BUILDING INFORMAL LEADERS: A MIXED-METHODS STUDY OF AN ARMY LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR COMMAND TEAM SPOUSES

by

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B.S., University of Maryland, 2002
M.S., Kansas State University, 2011

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Department of Educational Leadership
College of Education

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the researcher explored the effects of a formal education and leadership development program (LDP), Command Team Spouse Development Program–Brigade Level (CTSDP-BDE), given to spouses of senior military service members (command team spouses) in preparation for brigade-level command team roles and environments. This study employed a nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods approach to answer the overarching research question: “Can formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants, assuming informal leadership roles?” Findings from quantitative data indicated that the CTSDP-BDE course influences life effectiveness in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs and organizational skills as defined by scales in the Review of Personal Effectiveness and Locus of Control (ROPELOC) instrument for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles. No change occurred for Active Involvement or participants’ measures of locus of control (internal and external) because of attending the program. Findings from qualitative data supported quantitative findings, and raise and provide deeper insight into the CTSDP-BDE and spousal education within the United States Army (U.S. Army). Additionally, the researcher demonstrated that formal educational programs could positively influence the informal leadership capabilities of adults. In this study, the researcher used research participants from the CTSDP-BDE, who were housed at the U.S. Army’s School for Command Preparation located in Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Command team spouse participants (n=40) completed both presurveys and postsurveys over the course of a 7-month data collection period. Likewise, the researcher conducted follow-up, qualitative interviews (n=10) to further investigate the effects of the CTSDP-BDE program.
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Major Professor
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# LIST OF ACRONYMS

AFTB – Army Family Team Building

AI – active involvement

CGSC – Command and General Staff College

CH – coping with change

CSM – command sergeant major

CT – cooperative teamwork

CTS – Command Team Seminar

CTSDP-BDE – Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level

DOD – Department of Defense

EL – external locus of control

FM – field manual

FRG – family readiness group

GFI – goodness of fit index

IL – internal locus of control

IMCOM – Installation Management Command

IRB – Institutional Review Board

KSU – Kansas State University

LA – leadership ability

LDP – leadership development program

LEQ – Life Effectiveness Questionnaire

LOC – locus of control

MIL – margin in life

MS – Microsoft
NCO – noncommissioned officer
NMFA – National Military Family Association
OE – overall effectiveness
OER – official evaluation report
OT – open thinking
PCC – Pre-Command Course
QAO – Quality Assurance Office
QS – quality seeking
ROI – return on investment
ROPELOC – Review of Personal Effectiveness and Locus of Control
SAMS – School of Advanced Military Studies
SC – self-confidence
SCP – School for Command Preparation
SCT – social cognitive theory
SE – social effectiveness
SF – self-efficacy
SM – stress management
SOLD – Spouse Orientation and Leader Development
SRT – social role theory
STEP – Spouse Training and Education Program
TE – time efficiency
VMIS – Volunteer Management Information System
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Note. Opinions expressed in this research are those of the author and should not be construed to represent the official position of the School for Command Preparation, the U.S. Army, or the Department of Defense.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of the United States Continental Army in 1775, military spouses (or camp followers) on the home front have supported military soldiers and leaders (Holmes, 2001). Although the role of a camp follower has changed dramatically in recent history, the learned experiences and historical accounts of military spouses have continued to shape how these informal leaders are being trained today. Historically, training for command in the United States Army (U.S. Army) has been experiential in nature, but with the continuing modernization and changing of today’s Armed Forces, formal education and training programs have shifted to meet the evolving needs of those in the command team, including the military spouses of senior military leaders or command team spouses (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2013d).

