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Leading in the Real World: Operationalizing a Power-Based Model of Collaboration for Leadership Experiential Learning

Mariana J. Lebrón and Filiz Tabak

ABSTRACT
Using a power-based conceptual framework, we present a collaboration model to guide faculty and student affairs (SA) staff in working together to develop experiential learning assignments that help students apply leadership concepts to on-campus organizational problems. The Power-Based Student-Centered Collaboration Model (PSCM) consists of four stages through which faculty, SA staff, leadership course students, and student organization leaders operationalize their legitimate, coercive, expert, reward, and informational power in sharing resources for mutually beneficial student-centered learning experiences. Power structures provide coordinating mechanisms for information-exchange, decision-making, and role clarification in team-based collaborations. Using the PSCM, we developed a 6-week assignment Leading in the Real World for an organizational leadership course. By assessing leadership challenges, leadership course students helped student organization leaders improve performance. We outline how to build collaborative teams for motivating learning experiences that engage students in learning leadership. We discuss students’ reflections on faculty, SA staff, and student organization leaders’ feedback.

KEYWORDS
leadership; collaboration; power; experiential learning; faculty; student affairs; higher education; AACSB

Introduction
Leadership faculty and student affairs (SA) staff both strive to identify and apply new methods to teach leadership to college students and educate them in being effective leaders. Yet they differ in the context in which they facilitate students’ learning: faculty develop curricular solutions and SA staff develop cocurricular solutions. Many leadership courses require group projects in which students apply theory to real-life case studies (e.g., Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012). Such projects positively impact leadership learning objectives (Snell, Chan, Ma, & Chan, 2015). However, many faculty experience obstacles in developing student assignments to apply theory in real-world application due to limited time (Madsen & Turnbull, 2006) and organization access (Rashford & De Figueiredo, 2011), while SA staff struggle with increasing student participation in leadership trainings (Astin, 1984). Experiential learning is more effective when integrated within the curriculum because otherwise many students cannot participate due to employment time commitments and funding limitations (Coker & Porter, 2015).

When faculty use experiential learning methods to engage students with organizational leaders in applying discipline-specific knowledge and skills to performance issues, students build interpersonal and leadership skill competencies (American College Personnel Association, 2016). Unfortunately, faculty have limited resources for experiential learning, specifically time and funding to develop these time-intensive opportunities and monitor student participation. More importantly, students lack funding and transportation to off-campus organizations. Considering that power refers to the asymmetrical control of valued resources (Galinsky, Rucker, & Magee, 2015), faculty can develop experiential learning projects that maximize student learning outcomes by working with powerful SA staff, who control valued resources that they lack. SA staff have legitimate authority over recognized student leadership organizations and understand their challenges. By using on-campus student organizations as project clients, all course students can easily access their leaders, observe student leader meetings, interview members, and innovatively engage in the assignment. Further, experiential learning activities that are personally meaningful motivate students’ to actively engage in the process (Chavez...
& Poirier, 2007). Thus, our main research question is: how can faculty and SA staff leverage their social power to influence student-centered collaboration to create experiential learning leadership opportunities?

Power not only helps leaders to facilitate effective collaboration projects but also influences the need for collaboration. Faculty and university administrators are under increasing pressure from institutional forces to provide experiential learning opportunities (Starkey & Tempest, 2009) that challenge students to engage their critical thinking and analytical skills to solve practical organizational problems (Bell, Kanar, & Kozlowski, 2008). Employer criticism that student graduates lack effective critical thinking and interpersonal skills (Ackerman, Gross, & Perner, 2003) can be proactively addressed by experiential learning leadership initiatives (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009) as they learn to analyze issues from understanding others’ perspectives (Wren & Riggio, 2009). Cultural value differences impact how students will problem-solve leadership challenges (Dugan & Komives, 2010). While the leadership curriculum focuses on leadership theory, leadership course student teams interacting with student organization leaders create an optimal environment in which to understand organizational issues from others’ viewpoints.

The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB, 2016) calls for management educators to increase strategic innovations that lead to effective student engagement, innovation, and impact (American College Personnel Association, 2016). As universities are pressured to be accountable for student learning effectiveness, student course grades as performance indicators may be less useful than performance data related to learning outcomes associated with specific program-related skills and knowledge (Moskal, Ellis, & Keon, 2008). By placing students in organizations working with practitioners helping them learn, students gain practical wisdom through experiential learning that increases business school credibility for stakeholders (Billsberry & Birnik, 2010).

Experiential learning is a process through which students develop new knowledge by engaging in the experience of thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving to assimilate theoretical concepts into experiences and vice versa (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Through experiential learning, students learn leadership through the subjective lens of their personal experience (Kelly, 2013) while also developing decision-making, critical-thinking, and communication skills (Bruni-Bossio & Wellness, 2016; Figueiredo & Mauri, 2012; Tinto, 1998). As they apply knowledge in a new experience, they transform their experience and consequently, create new knowledge (Bradley, Burch, & Burch, 2015; Kolb, 1984). The more relevant the course material, the more motivated, confident, and satisfied students are to learn, which enhances instructional effectiveness (Burke & Moore, 2003). By participating in relevant on-campus experiential learning leadership activities, students’ motivation to learn about leadership increases because they share an understanding of the student organization’s sociocultural context. For example, Peters and Yanagi (2006) found that students are positively impacted as consultants for their colleges and universities’ organizational units; specifically, students reported increased organizational commitment, sense of task identity, and feeling they can make a long-term positive contribution to their community.

An increasing call for linking leadership curriculum to relevant experiential opportunities to learn, combined with asymmetrical control of valued resources across faculty and SA staff, suggests a clear need for a systematic approach to coordination of leadership learning across higher education divisions. Building on power bases (e.g., French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1999) and team power structures literature (e.g., Greer, 2014), we present our four-stage faculty and SA staff Power-Based Student-Centered Collaboration Model (PSCM) that illustrates how different university power coalitions can build effective collaborative teams to develop student-accessible and highly engaging experiential learning leadership projects. We argue that team power structures, specifically power level, variety, and dispersion, can serve as coordinating mechanisms for faculty and SA staff collaborative teams to improve participation, information-exchange, decision-making structures, and role clarification to share valued student learning resources.

In this paper, we contribute to leadership education by relating a PSCM used by faculty and SA staff. To leverage their social power to influence student-centered collaboration, we present an on-campus real-world experiential learning assignment created from this collaboration to achieve student learning outcomes for an organizational leadership course. We know that academic–practitioner collaborations that further management research practically and theoretically can be difficult (Amabile et al., 2001; Bartunek, 2007, 2008). Therefore, we explain how faculty operationalized the PSCM when working with SA staff to develop and implement a 6-week experiential learning project for an organizational leadership course. We present the results of one case of using the PSCM in practice: 65 leadership students served as leadership consultants for 12 registered student organization clients. The leadership students successfully used leadership theory and
assessment tools to analyze leadership issues (e.g., communication; decision-making; team conflict). Finally, we discuss the model’s theoretical basis, Leading in the Real World experiential project, and faculty, staff, and student reflections.

