experiences allow students to put into practice leadership behaviors, and thus develop more confidence for future leadership opportunities (Dugan et al., 2013). Engaging in these types of experiences as a professional has also shown to be a significant positive predictor for leadership self-efficacy gains (McBrayer et al., 2020). Providing students ways to reflect upon their leadership skills may help in following the practices that they learn in programs related to building leadership capacity, specifically the program examined in this research.

Methodology

Research Design

This quantitative, cross-sectional study utilizing a correlational design via survey methods was intended to research some of the reasons undergraduate students choose to participate in on-campus leadership programs and the extent that these students perceive themselves to have a high level of leadership self-efficacy. Given that this study centered on the predictability of participation in on-campus leadership programs and the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders, a quantitative study best fit the research design. From the data, the researcher examined leadership self-efficacy and potential explanations of why certain students engaged in leadership development programs while others chose not to do so. Once data were collected, the researcher was able to compare and contrast the answers of participants by the various identity groups. Finally, the researcher examined the answers to the questions that collected data based on contributors and detractions to participating in on-campus leadership programs.

Instrument

This study utilized a quantitative study via a pre-existing assessment tool, The Student Leader Self-Efficacy Survey, to collect survey data from undergraduate students. The researcher utilized a modified version of this existing assessment tool, comprised of a series of questions on leadership self-efficacy and questions that focused on barriers and motivators to join these leadership programs (Yoon et al., 2016). This leadership self-efficacy survey tool had an overall reliability of Cronbach's α = .973 from *N* = 173, and all items on the survey were worthy of retention because the removal of any item would not have increased the reliability coefficient of Cronbach's α.

The first five questions of the Student Leadership Self-Efficacy Survey served to collect demographic data such as classification, gender identity, racial identity, first-generation college status, and type of undergraduate leadership opportunity. Questions six through 33 were Likert-scale questions that focused on leadership self-efficacy categories including leadership opportunity, goal setting, team motivation, innovative changes, and ethical actions and integrity. The Likert scale ranged from one (1) representing strongly disagree to five (5) representing strongly agree. The final two questions on the survey served to collect data on factors that contributed to and detracted from participation in undergraduate leadership programs.

Participants

The participants of this study were undergraduate students who were currently participating in or previously engaged in an undergraduate leadership program in various leadership positions at a large, public, comprehensive research university in the Southeastern United States. These student leadership opportunities included, but were not limited to, orientation leaders, peer mentors, tutors, campus ambassadors, student workers, peer educators, emerging leaders, resident assistants, student government association, student organization officer, and campus programming board members. The researchers worked with the Office of Academic Affairs to identify all applicable leadership opportunities.

Data Collection

After approval from the Institutional Review Board, the researcher worked with administrators in the Division of Student Affairs, as well as other campus partners, to include Enrollment Management and Academic Affairs to collect email information for potential participants. The survey was then distributed to eligible participants that were engaged in leadership development opportunities on-campus via an anonymous online survey to

all students who were currently engaged in an undergraduate leadership program in various leadership positions. Accompanying the survey was an email correspondence that explained the details of the study, including the associated risks with participation, which were no more than risks associated with daily life experiences. The researcher used a four-part request *to* survey (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) that includes an advanced notice alerting potential participants to the survey, a notice requesting participation in the survey, a follow-up notice approximately one week after the survey notice, and a personalized contact to all participants approximately three weeks after the survey notice. The survey remained open for one more week totaling a four-week data collection period. Of the participants, 87 individuals completed the entire survey and this yielded a response rate of 27.9%.

The researcher collected the completed assessment tool which contained de-identified data. The only identifiers collected on the survey were, gender, race, classification, first-generation college status, and the leadership opportunity the participant engaged in. The survey did not collect any information pertaining to personal student information, so it was completely anonymous. The estimated time to complete the entire survey for participants was expected to be less than 10 minutes.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, percentiles) and bivariate, zero-order correlations were conducted with the data. These statistics answered the overarching and first research sub-question. Frequency counts were employed to quantify the magnitude of the presence of factors, which subsequently informed the descriptive statistics for and answered research sub-question two. Finally, an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression model was employed to answer the third sub-research question, in which the factors that contributed (motivators) to or detracted (barriers) from participation in leadership programs served as predictors and leadership self-efficacy served as the criterion/outcome.

Findings

The findings of this study address a series of research questions regarding student leader demographics, leadership self-efficacy of student leaders, and factors that contributed to and detracted from student participation in on-campus leadership programs.