Today, many formal leadership development programs (LDPs) exist to influence and improve the ability of future leadership. However, few formal programs exist to improve the leadership skills of informal leaders (Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Within a command team environment, informal leadership opportunities exist for command team spouses to support both legitimate authority and the overall wellbeing of the brigade and families connected to it within U.S. Army communities. Consequently, in this mixed-methods study, the researcher sought to explore the relationship between the leadership education provided to military spouses in the Command Team Spouse Development Program–Brigade Level (CTSDP-BDE) and life effectiveness in spousal informal leadership roles in U.S. Army communities. Quantitative results in this study indicate that the CTSDP-BDE course does influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles as command team spouses. In this research, 14 scales in the Review of Personal Effectiveness and Locus of Control (ROPELOC) survey defined
the determination of life effectiveness. Subsequently, the quantitative data analysis of both individual and combined scales into Survey Question 1 (SQ1; participant personal and social abilities and beliefs) and SQ2 (participant organizational skills) proved significant, while SQ3 (active involvement [AI]) and SQ4 (locus of control [LOC]) did not define the determination of life effectiveness. The findings from the qualitative data support the findings from the quantitative analysis and provide a deeper insight into the CTSDP-BDE and spousal education in the U.S. Army today.

This chapter begins with an overview of context and background that frames the study. Following the background is the problem statement, statement of purpose, and accompanying research questions. Also included in this chapter is a discussion surrounding the researcher’s approach, the researcher’s role and assumptions, and the limitations and delimitations of this study. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the rationale and significance of this research, and the definitions of some key terminology used throughout the study.

**Background**

**Command Team Spouse**

Harrell (2001b) described military spouses as some of the “most resilient and flexible individuals on earth” (p. 55). They must learn very early in their military lives to cope with stress, frequent professional and personal change, and loss. Command team spouses might find themselves in leadership roles of their own, beyond those of their officer or enlisted husbands and wives, both inside and outside of the military community, often with minimal preparation or training. The voluntary duties of a command team spouse can sometimes be as time-consuming as full-time employment, which sometimes results in no participation at all from many military spouses, even at the
highest levels. Although participation as a command team spouse is voluntary, Harrell (2001b) said that the expectation is often noted as “present and indirect” (p. 57) from either the community or spouse who might be taking command.

In preface, it is important to note that the term “command team spouse” is relatively new, that it was first identified and used in common U.S. Army language in the 1990s, and that it relates to the military’s response for an inclusive command climate (U.S. Department of the Army, 2009). Prior to this term, senior military spouse was the prevalent term in military command and leadership organizational materials, which fostered a sense of authority and insinuated rank among an otherwise volunteer network of spouses (Harrell, 2001a). The U.S. Army is designed according to levels of hierarchy and masculinity; therefore, using gender-specific language in a feminist perspective and ranking of authority among military spouses appears to be a natural progression from this cultural influence (Harrell, 2001a). It should also be noted that the terms lower-ranking spouses and senior spouses are still prevalent in cultural military language today and the terms are used synonymously throughout the existing literature surrounding military spouses in general.

According to Harrell (2001b), senior military commands come with increased representation and responsibilities, which often become more extensive and formalized. Brigade-level commands are primary examples of how this occurs in the U.S. Army. For example, when a commander is unable to attend a function or event that they wish to support, a separate person from the command team (often the command team spouse) is asked to attend in the commander’s place, and is typically accorded the respect of his/her rank (Harrell, 2001b). According to Harrell (2001b), “Senior spouses in the Army are those most entrenched in the system of role expectations, and to some degree are the
grande dames of this very system” (p. 62). Historical accounts of officers’ wives’ performance being included in the professional evaluations of the service member are a thing of the past, but the pressures to participate in the military community in the context of “informal expectations” continue to persist, even today (Harrell, 2001b, p. 55). As such, many command team spouses who choose to participate actively in their informal leadership roles often consider it their responsibility to ensure that this system of expectations is passed on by mentoring younger and less experienced military spouses in the community.