**Literature review**

Successful student learning outcomes increase when students are presented with a variety of curricular-based experiential learning opportunities that meet their unique learning and career goals (Coker & Porter, 2015). In this paper, we argue that faculty and SA staff collaborations that share valued resources create effective opportunities for students to apply leadership theory to practice, while also helping universities meet leadership learning objectives efficiently and effectively. Faculty and SA staff collaboration, defined as “contexts in which individuals or groups seek to work together or share learning, but have to operate across organizational or disciplinary boundaries to achieve their goals” (Hibbert, Siedlok, & Beech, 2016, p. 26), requires each group to learn about the others’ needs and processes that differ from their own.

Power gives individuals potential influence over prospective collaborators’ actions, beliefs, and resource allocation decisions (French & Raven, 1959). Power and collaboration are related, as illustrated through real-life scenarios, such as the 1999 World Trade Organization protests during which protestors and police used their power to influence institutional change (Lawrence, Winn, & Jennings, 2001). At the organizational level, universities also use power-based mechanisms to collaboratively address issues. In 2015, University of Missouri students, faculty, and staff collaborated to address systemic biases through a hunger strike, petitions, and football team boycott (Altman, 2015). Effective use of power leveraging boundary-spanning teams creates new opportunities to apply leadership theory in practice, particularly if they align with an organization’s mission.

**Power in teams: level, variety, and dispersion**

Power is central to our identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Leaders use their power to effect change (Raven, 1993), influence decision-making processes (Child, 1997; Raven, 1990), and control resources to impact outcomes (Clegg, 1975; Clegg & Dunkerly, 1980). Despite a variety of interests, different groups collaborate and share resources (Eisenhardt & Schoonhaven, 1996) to achieve a common objective (Jassawalla & Sashittal, 1998). Naturally, these groups may differ, or conflict, about how to collaborate when first working with those outside their primary divisions (Hibbert, Huxham, Sydow, & Lerch, 2010; Hibbert et al., 2016). The PSCM builds on three relevant team power structures to explain how a power-based team collaboration can result in creative and effective student learning outcomes: team power level referring to average level of power by individuals, power dispersion referring to power hierarchy associated with different degrees of power among team members, and power variety referring to different power sources (Greer, 2014; Greer, Caruso, & Jehn, 2011; Greer & Van Kleef, 2010).

**Power level: increased participation and information-exchange**

Power activates individual-level emotion that influence team processes constructively or nonconstructively (Greer, 2014). Constructively, as individuals become more powerful, their goal-directed behavior increases (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003) which makes them more engaged in sharing information (Edmonson, 1999) that impact team performance (Aime, Humphrey, Derue, & Paul, 2014; Humphrey, Morgeson, & Mannor, 2009). Negatively, increasing the average power level of team members can cause distrust because powerful individuals may perceive their power is threatened, potentially increasing intragroup conflict (Greer & Van Kleef, 2010; Kim, Pinkley, & Fragale, 2005).

Through collaboration, faculty and SA staff actively engage in mutual information-exchange communication processes to understand others’ needs and resources (Hibbert et al., 2010, 2016) and determine when dispersed power should be applied using a hierarchical decision-making approach (e.g., faculty determining how the assignment will be graded or SA staff determining student organization incentives for participation). Vroom and Jago (1974) describe effective decision-making as a social process through which decision-makers compare alternative solutions based on the “relative amounts of influence that each has on the final solution or decision reached (p. 743).” Actively engaging in mutual information-exchange communication processes help collaborators understand others’ needs and resources (Hibbert et al., 2010, 2016). Interpretive learning practices are team processes through which members openly share different perspectives about their responsibilities for student learning needs, resulting in new shared understandings about collaborator’s needs (Huxham & Vangen, 2000) that shape how their decisions and actions in their different organizational contexts (Carlile, 2002). When
faculty and SA staff collaborative team members are all highly powerful, they are positioned to engage in interpretive learning practices to clearly communicate and understand the others’ student learning needs and resources to meet these needs, specifically by asking questions, providing ideas, and correcting misperceptions. The earlier these shared understandings develop, the more effectively they can use their power to allocate resources to meet the others’ needs because needs are clearly defined, understood, and time is not wasted.

**Power dispersion: increased coordination and efficient decision-making processes**

Power dispersion within faculty and SA collaborative teams provides clear efficient decision-making hierarchical structures. Although power dispersion can increase negative power inequality perceptions that inhibit effective communication and increase conflict (Greer, 2014), team power dispersion clarifies hierarchy in decision-making roles that positively influences team coordination and structure. In curricular-based collaborations, faculty serve as team coordinators, while in non-curricular-based collaborations, SA staff coordinate. Because faculty are authorized to make decisions regarding course assignments, course learning objectives provide faculty with clear decision-making criteria and structure.

**Power variety: role clarity and mutual respect**

Social power involves the “ability of an agent to bring about change in attitudes, behavior, or beliefs [of a target] by using resources available” (Raven, 2008, p. 1) to achieve goals (French & Raven, 1959; Horner, 2010; Lynall, Golden, & Hillman, 2003; Pfeffer, J, 1981). Power variety, or different power sources, within faculty and SA collaborative teams provides a conceptual mechanism with which to clarify roles; roles are determined relative to which valued resources the team member controls (Greer, 2014).

Agents use different power bases to influence target perceptions and desired compliance: (a) coercive power influences punishment perceptions; (b) reward power influences perceptions of valued resources; (c) legitimate power influences perceptions of formal, hierarchical authority; (d) expert power influences expertise perceptions; (e) referent power influences perceptions of identification with a specific person, or group; and (f) informational power influences decision-making outcomes (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965). Raven (1992) differentiated legitimate power into four categories: position power, reciprocity based on target complying because agent had helped the target, equity based on complying to compensate agent for completed work, and dependence based on complying because agent needs help. By providing a structure to clarify different roles, team power variety limits intragroup member comparisons that are ineffective to team processes, but also may create silos that detract from identifying with the overall collaborative team identity (Greer, 2014).