Overarching Research Question

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership self-efficacy of undergraduate students who participated in on-campus leadership development opportunities, identify student demographics in these programs,

and explore some of the factors that contributed to and detracted from participation in these programs. The overarching research question for this study examined the extent that students in leadership programs perceived themselves to be self-efficacious in terms of educational leadership. The overarching research question was answered by calculating mean scores for the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders on campus, contributing factors to participation in leadership programs, and detracting factors to participation in leadership programs. The factors that were examined in this study were parental influence, alignment with personal goals, mentors, ability to invest time, academic achievement, social engagement, ability to afford college, and academic major all of which were identified on the selected instrument.

The internal consistency of the leadership self-efficacy for the present sample was .94. The mean leadership self-efficacy score for participants in this study was 4.54 out of a 5.0 point scale, with a standard deviation of 0.41. The mean score for the number of factors that contributed to participation in leadership programs was 4.01 out of an 8.0 point scale, with a standard deviation of 1.55. The mean score for the number of factors that detracted from participation in leadership programs was 1.45 out of an 8.0-point scale, with a standard deviation of 0.76. Table 1 includes these descriptive statistics including the mean scores as well as the standard deviation, to show an overall picture of leadership self-efficacy and how factors contributed to and detracted from participation.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability

	M	*SD*	α
Leadership Self-Efficacy Score	4.54	.41	.94
Factors that Contribute to Participation	4.01	1.55	
Factors that Detract from Participation	1.45	.76	

N = 87

Questions six through 33 on the survey were Likert-scale questions that focused on leadership self-efficacy categories including leadership opportunity, goal setting, team motivation, innovative changes, and ethical actions and integrity. The Likert

scale included options of one (1) representing strongly disagree, two (2) representing disagree, three (3) representing neither agree nor disagree, four (4) representing agree, and five (5) representing strongly agree. The participants in this study self-reported a high level of leadership self-efficacy across all 28 of the Likert scale responses, with 26 of the responses having at least 90% of the responses being agree or strongly agree. The only two responses that did not have at least 90% of the participants agree or strongly agree were "I can clearly visualize a project goal even when limited information is available" (84.5%) and "I can take on responsibilities that are not assigned to me" (88.2%). Table 2 includes the data collected on the leadership self-efficacy of the participants in the study.

Table 2

Participant Leadership Self-Efficacy Responses by Percentage

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I can attempt to develop my leadership skills.	3.4	0.0	0.0	23.9	72.7
I can strive to develop my leadership.	3.4	0.0	1.1	22.7	72.7
I can actively seek leadership opportunities in and out of the classroom.	3.4	2.3	3.4	27.3	63.6
I can exhibit leadership skills when necessary.	3.4	0.0	2.3	26.1	68.2
I can actively seek opportunities to demonstrate my leadership.	3.4	2.3	3.4	30.7	60.2
I can learn how to lead a team.	3.4	0.0	0.0	29.6	67.1
I can encourage my team members to think of new ways of doing things.	0.0	0.0	3.7	40.7	55.6

I can fulfill my responsibilities to my team members.	0.0	0.0	0.0	37.0	63.0
I can find several ways to motivate people on a team.	0.0	1.2	3.7	37.0	58.0
I can influence my team members to work together.	0.0	0.0	1.2	42.0	56.8
I can actively encourage others to solve problems.	0.0	0.0	2.5	38.3	59.3
I can encourage my team members to get involved in a project.	0.0	0.0	3.7	39.5	56.8
I can lead others to develop and apply their talents for the established goals.	0.0	1.2	1.2	40.7	56.8
I can develop plans for change that will take my team in important new directions.	0.0	1.2	4.9	39.5	54.3
I can influence others to be enthusiastic about working toward the established goals.	0.0	1.2	6.2	34.6	58.0
I can influence others to take positive action to further the team's reputation and interests.	0.0	0.0	2.5	37.0	60.5
I can provide flexibility to enhance and encourage new thinking.	0.0	0.0	6.5	29.9	63.6
I can restructure and challenge the traditional methods of accomplishing a team goal.	0.0	1.3	7.8	35.1	55.8
I can explore ways to implement innovation for the team benefit.	0.0	1.3	2.6	44.2	52.0