Through such informal expectations (categorized by the morale, public relations, and ceremonial duties that are traditionally performed by the command team spouse) the U.S. Army has fostered a culture of volunteerism that, in some locations, is valued at millions of dollars each year and has been directly linked to the establishment of informal networks, and social and cultural capital within military communities (Bowen, Mancini, Martin, Ware, & Nelson, 2003; Furstenberg, 2005; Harrell, 2001b; Huebner, Mancini, Bowen, & Orthner, 2009; McClure & Broughton, 2000; Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003). The importance of informal leadership in the U.S. Army as an organization was frequently emphasized by the U.S. Department of the Army (2012b) in the current Army Doctrine Publication 6-22 in which it defined a U.S. Army leader as “anyone who by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility inspires and influences people to accomplish organizational roles” (p. 1). Although not explicitly referring to the role of a command team spouse, one can generally infer that what they do in their informal leadership roles has potentially far-reaching implications for the U.S. Army as an organization.
**Command Team Spouse Education**

The term command team spouse is directly derived from the term command team and is relatively new in U.S. Army reports and manuals to describe today’s senior leaders in a command environment. The term often refers to a commander, a command sergeant major, their spouses, and any other advocates designated by a commanding officer. Although each level of military command has unique developmental challenges and opportunities, for the purposes of this research, the primary description of a command team is at the brigade level. Training for command teams who will be assuming battalion and brigade commands in the U.S. Army occurs at the Pre-Command Course (PCC) located in Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Originally developed and implemented by the School for Command Preparation (SCP), PCC has offered education and training for military spouses since 1983 (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). Although the PCC is mandatory for the service member who assumes command, it is a voluntary program for their spouses. Historically both battalion and brigade spouses were grouped together in class sessions. However, because of the post-9/11 conflicts and clear distinction between the roles at both stages, the need for separate educational programs at the battalion and brigade levels became clear. Therefore, in April 2010, the SCP contracted with Kansas State University (KSU) to provide the curriculum development and administration of what is now known as the CTSDP-BDE.

Today, the new curriculum in the CTSDP-BDE has roots in adult educational principles; however, historically, education for military spouses has been experiential (learning by doing) in nature. Therefore, research or empirical evidence of outcomes related to formal educational programs for military spouses is nonexistent, and Fort Leavenworth did not document or archive previous educational programs for review. In
this study, it should be noted that many of the SCP documents and materials surrounding the CTSDP-BDE have used the terms “education” and “training” interchangeably (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2013d). However, for the purpose of this research, education will be defined as the gradual process of acquiring knowledge that focuses primarily on theoretical principles and building the mind to broaden one’s understanding of the world (Fortino, 2012, p. 1). Subsequently, training is defined separately as the act of coaching in or becoming accustomed to a mode of behavior or performance where the goal of the performance is to learn a finite set of information (Fortino, 2012, p. 1).

The CTSDP-BDE is a 5-day course that is held monthly, 11 times per year, and was developed by the SCP in partnership with an interdisciplinary team from KSU, which is comprised of members from the College of Education, College of Human Ecology, and College of Business. The CTSDP-BDE is an academic program that uses the principles of adult learning theory and offers leadership and role effectiveness education to military spouses of brigade-level commanders and command sergeant majors entering the command environment. Since its inception in April 2010, more than 500 command team military spouses have completed the training, which the U.S. Department of the Army (2011b, para. 1) claims offers “a personal and professional growth opportunity highlighting the self-awareness and leadership skills needed to effectively and positively contribute to the family, unit, and community” within the brigade environment. Although participation in the CTSDP-BDE program and brigade command environment is voluntary, the U.S. Army as an organization offers leadership development education to command team spouses, for many often go on to assume informal, yet influential leadership roles in U.S. Army communities.
The U.S. Army’s SCP values positive evaluations and outcomes from its programs; however, to date no empirical evidence exists to show how the CTSDP-BDE program affects or influences the informal leadership roles assumed by command team spouses at the brigade level. The current SCP evaluation methods in the CTSDP-BDE program measure participant reactions to each block of instruction on a 5-point Likert scale with a continuum from 1 (Extremely Beneficial) to 5 (No Benefit). Although the intention is to provide evidence of outcomes to the SCP, the focus of this study is primarily to explore the relationship between leadership education in the CTSDP-BDE and life effectiveness for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles at the brigade level in U.S. Army communities. Life effectiveness, in this study, is a theoretical concept referring to the extent to which individuals demonstrate a range of generic life skills and is broadly defined as important factors that help explain how effective a person will be in achieving her desires and wishes in life (Neill, Marsh, & Richards, 1997). Although not explicitly defined in the U.S. Department of the Army’s (2012a) *Army Command Policy* (see Chapter 2 for a discussion), the concept of life effectiveness for command team spouses directly correlates with the U.S. Army’s well-being framework. Consequently, the CTSDP-BDE program is essential to promoting well-being and life effectiveness for U.S. Army families. Lastly, an outcome of this research is to develop primary documentation and research regarding military spouse educational programs. Overall, logic and research demonstrates that life effectiveness is an essential ingredient of informal leadership (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009; Neill et al., 1997), which the researcher has explored in this study.
Program Evaluation