Social power bases are distinguished as either soft or hard power bases (Raven, 1992) based on how they influence the target’s autonomy to comply (Raven, Shwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998), but are not equally effective in achieving individual commitment that is needed for team performance outcomes (Pierro, Raven, Amato, & Belanger, 2013). Hard power bases (coercion, reward, legitimacy of position, equity, reciprocity) involve control and coercion, while soft power bases (expert, referent, informational, legitimacy of dependence) consider the individual’s freedom to choose. The more the target perceives the agent to be transformational, the more willing the target is to comply with the leader’s soft, not harsh, power bases (Pierro et al., 2013). For example, in the PSCM, faculty and SA staff rely mostly on soft power bases to motivate the others’ collaborative commitment by using legitimate power of dependence to formalize a curricular-based experiential learning activity that involves student organizations. Through their expertise power, they learn leadership and student development theory, concepts, and skills from each other. Through informational power, they explain how their responsibilities for student leadership development are determined, implemented, and evaluated. However, student compliance is essential in curricular-based work; therefore, faculty and SA staff use hard power bases, specifically reward and coercive power, to allocate and withhold resources students value (Table 1).

**Power: collaboratively bridging conflict and negotiation**

Power can be a theoretical bridge to understand how to resolve intra-team conflict that may hinder faculty and SA staff creative collaboration interactions. Conflict may develop when they face different communication and problem-solving behavior norms to exchange ideas, making it unclear how relevant information for the collaboration is transferred across different organizational divisions (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2002; Wenger, 1998); however, some conflict can enhance creative outcomes. Functional conflict improves creative problem solving and innovative outcomes, while dysfunctional conflict does not. Functional conflict is task-oriented and goal congruent, meaning that goals are
typically shared by collaborating parties, whereas dysfunctional conflict revolves around goals not necessarily shared by involved parties (Amason, 1996). Faculty and SA staff may experience functional conflict in having different ideas or processes to meet mutually defined student learning goals. Because power is the asymmetrical control of valued resources in interdependent relationships (Galinsky et al., 2015), as powerful collaborators, they negotiate allocating valued resources in different organizational contexts to meet mutually beneficial needs (Greer & Bendersky, 2013). Negotiation, “an interpersonal decision-making process by which two or more people agree how to allocate scarce resources” (Thompson, 2000, p. 2), is an inherent component of the PSCM because they must negotiate to access the others’ valued resources, while also sharing their own.

When one party perceives its interests are threatened or opposed, dysfunctional conflict may occur (Wall & Callister, 1995); however, by conceptualizing our collaboration model using team power structures, we provide negotiators with a framework to recognize how collaborators’ power differences complement each other in mutually beneficial ways to protect their interests. Different power types determine how valuable resources are allocated (Halevy, Chou, & Galinsky, 2011; Magee, Galinsky, & Grunfeld, 2007; Mannix, 1993). Using team power variety to differentiate which valued resources are controlled by which party relative to mutually beneficial goals, the PSCM guides faculty and SA staff both in recognizing the value of the other party’s different power sources and in understanding how power differences are coordinating structural mechanisms that clarify negotiator roles. Thus, faculty and SA staff learning about the others’ needs is not only a necessary condition but also a source of conflict if they fail to see mutual benefits by meeting each other’s needs. Collaboration processes to manage conflict must include communication processes through which they communicate what they need from the other party and what resources they uniquely offer to meet the other party’s needs.

### Elements of the PSCM

In our model, we suggest power is a necessary, but not sufficient, antecedent for collaboration because it gives the agent potential to influence the target. Powerful faculty can motivate SA staff to collaborate, or vice versa. Their power influences leadership course

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**Table 1. Faculty and student affairs social power to apply the PSCM.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social power bases</th>
<th>Faculty as agent</th>
<th>SA staff as agent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Legitimate</strong></td>
<td>Authority over:</td>
<td>Authority over:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curricular student performance (grades)</td>
<td>Student judicial systems (conduct code)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curricular environment: classroom communication</td>
<td>Cocurricular environment: residence hall living environment; student activity; funding sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Access to leadership course students</td>
<td>Access to student organization leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expert</strong></td>
<td>Expertise-knowledge regarding:</td>
<td>Expertise-knowledge regarding:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discipline-specific theoretical and empirical</td>
<td>Student engagement, retention, development, and discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leadership research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reward</strong></td>
<td>Formal documentation:</td>
<td>Formal documentation:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance review and award nomination support letters documenting SA staff experiential learning leadership</td>
<td>Tenure support letters documenting faculty impact applying theory to practice in organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiences and data:</td>
<td>Experiences and data:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunity for class observations to understand student curricular experience</td>
<td>Access to research data (organizational structures; decision-making systems; performance evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Access to faculty-controlled student communication networks BlackBoard, e-mail listservs) to share student affairs’ staff resource information (counseling, guest speakers, regulations)</td>
<td>Access to student affairs’ staff and student communication networks (professional staff to resident assistants to students) about student projects (final student presentations, symposiums)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance evaluation:</td>
<td>Resources:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High organizational analysis grade</td>
<td>Credit/resources from participating in leadership training initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coercive</strong></td>
<td>Authority:</td>
<td>Authority:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assigning non-passing grades for non-satisfactory class assignment performance</td>
<td>Student disciplinary sanctions: noncompliance with university rules and regulations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informational</strong></td>
<td>Information regarding:</td>
<td>Information regarding:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student motivation and engagement: successful curricular-based learning experiences</td>
<td>Student motivation and engagement: cocurricular learning experiences; peer-to-peer communication networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic curriculum requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional competencies discipline-specific employers desire in new graduates</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
students and student organization leaders to participate, while students’ power also influences their beliefs and actions. Thus, additional elements necessary to operationalize this collaboration model include actors and directional influence, resources and networks, and organizational conditions.

**Actors and directional influence**

Essential actors who develop collaborative experiential leadership learning projects include leadership course students, student organization leaders, faculty, and SA staff (e.g., student activities director). Student organization leaders are central players in the model as their feedback and experience is essential to the model’s ongoing development. Because collaboration involves all parties sharing resources to meet mutually identified needs, power is bidirectional and simultaneous, with collaborating partners serving as both target and agent at different points during the collaborative process, influencing how valued information and resources are shared through this experiential learning project (see Fig. 1).