I can exhibit leadership to improve effectiveness of the team.	0.0	0.0	3.9	35.1	61.0
I can seek continuous improvement in the way that work gets done.	0.0	0.0	3.9	32.5	63.6
I can lead a team toward my vision for the team goals.	0.0	1.3	5.2	42.9	50.7
I can clearly visualize a project goal even when limited information is available.	0.0	1.3	14.3	33.8	50.7
I can seek innovative ways to improve the team performance.	0.0	0.0	6.5	33.8	59.7
I can apply different ethical frameworks to analyze a problem of my team.	0.0	0.0	5.3	40.8	54.0
I can take ownership of a project which I am involved.	1.32	2.6	2.6	38.2	55.3
I can take responsibility for the success and failure of a project.	0.0	0.0	2.6	27.6	69.7
I can take on responsibilities that are not assigned to me.	0.0	1.3	10.5	29.0	59.2

N = 87

Research Sub-Question 1

In an attempt to gain a better understanding of what types of students are participating in these undergraduate leadership opportunities, research sub-question 1 was developed: What demographic characteristics are represented in leadership programs on campus? Of the 87 participants in the study, 56 (64.4%) identified as White, 26 (29.9%) identified as Black or African American, 3 (3.4%) identified as other, 1 (1.1%) identified as Asian, and 1 (1.1%) identified as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander. Additionally, respondents were asked to provide information

on their classification and 23 (26.4%) were seniors, 22 (25.3%) were freshmen, 22 (25.3%) were sophomores, 19 (21.8%) were juniors, and 1(1.1%) listed 5th year or more. Information was also collected on gender identity and 67 participants (77%) identified as female, 18 (20.7%) identified as male, and 2 (2.3%) identified as non-binary/other. Lastly, the first section of the instrument collected information on first-generation college student status. The responses revealed that 11 (12.6%) participants identified as first-generation college students and 76 (87.4%) did not identify as first-generation college students. See Table 3 for an overview of the demographic data collected for the participants of this study.

Table 3

Demographics of student participants

	n	%
Racial Identity		
White	56	64.4
Black or African American	26	29.9
Asian	1	1.1
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	1.1
Other	3	3.4
Classification		
Freshman	22	25.3
Sophomore	22	25.3
Junior	19	21.8
Senior	23	26.4
5th year or more	1	1.1
Gender Identity		
Male	18	20.7
Female	67	77.0
Non-binary/other	2	2.3

First-generation College Student		
Yes	11	12.6
No	76	87.4

N = 87

Research Sub-Question 2

An exploration of the factors that impact participation in on-campus leadership programming was a major part of this study. Therefore, a second research sub-question was developed to address the factors that contributed to and detracted from participation in undergraduate leadership programs. Data were collected by two open-ended questions in the last section of the survey that explored these factors. Through a repeated review of the data, a theme that emerged with the contributing factors to participation was *alignment with personal goals*, as 74.7% of participants reported it to be a contributing factor. Responses that supported that theme from the narrative data collected included, “growing my personal development”, “being well-rounded and more attractive to potential employers”, and “to build myself during my time here”. Participants indicated other contributing factors to participation in leadership programs including social engagement (56.3%), academic achievement (55.2%), ability to invest time (39.1%), parental influence/expectation (36.8%), mentors (31%), college major (29.9%), and ability to afford college (12.6%).

A theme that emerged with the detracting factors from participation was a *lack of time to invest in the opportunity*, with 50.6% of participants reporting that as a factor that detracted them from participation. Participants indicated other detracting factors to participation in leadership programs including ability to afford college (17.2%), social engagement (16.1%), academic achievement (10.3%), college major (6.9%), alignment with personal goals (4.6%), parental influence/expectation (3.5%), and mentors (2.3%). Another data point of notice was, there were 304 individual responses out of a possible 696 (43.7%) individual responses among the participants for factors that contributed to participation and 110 individual responses out of a possible 696 (15.8%) individual responses among the participants for factors that detracted from participation. Table 4 provides data collected on the contributing and detracting factors and the selection breakdown of these factors from the participants.

Table 4

Contributing and Detracting Factor Data

	Contributing Factors		**Detracting Factors**	
	n	%	*n*	%
Parental Influence/Expectation	32	36.8	3	3.5
Alignment with Personal Goals	65	74.7	4	4.6
Mentors	27	31.0	2	2.3
Ability to Invest Time	34	39.1	44	50.6
Academic Achievement	48	55.2	9	10.3
Social Engagement	49	56.3	14	16.1
Ability to Afford College	11	12.6	15	17.2
College Major	26	29.9	6	6.9
Other	9	10.3	12	13.8

***N* = 87**

Research Sub-Question 3

In order to investigate the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders and their motivators or barriers to join on-campus leadership programs, a third research sub-question was developed to examine the extent of factors that contributed to or detracted from participation in undergraduate leadership programs predict student leaders' leadership self-efficacy. This third research sub-question was answered by employing a Hierarchical Linear regression model. In this Hierarchical Linear regression model the factors that contributed to or detracted from participation in leadership programs served as predictors and leadership self-efficacy score served as the criterion for the outcome. As a collective group, factors that contributed to participation were positive predictors and were significant, whereas collective group factors that detracted from participation were negative predictors and were not significant. Table 5 presents the results of the predictive effects

of factors that contributed to participation in leadership programs on leadership self-efficacy scores (F (df1, df2) = XX.XX, p < .XX, R2 = .XX), especially the effect size, R2.