The U.S. Army as an organization today provides significant resources towards developing the talent of its leaders, often through formal training and LDPs. Therefore, considerable interest exists among participants, practitioners, and funders to improve the evaluation methods. In an initial meeting with K. Summers (Personal communication, 2012), the previous director of the SCP at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, to discuss potential topics of interest for this research, Summers expressed deep interest in the assessment and evaluation methods of the CTSDP-BDE.

On average, evaluation efforts typically seek to measure a variety of effects ranging from individual, organizational, and community outcomes (Caffarella, 2002; Chatterji, 2008; Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007; McLean & Moss, 2003; Russon & Reinelt, 2004; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Van De Valk & Constas, 2011). However, an extensive review of the literature shows that evaluations of LDPs can be especially difficult because they often include a “package” of independent variables that can be extremely difficult to measure (Chatterji, 2008). Furthermore, extensive evaluation methods can often be time consuming and costly for the organization or researcher (Carbone, 2009).

In this study, the researcher chose to employ Preskill and Torres’ (1999) definition of evaluative inquiry, which focuses on evaluative activities specifically conducted within organizations for the purpose of organizational learning and change:

We envision evaluative inquiry as an ongoing process for investigating and understanding critical organization issues. It is an approach to learning that is fully integrated within an organization’s work practices, and as such, it engenders (a) organization members’ interest and ability in exploring critical issues using evaluation logic, (b) organization members’ involvement in evaluative processes, and (c) the personal and professional growth of individuals within the organization (pp. 1–2).
Although multiple definitions of “evaluation” exist in academic research, in
textbook to a possibly true meaning, Russ-Eft and Preskill (2009) too offered four
commonalities that are relevant to this study.

1. Evaluation should be viewed as a systemic process that is a planned and
   purposeful activity.

2. Evaluation involves collecting data regarding questions or issues about society in
   general and about organizations and programs in particular.

3. Evaluation is seen as a “process for enhancing knowledge and decision making”
   (p. 4) for programmatic expansion.

4. The notion of evaluation suggests that there is some aspect of judgment about the
   program’s merit, worth, or value. (p. 4)

In an overview of the literature, Kirkpatrick’s (1959, 1975, 1994) model is
arguably the most widely known and used of all evaluation methods. Kirkpatrick’s
(1994) four-level model is a simple approach to evaluation that measures reaction,
learning, behavior, and result outcomes. However, Holton (1996) suggested that its
practical approach could be ineffective when measuring organizational or academic
performance. Kirkpatrick’s (1994) model is one methodological approach to evaluation,
but Russon and Reinelt’s (2004) revealed in their meta-analysis substantial evidence for
using instead a mixed-methods approach to evaluation. Therefore, for this study, the
researcher incorporated a mixed-methods design, using the quantitative ROPELOC
instrument (Appendix A) that is grounded in theoretical constructs of life effectiveness
and LOC, along with qualitative interview questions to further explore the effects of the
CTSDP-BDE on the participant’s informal leadership roles.
**Problem Statement**

In the United States, a wide range of themes concerning military spouses and families has attracted scholarly attention. These themes include but are not limited to: The unique demands faced by spouses from the “greedy” institution of the military (Rosen & Durand, 2000; Segal, 1986a, 1986b); the impact of social change on the military family and spousal roles (Durand, 2000; Harrell, 2001b; Martin & McClure, 2000; Segal & Segal, 2001); the effects of military command on spousal stress (Massello, 2003); spousal influence in U.S. Army organizational change (Edwards, 2008); the perceptions of military life on male spouses of female military personnel (Jebo, 2005); storied leadership experiences of military spouses (Thomson, 2011); and the perceptions and experiences of military wives (Bitner, 2011; Easterling & Knox, 2010; Hays, 2010; McGowan, 2008; National Military Family Association [NMFA], 2007; NMFA, 2011; Rosetto, 2009). However, no researchers have investigated the effects of leadership development education on military spouse life effectiveness as informal leaders in the U.S. Army command team environment.