First, six discrete balances of directional influence between actors can be identified. Before discussion to collaborate can happen, faculty learn from leadership course students about their development needs and ideas related to AACSB mandates that improve the model’s future design and implementation, while course students learn leadership knowledge and skills from faculty (Fig. 1a). Second, faculty and SA staff mutually influence each other’s ideas and actions to meet curricular and cocurricular student leadership needs: faculty learn about mutually beneficial and accessible cocurricular opportunities for students to apply theory to practice, while SA staff learn effective leadership theoretical concepts and opportunities to teach organizational student leaders about leadership (Fig. 1b). Third, SA staff learn from student organizational leaders about leadership challenges student leaders face that help staff assess progress in meeting university-level leadership development goals, while student organizational leaders learn how they can shape a peer-based opportunity to learn from leadership course students about theoretically based leadership concepts and skills (Fig. 1c). Fourth, SA staff learn from leadership course students’ analyses about student organizational leadership development needs and solutions, while leadership course students gain feedback from SA staff about their leadership analysis and presentation skills (Fig. 1d). Fifth, student organization leaders receive practical solutions from leadership course students, while leadership course students learn about challenges in applying theory to practice and in persuading student organization leaders to practically apply this information (Fig. 1e). Finally, student organization leaders play a critical role in the design, implementation, and evaluation of this experiential learning exercise and PSCM; faculty use their feedback to assess how (in)effectively leadership course students were in helping them to resolve challenges and how AACSB and university learning objectives were met (Fig. 1f).

**Networks and resource control**

Collaborators need valued resources controlled by the other party; therefore, the PSCM considers their power inherent in their social and knowledge networks (Wang, Rodan, Fruin, & Xu, 2014): social networks connect individuals with people embedded in a specific social context (Liben-Nowell & Kleinberg, 2007) and knowledge networks connect individuals with specific scientific and technical expertise (Carnabuci & Bruggeman, 2009). Faculty and SA staff networks include both social and knowledge networks that provide resources (e.g., human resources, capital, knowledge) and curricular and cocurricular decision-makers to develop a seamless leadership experiential learning assignment. The actor who controls the balance of valued resources is different at each negotiated balance of directional influence.

**Context: antecedent organizational conditions**

Although context changes slowly, if organizational conditions are right, they provide the motivation across institutional divisions to enable the sharing of resources. When student experiential leadership learning needs are legitimized through professional association, employer, and accreditation standards, faculty and SA staff receive support to prioritize their

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Figure 1. Influential collaborative relationships in the PSCM.
responsibilities and develop institutionally valued academic and SA staff collaborations to meet student learning needs. High-level administrators can use these standards to justify institutional support (e.g., time, funding, human resources). For example, the AACSB values innovative teaching methods to apply leadership theory to organizational problems (American College Personnel Association, 2016), thus legitimizing experiential learning leadership opportunities; using these accreditation standards to assess leadership knowledge and skills increases credibility and value in this student learning approach. Controlling valued experiential leadership learning resources, powerful faculty and SA staff with autonomous decision-making authority most effectively use influencing tactics to influence others’ ideas and participation in maximizing student learning outcomes (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Raven & Rubin, 1983; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002). Whether they respond positively to powerful leaders’ influence depends on their motivation (Pierro, Cicero, & Raven, 2008; Pierro et al., 2013): extrinsically because of external reward and/or intrinsically because “work itself is interesting, engaging, or . . . satisfying” (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994, p. 950).

### PSCM: four stages

In practice, the theoretical balancing of directional influence between faculty and staff is complex, complicated, and embedded in an always evolving organizational context. The PSCM was developed to help apply theoretical knowledge to practice. The PSCM guides faculty and SA staff to operationalize their social power and collaboratively provide leadership course students with experiential learning opportunities. The PSCM consists of four stages that guide faculty and SA staff in developing the collaborative team as an organizational structural mechanism through which they influence each other in developing the experiential learning assignment (Fig. 2).

Faculty and SA staff with legitimate, expert, reward and informational power can be either influencing agent or target with each other because their control of valued knowledge, student access, rewards, and information resources influences the other’s participation. As agents

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**Figure 2.** Faculty and student affairs Power-Based Student-Centered Collaboration Model (PSCM).
influencing leadership course students’ and student organization leaders’ participation as targets, their legitimate, expert, informational, coercive, and reward social power gives them authority to provide valued rewards or limit unwanted consequences in addition to controlling valued knowledge and information. Similarly, students’ legitimate, expert, information, and reward power influences faculty and SA staff engagement. In the PSCM, students are the central link and foundation; faculty and SA staff have a common objective that makes collaboration possible: student success, defined as effectively applying leadership theory to practice to improve organizational performance.

**Stage 1 initiate: discuss potential collaboration**

The objective of Stage 1 is to create antecedent organizational conditions where faculty and SA staff feel motivated to collaborate. In Stage 1, leadership faculty invite student activities staff, or vice versa, to discuss collaborating to meet student leadership development needs. Due to their motivation to fulfill student leadership development needs, faculty and SA interactions in this stage focus on two objectives: (a) to communicate responsibilities for meeting these needs in their specific curricular or cocurricular contexts and (b) to develop shared understandings and respect for the others’ responsibilities and needs. Students participate indirectly. Based on the previous semester’s experiential learning assignment, faculty share leadership course students’ feedback and SA staff share student organization leaders feedback regarding what they learned, challenges they experienced, and recommendations to improve the experience and the PSCM.

**Interdependent relationship: shared understandings**

Faculty and SA staff rarely interact and exchange information about student experiential learning opportunities; consequently, investing significant time in short-term collaboration projects are more challenging (Bjørkeng, Clegg, & Pitsis, 2009; Hayes & Fitzgerald, 2009). However, in this PSCM stage, faculty and SA staff interactions are characterized by intentional information exchange processes that lead to curiosity-driven dialogue underlying long-term collaborative projects (Hibbert et al., 2016). As they “step into the unknown,” they develop new understandings about their “personal and disciplinary limitations,” connections through open-dialogue and questioning, and shared understandings about each other, creating a new schema through which needs are evaluated (pp. 34–38). This awareness leads to further curiosity-driven dialogue with SA divisions and academic departments as they self-evaluate their preconceived assumptions about others’ needs, consequently building authentic long-term collaborative foundations for a mutually beneficial interdependent relationship to occur.

By listening to others’ motivation and needs, they learn how resources they control can help the other party and how valued resources controlled by the other party can help them. In our experience, faculty are both intrinsically motivated to provide a high-quality, hands-on, practical student experience applying theory within a real organization and extrinsically motivated by external recognition, such as by teaching awards, tenure qualifications, or access to research field data. Data access translates into research publication prospects, adding credibility to a tenure-track professor’s tenure portfolio. Similarly, SA staff are motivated intrinsically in providing seamless learning experiences and extrinsically by professional recognition for leading leadership experiences integrated within the curriculum.