Table 5

Hierarchical Linear Regression Results of the Predictive Effects of Factors that Contributed to and Detracted from Participation in Leadership Programs on Leadership Self-efficacy Scores

Predictor	β -	*t*	*p*
Leadership Self-Efficacy Score			
Factors that Contribute to Participation	.38	3.43	< .001*
Factors that Detract from Participation	-.04	-.323	.748

N = 87

Discussion

The findings from this study are intended to add to the current literature and fill in some of the gaps for the current assessment of undergraduate leadership development programs. Additionally, the findings from this study explored how factors to participation in leadership programs predicted student leaders' leadership self-efficacy. This study had student leaders assess themselves on areas such as leadership opportunity, goal setting, team motivation, innovative changes, and ethical actions and integrity, and then discuss some of the factors that contributed to and detracted from their participation in a leadership development opportunity and better understand how this may impact levels of leadership self-efficacy. This study helped identify some of the underrepresented demographics in these programs, as well as explore the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders.

The responses to the survey revealed that female (77%) students participate in these programs at a much higher rate than male (20.7%), or non-binary (2.3%) students. In their 2014 study that explored demographics and leadership practices with college students, Gallagher et al. had a similar level of participation among gender with 69.1% of participants being female and 30.4% being male. The results of the current survey also indicated that White (64.4%) students participated at a higher rate than non-White students (35.6%). Black (29.9%) students participated at the highest rate among non-White participants, followed by Asian (1.1%) and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (1.1%). Again the Gallagher et al. (2014) study had similar participation among the ranking of racial identity, but had a larger

percentage of White (80.5%) students compared to non-White (19.5%) students. Additionally, in the current study, first-generation college students (12.6%) participated in these programs less than students who were not first-generation college students (87.4%). This finding is consistent with Soria et al. (2014) findings that showed that first-generation college students are 1.35 times less likely to participate in on-campus leadership positions compared to non-first-generation college students. The distribution among classification was fairly equal among participants that listed a classification between freshman and senior, while 5th year or more only accounted for 1.1% of the participants.

A theme that emerged with the contributing factors to participation was alignment with personal goals, where 74.7% of participants in the current study reported that as a contributing factor. This finding is similar to the findings of Simmons et al. (2017) who surveyed undergraduate engineering students who listed a major factor to on-campus engagement was the alignment of experiences and personal goals. In the same study, participants reported a lack of time as their greatest detraction from on-campus involvement, which was a major theme that emerged from this study with 50.6% of participants listing a lack of time to invest in the opportunity (Simmons et al., 2017). An important thing to note was that there were 304 individual responses among the participants for factors that contributed to participation and 110 individual responses among the participants for factors that detracted from participation. This suggests that the participants had more factors that were encouraging them to participate, than discouraging them.

Exploring how the factors that contributed to and detracted from leadership development participation showed that contributing factors were a positive and significant predictor in leadership self-efficacy. For every one-unit increase in contributing factors, leadership self-efficacy scores increased by β = .38 standard deviations. The significance of this predictor compliments Soria et al.'s 2020 study that noted a student's participation in leadership programs was a greater predictor for their leadership self-efficacy than their demographics or their pre-collegiate leadership experiences or beliefs. Given that all of the participants were student leaders, this could explain why the contributing factors were so significant. The finding of detracting factors were found to be insignificant could be explained by the fact that participants were student leaders and may have not faced as many detractions or barriers to participation.

Implications for Practice

This study produced some valuable insight into on-campus leadership development programs and opportunities and the student leaders that are engaging in these opportunities. Institutional leaders, student affairs practitioners, and leadership development program managers may consider the information that came from this study to reflect on their own programs, and their efforts to grow, or shape their student leadership development programs. The results of this study showed which specific demographics are underrepresented in these programs. Program administrators can consider using these results to build recruitment and retention strategies that may appeal to these demographics. Male students are one of the biggest demographic areas that are underrepresented in these programs, followed by non-White students, and first-generation students. Program administrators who are looking to build their leadership programs should look to these groups as opportunities for growth.