**Power**

In this stage, faculty and SA staff use their power to influence the others’ motivation to collaborate. In describing their student leadership development responsibilities, they simultaneously describe valued resources they control. With legitimate power, faculty have positional authority to develop curricular-based leadership learning assignments, while SA staff have authority over student organization leadership training, advising, and resources. With expertise power, they explain their discipline’s theoretical approach for student leadership development processes and challenges. Using informational power, they explain processes that prioritize their responsibility for student learning needs. Faculty’s student leadership development responsibilities are legitimized through discipline-specific promotion, tenure, rank and merit (PTRM) review expectations codified in university senate legislation or their college’s professional accreditation standards. SA’s leadership development responsibilities are legitimized (a) through directives by the division of SA vice president and the university president (e.g., student retention and engagement) and (b) through SA professional associations, such as the American College Personnel Association (2016) and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (2016), who nationally award staff for seamless learning experiences that integrate student curricular and cocurricular experiences.

**Conflict and negotiation: perceived values, needs, and power**

Because faculty and SA staff come from different organizational cultures, they may misperceive the others’
values and motivations, and overlook mutually beneficial opportunities to share resources unless this stage remains focused on understanding others’ needs. Misaligned values derail collaborations if they prioritize their needs at the other’s expense; effective collaborators value mutually beneficial needs, student-centered learning experiences, and honest communication. However, as powerful negotiators controlling resources the other party needs, each party understands the other’s dependence on them for resources they need. For example, SA student activities directors oversee hundreds of student organizations simultaneously, making it difficult to provide personalized leadership development. Leadership faculty have limited organization experiential learning clients, financial resources, and off-campus student transportation. Negotiators’ perceived power is their estimation of their own potential power and that of the other party; potential power refers to their capacity as negotiators to obtain benefits from this interdependent relationship (Kim et al., 2005). As they listen to each other, faculty and SA staff learn new information that will help them ascertain their power to negotiate effectively in the collaboration.

**Stage 2: form collaborative team vision and goals**

Having developed shared understandings about student leadership development needs, faculty and SA staff interact in Stage 2 to achieve these objectives: (a) commit to collaboration, (b) create the collaborative team vision, (c) establish mutually beneficial student leadership learning needs, and (d) make experiential assignment learning goals. Bridging curricular and cocurricular networks, SA staff involve interested student organization leaders by asking them to self-identify their leadership challenges and organizational problems.

Declaring they will use their legitimate power to share leadership resources in an experiential learning leadership activity benefiting leadership course students and student organization leaders, faculty and SA staff commit to meeting agreed-upon student leadership development needs. For example, collaborative needs may include students learning to apply leadership theory and skills, making effective decisions that maximize performance, and accepting consequences. Faculty and SA staff negotiate in deciding the most important needs that can reasonably be achieved in limited time with available resources. For example, because leadership course students must learn leadership theory and skills first, they are not adequately prepared and knowledgeable until the semester’s nineth week; therefore, we negotiated realistic goals for the 6-week project and eliminated unrealistic options. For example, leadership course students could only assess, not train, student organization leaders in this period.

**Stage 3: develop team structure and processes**

In Stage 3, faculty and SA staff achieve these objectives: (a) clarify team roles and (b) develop team processes. While SA staff share student organization leaders’ current needs about how leadership course students can help them, faculty share leadership course students’ feedback from the previous semester about their interactions with student organization leaders; consequently, this information helps to structure roles in this newly bridged network to optimize the effective use of resources to meet current student needs. Using interpersonal influence tactics (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980), they operationalize their power bases by persuading the other party to provide valued resources to the collaborative effort (Raven, 1992). They develop roles and responsibilities by identifying resources needed to meet mutually identified leadership development needs and who has power to control these resources: (a) faculty and staff and (b) leadership course students and student organization leaders (Table 2).

Although faculty and SA influence each other using their social power, this influence has no common link or collaborative objective without students at the center. By comprehensively integrating faculty, SA staff, leadership course students’, and student organization leaders’ legitimate, expert, reward, information and participation values for these resources, power is relationship-specific. For example, faculty reward power influences leadership course students and SA staff participation, but not student organization leaders’ participation because faculty do not control rewards these students value.

Collectively, team power variety and dispersion, or hierarchy, guide faculty and SA staff to clarify team roles and decision-making responsibilities. First, legitimate power "involves some value or standard, accepted by the individual . . . of which the agent can assert his
power” (Raven & French, 1958, p. 83), thus clarifying decision-making roles based on the curricular or cocurricular context. Faculty and SA staff do not have legitimate authority to force the other’s compliance; rather, their legitimate authority controls access to leadership course students and student organization leaders. However, they have legitimate authority over students’ responsibilities and resources that impacts leadership
course and student organization leader engagement in the project. Similarly, students have authority to control access to student course team and student organization members. Faculty have legitimate authority over leadership students to grade assignments and enforce class regulations. SA staff have legitimate authority over student organization leaders to enforce student conduct codes and manage their curricular experience (e.g., training) through needed resources (e.g., funding, human resources).

Second, expertise power controls superior knowledge resources, thus clarifying roles based on context. Faculty possess expert knowledge regarding leadership research, while SA staff have expert knowledge about student engagement, retention, and development (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 2016). For example, leadership professors have expertise regarding leadership, conflict management, teamwork, and communication theories, while SA staff have expertise regarding student development theories, college student decision-making models, and student discipline. Similarly, leadership course students have expertise regarding leadership concepts, while student organization leaders know curricular policies, resources, and profession-based organizations.

Third, reward power clarifies roles regarding who controls highly valued positive awards that influence participation in the experiential learning activity. Student organization leader reward power impacts leadership course students’ performance because their positive feedback on their analysis can earn them a higher grade, as well as faculty and SA staff participation because of valued curricular leadership experience data they give leadership course students. With their reward power, faculty provide SA staff letters documenting their role in the experiential learning assignment for performance reviews, providing legitimate evidence the administrator accomplished their profession’s student learning objectives. Similarly, SA staff provide letters to faculty documenting their role in helping organizations apply leadership theory to practice for their PTRM portfolio. Further, they provide mutually beneficial professional learning experiences and communication network access for each other. SA staff provide faculty opportunities to problem-solve, collect and analyze data regarding their organization (e.g., formal structure, decision-making, performance evaluation, employee retention), while faculty offer student classroom observation opportunities. SA staff improve student resources communications (e.g., counseling, speakers, regulations) by faculty sharing them through their networks (e.g., student advising, BlackBoard), while faculty improve marketing student presentations with SA staff communication networks (e.g., staff, resident assistants, students).

Fourth, coercive power clarifies punishment roles based on whom the target perceives can withhold valued rewards (Raven & French, 1958). Faculty and SA staff cannot punish each other; rather, their coercive power influences student engagement in the assignment. If this experiential learning is required as a leadership training, SA staff can withhold funding or curricular leadership certification for student organization leaders who do not participate. Faculty can assign leadership course students’ lower grades for low-quality student organization leadership analyses. Student organization leaders have coercive power over leadership course students because their negative feedback can result in lower project grades.

Finally, informational power clarifies information-sharing roles because the agent’s information influences the target’s thoughts and actions (Raven, 1965). Faculty have student motivation information about classroom-based success, while SA staff have information about motivation outside the classroom (e.g., residence halls, campus activities). Faculty know organizations through which student organization leaders can practice leadership skills as interns or employees. Similarly, SA staff have information about peer-to-peer communication student networks, student crises explaining why students miss class, and resources (e.g., funding, transportation) for off-campus student activities. Student organization leaders and leadership course students have informational power to influence each other, faculty and SA participation because they have information regarding curricular and cocurricular leadership development challenges and serve as a communication bridge between faculty and SA staff.

Stage 4: implement and evaluate experiential learning project

In the final Stage 4, the collaborative team uses their power in fulfilling their roles and responsibilities established in Stage 3 to allocate tangible and intangible resources in achieving the objective to develop, implement, and evaluate the leadership experiential learning assignment that meets their mutually developed need. Specifically, they set specific, measurable assignment objectives, analysis requirements, deliverables, and expectations. After implementing the assignment, they evaluate its success in meeting its mutually established learning objectives, creating a feedback loop future collaboration. Effective collaborative teams have relevant project knowledge, collaboration skills, motivation (Amabile et al., 2001), and attitude (e.g., trust, open to new ideas, outcome investment) (Jassawalla & Sashittal, 1998) that strengthens with increased collaboration.
Leading in the Real World illustrates how the PSCM was operationalized during organizational leadership course 6-week assignments implemented in Fall 2015 and Spring 2016 (Fig. 4a) as collaborations between the Office of Student Activities staff and the Organizational Leadership course (three credits) professor in a public university’s AACSB-accredited business school. This course focuses on managerial leadership at the individual, team, and organizational levels of analysis. Course learning objectives include developing understanding of fundamental managerial leadership theories, concepts, and applications; developing and practicing effective leadership skills at all organizational levels; enhancing creative, critical, and integrative thinking abilities by analyzing organizational leader behaviors; applying leadership theories and concepts to real-life situations; and developing practical skills through team-based cases, presentations, and experiential learning.

The assignment

Key to the assignment’s learning effectiveness, psychological empowerment gave leadership course students and student organization leaders the “opportunity to … determine work roles, accomplish meaningful work, and influence important decisions” (Yukl & Becker, 2006, p. 210). Students formed five-person teams and developed a written contract with a registered student organization to help them improve their leadership effectiveness by applying leadership theory to a real problem, which student organization leaders self-identified (e.g., communication, leader succession, retention, motivation, power/politics, meeting management, and leadership effectiveness) (see organizational approval form – Fig. 4b).

Using leadership fundamentals discussed in the course textbook, Leadership Theory, Application, & Skill Development by Lussier and Achua (2013), students assessed the organization’s self-identified problem and made recommendations at the individual-level (leadership skills, traits, ethics, behavior, motivation, influencing power and politics), team-level (communication, leader-member exchange, followership, team leadership), and organizational-level (transformational leadership, culture, ethics, diversity, strategic leadership, crisis-management). Psychologically empowered, students autonomously decided how to manage their teams and creatively analyze the organization’s problems. The professor notified them in advance that their work had practical significance because the student activities director would read their organizational analyses and actively question them following their final presentations.

Operationalizing the PSCM and lessons learned

The Leading in the Real-World assignment illustrated how faculty and SA staff used the PSCM to operationalize their social power, resulting in successful collaborative outcomes. Motivated to provide students with an experience to apply leadership theory and skills to practice in a real-life organizational context, the professor initiated the collaboration; however, SA staff can also use the PSCM to initiate experiential learning collaborations. Because some students lacked transportation to off-campus organizations, the professor needed an opportunity for students to easily interact with organization leaders (e.g., attend meetings, conduct assessments, interview leaders). The professor approached the director of student activities, responsible for the campus’ cocurricular leadership development experience, and discussed their different responsibilities for students’ leadership development needs (Stage 1). After listening to the professor describe her in-class teaching experience, the SA director was motivated by the potential to observe students’ classroom leadership learning experience and to learn current leadership theory and research as part of her professional development. Along with the assistant director of student activities, they formed a collaborative team, developed the experiential learning collaborative team vision, and developed mutually beneficial leadership learning objectives (Stage 2). For example, integrating their different student learning needs, they collaboratively defined successfully meeting student leadership learning needs as students (a) becoming proficient in applying leadership theory, skills, and analytical methods to practice (e.g., course learning objectives) and (b) becoming self-aware about making positive organizationally beneficial leadership decisions and taking responsibility for negative decision outcomes (e.g., SA professional standards – American College Personnel Association, 2016). They discussed valued resources (e.g., knowledge, classroom access,
Your team has formed a leadership consulting company. The purpose of this assignment is to apply theory to a real-life leadership problem in assessing the problem and its solutions. Your role is to analyze a registered student organization at (university) by analyzing a leadership problem presented by the organization, and making theoretically-sound recommended solutions. You then must present your findings and solutions to the organization, and receive feedback on your analysis from the organization itself. Your final report/presentation will include not only your analysis and recommendations, but also the organization’s feedback.

ASSIGNMENT OBJECTIVE: ANALYZE ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROBLEM USING AT LEAST 3 LEVELS OF ANALYSIS (Lussier & Achua, 2013)

1. INDIVIDUALS AS LEADERS
   a. Chapter 1: Who Is A Leader And What Skills Do Leaders Need?
   b. Chapter 2: Leadership Traits & Ethics
   c. Chapter 3: Leadership Behavior & Motivation
   d. Chapter 4: Contingency Leadership Theories
   e. Chapter 5: Influencing: Power, Politics, Networking & Negotiation

2. TEAM LEADERSHIP
   a. Chapter 6: Communication, Coaching, & Conflict Skills
   b. Chapter 7: Leader-Member Exchange and Followship
   c. Chapter 8: Team Leadership & Self-Managed Teams

3. ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP:
   a. Chapter 9: Charismatic & Transformational Leadership
   b. Chapter 10: Leadership of Culture, Ethics, And Diversity
   c. Chapter 11: Strategic Leadership & Change Management
   d. Chapter 12: Crisis Leadership & Learning Organization

KEY DEADLINES:
- Date: Blank Peer Evaluation Template due. Team members agree to be evaluated according to specific, measurable, objective criteria
- Date: Team Project Planning Guide (task list, deadlines, team member responsibilities) due
- Date: Organization Approval Form due
- Date: Final Case Report and Multimedia presentations must be uploaded to Blackboard
- Date: Classroom Presentations. Presentations and final case analyses will be judged by the (University) Student Activities Office – (Name) Director and (Name) Assistant Director. Best case analysis will receive 15 bonus points. Turn in 3 multimedia presentation copies at the start of your presentation.
- Date: Each team member must upload a completed peer evaluation form.