With contributing factors to participation shown to be a significant positive predictor to a student leader's leadership self-efficacy, program administrators should consider these factors as strategies for potential growth, recruitment, and retention. These factors include things such as aligning opportunities with personal goals, providing suitable mentors, and promoting social engagement. During the recruitment and admission stage of the leadership program, program administrators could collect information from potential participants regarding their personal goals and their motivation for joining the leadership program. This could give insight on how to deliver or market certain elements within the program to emphasize what students find most valuable. Additionally, program administrators should consider developing a network of mentors composed of diverse individuals who would be suitable to assist underrepresented students. These mentors could be among the faculty and staff of the institution or could be peer mentors.

Although factors that detracted from participation were not a significant predictor to leadership self-efficacy, program administrators could still consider a lack of time as a factor that is detracting students from participating in leadership development programs. As the landscape of higher education continues to shift, program administrators should look to their students to gather information on how to maximize their available time. Short programs during the day, virtual workshops, and self-paced elements should be considered to provide the greatest amount of accessibility to their student leaders.

The results of this study also revealed that students who participate in on-campus leadership development programs

have a high leadership self-efficacy score. The mean self-efficacy score for the total population of this study was 4.54 out of a 5.0-point scale. Reasoning behind this increased self-efficacy in leadership may be related to the fact that efficacy beliefs are often derived from personal experiences (McCormick et al., 2002), such as the findings from participation in undergraduate leadership programming. Also, these findings further complement Soria et al.'s (2020) suggestion that it may be possible to increase a college student's leadership self-efficacy through co-curricular trainings, programs, or workshops, which the undergraduate leadership programming provided to students. However, to note the research also suggested that participation in on-campus leadership programs explains a more significant amount of variance in a student's leadership self-efficacy than other factors, including pre-collegiate leadership experiences and beliefs, demographics, and other experiences in college, thus research studies like this one are critical to better understanding how varied factors impact leadership self-efficacy.

The current study provides valuable information for leadership educators who work in student leadership programming. While there is a significant amount of research on student leadership development, there is little existing research on leadership self-efficacy of participants in undergraduate leadership development programs and the underrepresented demographics of these programs. This study encourages leadership educators to examine their own leadership development programs and build recruitment strategies and programs that seek to increase engagement among male students, non-White students, and first-generation college students.

Limitations

This quantitative study was limited in its generalizability as it examined students from one specific large public comprehensive research university in the Southeastern United States and may not represent the population of other institutions. A delimitation in this study is that it did not include the students who did not participate in an undergraduate leadership opportunity. The researcher chose not to include these students due to the feasibility of including every student who attends the university. Additionally, the study is limited due to the fact that there will be several different student leadership positions represented with different purposes and outcomes in terms of leadership learning. This study assumed that a self-efficacy tool displayed an accurate depiction of a student's leadership self-efficacy because the students would be self-reporting on their own beliefs about their leadership self-efficacy. The factors that were examined in this

study were parental influence, alignment with personal goals, mentors, ability to invest time, academic achievement, social engagement, ability to afford college, and academic major and it was possible that participants defined these factors differently so defining on the survey may prove to be useful for clarity. The researchers worked with the Office of Academic Affairs to identify all applicable leadership opportunities, but the researchers acknowledge that there could have been leadership programs that were overlooked. Lastly, this study also assumed that the participants were honest in their answers to the survey questions.

Recommendations for Future Research

In order to address some of the limitations listed, the researcher recommends further research be conducted in order to provide a broader scope on demographic participation in leadership programming and the factors to participation. Given that this study only examined students who participated in leadership programming, there were more insights on the factors that led them to participate in leadership programming. If students who did not participate in leadership programs were included, more valuable insights on the motivators and the barriers that students face to participating in leadership programs could be gathered. This information would be valuable to leadership educators as they try to grow their programs numerically, or grow access to their programs.

Given that this study identified some of the underrepresented demographics within undergraduate leadership programs, future research could dive further into the specific barriers that each demographic may face when considering participation in leadership programming. Future research could further explore gender differences and why females are more likely to participate in leadership programs than males, or why White students participated at higher rates than non-White students. This research will be particularly important as institutions become more and more diverse.