DELIVERABLES:
1. MULTIMEDIA CLASS PRESENTATION (15 mins)
   a. Content of Presentation:
      i. Provide a brief summary of the organization.
      ii. Provide a brief summary of the organizational problem.
      iii. Theoretical Application to assess the problem using at least 2 levels of analysis and make appropriate recommendations. Focus on the 2 primary levels of analysis that you think are most relevant to the problem in your presentation.
      iv. Client Feedback: Discuss your client’s feedback to your analysis. Did they agree/disagree with your assessment of the problem? What were their thoughts about your recommendations? Did they, or are they planning to, try any of your recommended solutions? Feedback?
   b. All multimedia presentations must be uploaded to Blackboard by (date).
   c. Make a 15-minute presentation on (date).
   d. Submit 3 hard copies of your presentation at the start of class.

2. FINAL CASE REPORT: Use the following guidelines to submit your team assignment:
   a. Main Case Report: This part of your case report should be a minimum of 10 pages and a maximum of 15 pages.
      i. Brief summary of the organization and its problem.
      ii. Theoretical Application to assess the problem at 3 levels of analysis and make appropriate recommendations.
      iii. Client Feedback: Discuss your client’s feedback to your analysis.
         1. Did they agree/disagree with your assessment of the problem?
         2. What were their thoughts about your recommendations?
         3. Did they try (or are they planning to) any of your recommended solutions? Describe feedback.
   b. Appendices at the END of your Case Report: Include all relevant tables/graphs in Appendices. In Appendix A: Leadership Consulting – Developing Your Team – (Your leadership consulting team vision, mission, objectives, and name).
   c. Formatting: Your final case report should be double-spaced, 1-inch margin, Times New Roman font, 12pt. Title page, appendices and reference lists do not count at part of the 15-page limit. All tables and graphs should be included at the end of your paper.

3. PEER EVALUATION: Submit your team’s peer evaluation template (blank). Must have at least 5 dimensions on which you will evaluate your peer. One dimension should be level of contribution of the individual to the final assignment.

Figure 4. Leadership in the "Real-World" assignment. (a) Assignment instructions and (b) leadership project – organization approval form.
student organization access, incentives, performance-based data) they each needed, as well as what valued resources they had the power to allocate, which clarified their roles and decision-making responsibilities (Stage 3). Based on their understandings of the resources they controlled, they clarified their roles to facilitate an effective collaborative relationship to implement the leadership experiential learning activity: faculty coordinated curricular-based responsibilities and SA staff coordinated the cocurricular-based responsibilities.

Using this team structure, the faculty, director, and assistant director implemented the experiential learning assignment, carrying out responsibilities to share specific resources (Stage 4). While the professor taught leadership theory and skills and graded the assignment, SA staff helped students connect with student organizations, delivered student life presentations to course students in-class (e.g., student organization policies, leadership challenges), asked class teams challenging questions during final presentations, reviewed reports, and selected best organizational analyses. To encourage high-quality student work, an incentive (e.g., bonus points) was awarded to the best team analysis. Students presented their final analysis to student organization leaders, and received feedback about how effectively they applied theory to analyze their problem (Table 3). Student organization leaders commended them on the accuracy with which they assessed problems and made theoretically based recommendations. For final class presentations, students presented their analysis and discussed the organization’s feedback. After the project, students reflected about what they learned about themselves and how the director of student activities’ involvement impacted their learning through the collaboration (Table 4). Leadership course students reported this project taught them leadership theory and skills; they observed leadership challenges first-hand, and were pleasantly surprised by their ability to use theory to assess issues and make recommendations. Knowing in advance they would respond to questions directly from SA staff in their presentations and student leaders during the project, they reported this direct link to decision-makers was personally meaningful and empowered them psychologically, motivating them to produce high quality work. Faculty and SA staff agreed this project successfully met learning objectives and planned to continue collaborating.

**Lessons learned**

Over multiple semesters, we revised the PSCM using leadership course feedback from students, student organization leaders, faculty, and SA staff. First, we focused more intentionally in Stage 1 on discussing student leadership development needs, as both faculty and SA directives change over time. Although we did not have
student input in the PSCM in the initial implementation year, we revised the model by including student input, via the feedback loop, from the previous semester’s feedback. Second, we focused more intentionally on using power sources that increased student engagement with leadership material, reduced inefficiency (e.g., wasted time), improved collaborative processes, and motivated other faculty and SA staff to participate. Leadership course students were influenced by the professor’s legitimate, reward, and coercive power with authority to require the assignment and allocate a percentage of the final course grade for the assignment, as well as by SA staff legitimate authority over registered student organizations (e.g., student organization access, facilitating contact, understanding rules/regulations) and reward power with best analysis incentive bonus points. For SA staff, faculty power bases that influenced their collaboration included (a) legitimate power providing leadership course access, (b) expert power teaching them new leadership theories and research, (c) reward power giving them opportunity to engage with students in the classroom, and (d) informational power about how students are motivated differently in-class than out-of-class. For faculty, SA staff power bases that influenced them included (a) legitimate power providing access to registered student organizations; (b) expert power teaching them about student engagement outside the classroom; (c) reward power giving them opportunity to work with real-life leadership challenges in an organization that students could easily access, observe meetings, complete leadership assessments with organizational leaders, and offering resources for future leadership empirical research; and (d) informational power about student organization policies and communication networks. Finally, we revised Stage 4 by including assignment requirements for peer-to-peer feedback by requiring leadership course students to gather feedback from their student organization clients.

Limitations and future research

Our PSCM has some limitations. The model considers that a “real-life” situation is one experienced within the university environment, not the for-profit environment; changing to a for-profit context may change the model’s nature. Further, we do not consider leadership characteristics of the agent (e.g., faculty; SA staff, students). Additionally, our model and resulting

Table 3. Reflections from registered student organization student leaders about leadership course students’ analyses of their organizations (examples).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Registered student organization</th>
<th>Leadership problem self-identified by the organization</th>
<th>How organizational leadership course students applied leadership theory and skills to analyze the problem (examples)</th>
<th>Feedback from student organization to leadership course students about their analyses (examples)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Organization 1                | Executive board is struggling with leadership change. There is a lack of direction and cohesiveness between team members. They are also struggling to motivate members in terms of meeting attendance and activity participation. | • Observed leaders’ interactions by attending executive board meetings
• Conducted leadership self-assessments (personality profiles; behavioral leadership style; power and influencing tactics) with organization leaders
• Identified personality conflicts influencing organizational communication
• Recommendations focused on helping president understand how his leadership style was ineffective
• Attended executive team and general meetings; individual meetings with organizational leaders
• Conducted leadership self-assessments (personality assessments; power/influencing tactics; communication style; coaching; conflict management) with organizational leaders
• Problems identified: leader position responsibilities ineffectively structured, which caused conflict; job positions needed to be restructured to match organizational mission
• Recommendations (written documentation/minutes from meetings; revise leadership and communication styles for executive board; share leadership responsibilities; restructure executive leadership positions; assess organization for shared understandings of priorities) | • Agreed with analysis, specifically they needed to improve member accountability and organizational communication mechanisms
• Implemented recommendations (e.g., roundtable-style meeting discussions; restructuring meetings)
• Explained that although they realized they experienced problems, they did not see them as “major issues” until the analysis.
• Appreciated solutions that could enhance their relationship throughout the organization.
• Accepted advice and problem points. Agreed team member responsibilities were not effective structured.
• Appreciated the brainstorming time the leadership students spent with organizational leaders in developing solutions
• Appreciated learning what influencing tactics would be more effective in the situations the top leaders experienced.
• President “was impressed with how [leadership self-assessments] helped her look at who she is.”
• Appreciated the individualized feedback the class students provided to each executive team leader: “each team leader agreed they could improve their communication” |
| Organization 2                | Conduct leadership analysis for the following leadership problem: communication (busy schedules, lack of communication, and lack of authority). | | |

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Table 4. Reflections from organizational leadership course students about the Leading in The Real-World assignment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-assignment self-reflection</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Illustrative comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How did this project impact you? What did you learn about yourself?</td>
<td>Applied leadership theory in live context to</td>
<td>“Examining people, their personality, how they manage conflict and people is interesting way learning about leaders and managers.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Assess organizational problems</td>
<td>“Interviewing people I don’t know was a great experience.”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Describe leadership problems &amp; solutions</td>
<td>“I learned it’s easy to neglect [and ignore] problems within an organization that you are involved in.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Improve team effectiveness</td>
<td>“I learned that I can communicate effectively with others even when talking about a problem in which they may be contributors. I was able to ask the hard questions that actually helped.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Improved leadership self-awareness by:</td>
<td>“I learned if you change the way you approach people with different personalities it helps in making a better relationship. I didn’t feel too comfortable with my [course student team] at first but with opening up and following some of the things in the book we worked extremely well by the end and got along great.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• observing others</td>
<td>“After analyzing another student group [I thought] about my leadership qualities and how I do things.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• openness to feedback</td>
<td>“This assignment was very beneficial in helping me work around varying schedules and obligations of group members. I learned to identify strengths/weaknesses of myself and others to maximize each person’s benefit.”</td>
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<td>• honest self-reflection about team</td>
<td>“Being an aspiring consultant, this assignment offered great experience in deconstructing an organization’s problems and providing recommendations on how to fix them.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• gaining career-related experience</td>
<td>“I learned to take feedback in a new way. In the past it was hard for me to listen to negative feedback but after this assignment I learned the value of feedback. Whether it’s negative or positive, it’s not meant to hurt my feelings, but to help me improve.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Provided quality objective feedback</td>
<td>“I liked having someone from the outside [evaluating] our projects because it is a blank assessment that does not have any outside judgment … and helped with feedback”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Improved student presentation preparation and quality</td>
<td>“It was interesting to get her perceptions [about organizations]. Although everyone presented on different groups, she had inside knowledge on groups. It’s good to have outsider insights rather than just students.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Motivated quality class discussion</td>
<td>“Having an outside person comment and ask questions is a great way …”</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… to be more specific in presentations and better identify problem and solutions.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>“… to prepare-we made sure everyone was informed about the organization to prepare for any question.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… because she asked good questions that made me think more in depth than we may have otherwise.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>“… because she had knowledge of all the organizations and asked good questions.”</td>
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<td>“… because it made competition more serious &amp; important to show her what we gained in this course.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… [although it was] more nerve-wrecking, it influenced me to make sure I knew my stuff.”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… because it allowed for good feedback and student professionalism.”</td>
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<td>[SA staff] being here threw me off but also inspired me to do better because she would know if I messed up and I wanted to win the competition.”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“It’s nice to have an outside perspective. Her questions got the class started, people started asking questions after her. I appreciated her opinions.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leadership experiential learning project was motivated by meeting AACSB standards for innovative teaching methods, specifically experiential-based learning to apply leadership theory to practice. On non-AACSB-affiliated campuses, power, and collaboration may relate differently, depending on institutional change needs, such as student engagement and retention.

Future research can consider theoretical extensions of the model, how context influences collaboration, and how power-based collaboration initiatives become institutionalized. Theoretically, the model can be extended by considering new influences of power on collaboration. The original power base model (French & Raven, 1959) was eventually refined into 11 power...
bases (Raven, 1965, 2008). Different cultural, organizational, and individual characteristics impact how power (Bui, Raven, & Schwarzwald, 1994; Easterby-Smith & Malina, 1999) influences collaboration and institutionalization processes differently (Clegg, 1989). Finally, power’s influence on conflict and negotiation (Kim et al., 2005) is impacted by status, the degree to which one is respected by others (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), and gender differences (Hong & Van Der Wijst, 2013). How gender, status, and power impact faculty and SA staff negotiations in collaborations poses interesting research questions.

**Conclusion**

In summary, power is a necessary, but not sufficient, precursor to effective collaboration. Power offers coordinating structural mechanisms for participation, information-exchange, decision-making, and role clarification in team-based collaborations. Because power motivates individuals to acquire valued resources controlled by others, collaborative models must include information-exchange processes that facilitate an understanding of collaborators’ needs to assess how sharing resources and acquiring new valued resources complement each other in developing effective curricular-based experiential learning opportunities. Team power structures, including power variety and dispersion, clarify roles, communication processes, and decisions that optimize mutually beneficial goal fulfillment.

In this paper, we have presented our four-staged PSCM. We have shown how faculty, SA staff, leadership course students, and student organization leaders use of legitimate, expert, reward, informational, and coercive power bases influenced the development, implementation, and evaluation of a leadership experiential learning collaboration with student success as its primary objective. Further, we have described the Leading in the Real World organizational leadership course assignment as a collaborative and empowering example of operationalizing the PSCM to apply leadership theory to practice in a real-life practical experiential learning activity. We contribute to leadership research by providing a new conceptual framework within which to examine collaboration with not only power at its core, but student success at its center.

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