Additionally, future research could conduct a longitudinal study that looks at student self-efficacy as it changes over time while student leaders participate in these programs. This could give further evidence that these programs can be attributed to an increase in student leaders' leadership self-efficacy. Showing how leadership self-efficacy correlates to student success and persistence could be a great way to further communicate the value of on-campus leadership programming to institutions of higher education. Additionally, further research could examine how the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders impacts individuals beyond graduation as alumni and young professionals, as individuals who have participated in

on-campus leadership development programs have reported that they are using leadership competencies that they explored in these programs in their professional lives (Egan et al., 2020). Lastly, data were reported by grouping all contributing factors together. Knowing how the contributing factors independently shaped leadership participation may be a more meaningful way to inform practice.

Conclusion

Colleges and universities across the United States are facing continued pressure to meet enrollment, retention, and graduation goals, as budgets cuts continue. On-campus involvement has been shown to have a positive influence on a student's decision to stay at their particular institution. When a student participates in an undergraduate leadership development program or assumes an on-campus leadership position, they often demonstrate higher rates of academic success. The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership self-efficacy of undergraduate students who participated in on-campus leadership development opportunities, identify student demographics in these programs, and explore some of the factors that contributed to and detracted from participation in these programs.

This study was significant because it may fill a gap in the literature by examining factors that may lead students to join leadership development programs or take on leadership positions, as well as help leadership program administrators to specifically design leadership programming that could attract students from groups that are not well represented. The results of this study showed that factors to participation in on-campus leadership development opportunities were significant predictors in the leadership self-efficacy of student leaders. Additionally, this study showed that male students, non-White students, and first-generation college students are vastly underrepresented in these leadership programs and opportunities. This study provided valuable information for higher education administrators in terms of student success and retention as well as information for leadership educators that are looking to improve participation and accessibility of their leadership programs. This study intends to encourage leadership educators to focus on building a more diverse and inclusive leadership programs in the future, and it further communicates the value of leadership education to the student experience and the overall mission of higher education.

REFERENCES

Abu-Tineh, A. M., Khasawneh, S. A., & Omary, A. A. (2009). Kouzes and Posner's ‘ transformational leadership model in practice: The case of Jordanian schools. *Journal of Leadership Education, 7*(2), 265-283. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730810916613

Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L.E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution.* http://www.cep.edu.rs/public/Altbach,_Reisberg,_Rumbley_Tracking_an_Academic_Revolution,_UNESCO_2009.pdf

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28,* 117-148. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2802_3

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84(*2), 191-215. https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-295x.84.2.191

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Sage Publications.

Bennett, E. A. (2017). *The relationship between first-year student retention and type of faculty at a four-year public research university: A profile of three academic colleges.* (Doctoral dissertation). Ohio University.

Bordas, J. (2007). *Salsa, soul, and spirit: Leadership for a multi-cultural age*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Bowman, N., Brandenberger, J., Hill, P., Lapsley, D., & Quaranto, J. (2010). Serving in college, flourishing in adulthood: Does community engagement during the college years predict adult well-being? *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-being, 2*(1), 14-34. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01020.x

Braxton, J. M., Doyle, W. R., Hartley III, H. V., Hirschy, A. S., Jones, W. A., & McLendon, M.K. (2014). *Rethinking college student retention*. Jossey-Bass.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper & Row.

Campus Compact. (2016). *Campus compact member survey*. http://compact.org/initiatives/membership-survey/

Colby, A., Ehrlich, R., Beaumont, E., & Stephens, J. (2003). Educating undergraduates for responsible citizenship. *Change*, *35*(6), 40-48. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091380309604127

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage.

Dugan, J. P., Kodama, C., Correia, B. & Associates. (2013). Multi-institutional study of leadership insight report: Leadership program delivery.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). *Developing leadership capacity in college students: Findings from a national study*. A Report from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influence on college students' capacities for socially responsible leadership*. Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(5), 525-549. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2010.0009

Dugan, J. P. (2006). Involvement and leadership: A descriptive analysis of socially responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*, 335-343. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2006.0028

Eagan, K., Stolzenberg, E. B., Bates, A. K., Aragon, M. C., Suchard, M. R., & Rios-Aguilar, C. (2015). *The American freshman: National norms fall 2015.* Cooperative Institutional Research Program & Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA*.* University of California, Los Angeles.

Egan, J., McBrayer, J.S., Tolman, S., & Wells, P. (2020). Exploring alumni valuation of an undergraduate leadership program. *Journal of Leadership Education, 19*(4), 68-83. https://doi: 10.12806/V19/I4/R6

Gallagher, M. L., Marshall, J. C., Pories, M. L., & Daughety, M. (2014). Factors effecting undergraduate leadership behaviors. *Journal of Leadership Education, 13*(1), 46-56. https://doi.org/10.12806/V13/I1/R4

Haber-Curran, P. (2019). Co-curricular involvement and student leadership as catalysts for student learning. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2019(*188), 33-41. https://doi.org/10.1002/he.20343

Hershan, R., & Lauderdale, C.L. (2018). *Trends in higher education: 2018 outlook*. https://www.alvarezandmarsal.com/sites/default/files/article/pdf/trends_in_higher_education_2018_outlook.pdf

Jafee, D. (2007). Peer cohorts and the unintended consequences of freshman learning communities. *College Teaching, 55*(2), 65-71. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.55.2.65-71

Jacobs, J., & Archie, T. (2008). Investigating sense of community in first-year college students. *Journal of Experiential Education, 30,* 282-285. https://doi.org/10.1177/105382590703000312

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S., Owen, J. O., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A leadership identity development model: Applications from a grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*, 401-418. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2006.0048

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations (2nd ed)*. Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2008). *The student leadership challenge: Five practices for exemplary leaders.* Jossey-Bass.

Kuh, G., Cruce, T., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J., & Gonyea, R. M. (2008). Unmasking the effects of student engagement on first-year college grades and persistence. *Journal of Higher Education, 79*(5)*,* 540-563. https://doi.org/10.1353/jhe.0.0019

Lopez, M. H., & Gonzalez-Barrera, A. (2014). Women's college enrollment gains leave men behind. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2014/03/06/womens-college-enrollmentgains-leave-men-behind/

Machida, M., & Schaubroeck, J. (2011). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in leader development. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 18*(4), 459-468. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811404419

Mainella, F. C. (2017). Intentional design of student organizations to optimize leadership development. *New Directions for Student Leadership*, *155*, 33–43. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.20248

Maya, I., & Uzman, E. (2019). The predictive power of university students' self-leadership strategies on their self-efficacy. *Educational Research and Reviews, 14*(11), 372-379. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR2019.3747

McBrayer, J. S., Akins, C., Gutierrez, A. B., Cleveland, R., & Pannell, S. (2020). Instructional leadership practices and school leaders' self-efficacy. *School Leadership Review, 15*(1), 1-33. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2017.1286765

McBrayer, J. S., Jackson, T., Pannell, S. S., Sorgen, C., Gutierrez, A., & Melton, T. (2018). Balance of instructional and managerial tasks as it relates to school leaders' self-efficacy. *Journal of School Leadership*, *28*, 596-617. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268461802800502

McCormick, M. J., Tanguma, J., Lopez-Forment, A. S. (2002). Extending self-efficacy theory to leadership: A review and empirical test. *Journal of Leadership Education, 1*(2), 34-49.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2018). *Undergraduate retention and graduation rates*. U.S. Department of Education.

https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_ctr.asp

National Center for Education Statistics. (2020). *Undergraduate retention and graduation rates.* U.S. Department of Education. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_ctr.asp

Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership theory and practice* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Sage Publications.

Ozdemir, N., & Yalcin, M. T. (2018). An evaluation of principals' leadership practices on assistant principals' leadership self-efficacy. *International Journal of Eurasia Social Sciences, 9*(32), 1298-1318.

Paglis, L. L., & Green, S. G. (2002). Leadership self-efficacy and managers' motivation for leading change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23,* 215-235. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.137

Panke, S., & Stephens, J. (2018). Beyond the echo chamber: Pedagogical tools for civic engagement discourse and reflection*. Educational Technology & Society, 21*(1), 248–263.

Seemiller, C. (2013). *The student leadership competencies guidebook: Designing intentional leadership learning and development*. Jossey-Bass.

Senemoglu, N. (2004). Teachers' professional development needs and the systems that meet them. *Creative Education, 5(*16), 497-1511.

Simmons, D. R., Ye, Y., Ohland, M. W., & Garahan, K. (2017). Understanding students' incentives for and barriers to out-of-class participation: Profile of civil engineering student engagement. *Journal of Professional Issues in Engineering Education and Practice, 144*(2). https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EI.1943-5541.0000353

Soria, K. M., Kaste, K., Diekemper, K. M., Blamo, M., Belrose, M. R., & Brazelton, G. B. (2020). Enriching college students' leadership efficacy. *Journal of Leadership Education, 19*(4), 87-95. https://doi.org/10.12806/V19/I4/R7

Soria, K. M., Hussein, D., & Vue, C. (2014). Leadership for whom? Socioeconomic factors predicting undergraduate students' leadership participation. *Journal of Leadership Education, 13(*1), 14-26. https://doi.org/10.12806/V13/I1/R2

The Almanac of Higher Education. (2018). The Chronicle of Higher Education, *64*(14).

Turner, P., & Thompson, E. (2014). College retention initiatives meeting the needs of millennial freshman students. *College Student Journal, 48,* 94-104.

Van Duser, K. E., Lucas, C., & Cohen, S. (2020). The influence of rising tuition on first-year students' enrollment and persistence intentions. *College Student Journal, 54*(4), 421-

430.

Webber, K.L., Krylow, R.B., & Zhang, Q. (2013). Does involvement really matter? Indicators of college student success and satisfaction. *Journal of College Student Development, 54*(6), 591-611. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2013.0090

Yoon, S. Y., Imbrie, P.K., & Reed, T. (2016). Development of the leadership self-efficacy scale for engineering students. *American Society for Engineering Education: Annual Conference & Exposition.*

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES & CONTACT INFORMATION

Ben Phillips, EdD., is currently the Vice President of Learning & Leadership Development at AgSouth Farm Credit. In his role at AgSouth he provides oversight for multiple areas of the business including a values-based leadership program, manager development and coaching, strategic management, change management, and leadership development for the board of directors. Dr. Phillips research uses leadership self-efficacy to explore the differences among demographic groups in terms of their leadership competencies, and leadership motivations. Dr. Phillips has a Doctor of Education, a Master of Education, and a Bachelor of Business all from Georgia Southern University. Dr. Phillips lives in Statesboro, Georgia with his wife, their son, and their dog.

Email: bp01287@gmail.com

Juliann Sergi McBrayer, Ed.D., is currently an Associate Professor in Educational Leadership at Georgia Southern University and Co-Director of the National Youth Advocacy and Resilience Research Center. She holds a doctorate and specialist degree from Georgia Southern University, a master's degree from Ohio University, and a bachelor's degree from SUNY College at Buffalo. She has served over 20 years in educational leadership roles. Her research agenda includes the umbrella of development, implementation, and assessment of educational leadership and teacher preparation programs to ensure effectiveness and accountability. In addition, this agenda is focused on educational leadership self-efficacy, school safety, restorative justice, and educator well-being. Her research is intended to support educational improvement through evidence-based practices and strong P-20 partnerships.

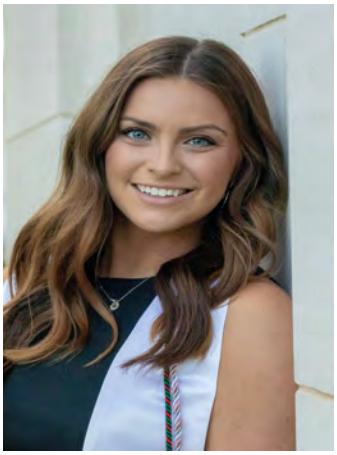
Email: jmcbrayer@georgiasouthern.edu

Brandon Hunt, Ph.D., is currently a Professor in Counselor Education. She holds a master's and doctorate from the University of Virginia and a bachelor's degree from James Madison University. Her research areas of interest include counselor professional development and training, counseling LGBTQ+ clients, and qualitative research in counseling.

Email: bhunt@georgiasouthern.edu

Antonio P. Gutierrez de Blume, Ph.D., is currently an Associate Professor of Research at Georgia Southern University, where he teaches quantitative research methods and statistics. His research expertise is in examining metacognition under the theory of self-regulated learning. More specifically, he is interested in how learners monitor their comprehension during learning episodes. His program of research includes examining the effects of dispositional characteristics (e.g., various aspects of motivation) and learning strategy training on learners' calibration (accuracy and bias), confidence in performance judgments, and performance as well as investigating the latent dimensions of calibration to improve its measurement.

Email: agutierrez@georgiasouthern.edu



Katherine Fallon, M.S., is currently a fourth-year doctoral student in the Clinical Psychology program at Georgia Southern University. She obtained her Bachelor of Arts in Psychology at the University of Alabama and her Master of Science in Clinical Psychology at Georgia Southern University. Katherine is a research assistant with a focus on scholarly practitioner research for the National Youth Advocacy and Resiliency Research Center. Her research and clinical interests include advocating for underserved populations exhibiting difficulties related to trauma, behavioral concerns, aggression, and safety concerns.

Email: kf10548@georgiasouthern.edu