LDPs (e.g., the CTSDP-BDE) are often evaluated by certain outcomes (i.e., individual, organizational, or community). Although extensive military research has been conducted on LDPs for battalion-level officers (Hawes, 1993), U.S. Army leaders across components (Taylor, 2007), leadership doctrine for the future (Danikowski, 2000; King, 2011; Leibrecht, McGilvray, Tystad, & Garven, 2009), and U.S. Army brigade command competencies (Wolters et al., 2011), no identifiable research has been conducted specifically on spousal educational programs. Although the authors of each listed study sought to evaluate organizational and institutional outcomes, life effectiveness as an individual outcome was not listed as a priority or a main outcome in LDPs because it fell
into one of the complex and often unquantifiable domains. Therefore, in this study, the researcher has proposed that part of the challenge in figuring out what makes a person effective in life—at school, at home, or at work in the U.S. Army as an organization—lies in the concept of life effectiveness, which can be directly linked to the topics discussed and the outcomes achieved in the CTSDP-BDE program. Therefore, instruments such as the ROPELOC can be useful in helping to investigate the effects of personal change related to LDPs (e.g., the CTSDP-BDE).

**Statement of Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of a formal education and the LDP (e.g., CTSDP-BDE) offered to command team spouses in preparation for brigade-level, command team roles and environments. An underlying outcome of this study will be the development of primary documentation regarding military spousal education and training programs that would provide a baseline of literature for future potential studies surrounding military spousal education.

**Methodology**

In this mixed-methods study, the researcher used a nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods approach to answer the following primary research question:

- Can formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles?

According to Preskill and Torres (1999), some program evaluations rely solely on single data sources (e.g., questionnaires or performance demonstrations). However, to determine whether life effectiveness is an effect of the CTSDP-BDE program the researcher implemented a dual approach, using two distinct methods: a quantitative data
research method (exploration of change) from the ROPELOC instrument, followed by a qualitative data research method (explanatory) from participant interviews.

In the quantitative method, the ROPELOC instrument was administered using a pretest and posttest design to collect data to answer the following null hypothesis:

- $H_0$: No statistically significant relationship exists between formal educational programs and life effectiveness for military spousal participants as measured and defined by the 14 scales of the ROPELOC instrument.

The ROPELOC instrument contains 14 scales in four subcategories: (a) personal abilities and beliefs (self-confidence [SC], self-efficacy [SF], stress management [SM], open thinking [OT]), social abilities (social effectiveness [SE], cooperative teamwork [CT], leadership ability [LA]), overall effectiveness [OE] in all aspects of life, (b) organizational skills (time efficiency [TE], quality seeking [QS], coping with change [CH]), and (c) energy scale (AI), and internal [IL] and external [EL] locus of control (Richards, Ellis, & Neill, 2002, p. 2). All ROPELOC scale abbreviations in [ ] in this study are predetermined codes originally developed for the purposes of analysis by Richards, Ellis, & Neill, (2002), which is further explained by the ROPELOC Variables and Coding Guide provided in Appendix G. In accordance with prior research by Culhane (2004) each of the 14 scales shown were gathered into the four subcategories (personal abilities and beliefs, organizational skills, AI, and LOC) in order to simplify the methodological process and analysis, which intended to answer the hypothesis exploring whether a statistically significant relationship exists between formal educational programs and life effectiveness for military spouse participants. The following subquestions address the subcategories in $H_0$: 
1. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to the scales SC, SF, SM, OT, SE, CT, OE, and LA).

2. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant organizational skills? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to the scales time efficiency (TE, QS, CH).

3. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE promotes participant AI? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to the active involvement scale).

4. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in the participant’s measure of LOC? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to the scales internal LOC [IL] and external LOC [EL]).

The grouping of these individual scales for personal and social abilities and beliefs was intentional for several reasons. First, Richards et al. (2002) and Culhane (2004) had previously suggested that these psychological behaviors group well for the purpose of research. Second, the researcher’s observations of course dynamics and participant behaviors over time have suggested that these ROPELOC scales typically increase over the course of the week by individual responses to course instruction.

First, in the qualitative method, researcher observations of class proceedings during specific parts of the curriculum in the CTSDP-BDE course (Day 1 and Day 3) and subsequent field notes allowed the researcher to identify specific themes to help formulate questions used in qualitative interviews. Second, observations helped the researcher to identify participants for telephonic interviews using a purposeful, criterion selection method. Third, semistructured interviews with the participants who met the preset criteria answered the following research question:
What aspects of the CTSDP-BDE formal training program do participants perceive influence life effectiveness and their informal leadership roles?

Qualitative data gathered in both the observations and the interviews were used to help explain how the CTSDP-BDE program affected life effectiveness and influenced the participant’s informal leadership roles as command team spouses. This overall study design enabled the researcher to use the quantitative data to explore a general understanding of whether change occurred and the qualitative data to provide an in depth explanation of how life effectiveness took place in the participant informal leadership roles.

Role of the Researcher

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2010), the role of the researcher is different in qualitative and quantitative research. In a qualitative design, the researcher is often up front, that is, bringing his or her experiences and background to the fore, shaping his or her interpretations, and reporting potential biases that he or she might hold. In quantitative research, the investigator typically remains largely in the background; therefore, he or she has less interaction with participants and less opportunity to identify the steps taken to reduce threats to validity through statistical means. Therefore, the method of this research study is mixed because it is important to identify both of the researcher’s roles in this study.

While conducting this study, the researcher was partially employed in the CTSDP-BDE program in addition to the role as a doctoral student. As part of the program the researcher maintained both an *emic* role (an insider who help to plan and provide administrative duties) and *etic* role (maintained regular observances of group behavior and processes), which allowed the researcher a unique understanding of the
environmental context. Although the researcher maintained a role in the CTSDP-BDE program, at no time did the researcher facilitate course instruction that would have affected or influenced participant outcomes. Using the researcher’s background as a military spouse and an adult educator in this position, the role in the CTSDP-BDE program allowed the researcher an in-depth or ethnographic viewpoint on participant behavior and outcomes. Therefore, the researcher acknowledges the potential level of bias in this research. However, the researcher used various procedural safeguards, including triangulation of data sources, triangulation of methods, and inter-rater reliability checks with professional colleagues to mitigate against potential research bias in this study.

Assumptions

Using the researcher’s experience and background as a military spouse, two primary assumptions prefaced this study. First, participants in the study were honest and candid in their survey and interview responses. Second, the theoretical foundation and variables, as defined by the ROPELOC instrument, were used to reflect accurately in this study the participant outcomes in the CTSDP-BDE program.

Limitations and Delimitations

Nevertheless, this study has limitations and delimitations. There are seven limitations:

1. Previous research on military spousal educational programs is lacking.

    The closest approximation to the topic comes from the leadership studies and experiential learning programs from which the idea for this study originated.
2. The ROPELOC is a self-report instrument that relies on the participants’ honesty and accurate perception of themselves.

3. The CTSDP-BDE program and spousal involvement in educational programs remained voluntary, which might otherwise raise issues about the participants’ honesty. The participants who volunteered for the program might have had basic differences from those who did not volunteer. For example, attending the program and the act of volunteering in this research in itself might show that those participants had more interest in their spouses and their careers. Those participants who did not participate in the program might have experienced problems with scheduling, marital or family relationships, or other inconveniences, all of which might have affected or influenced the study.

4. Contractual obligations, scheduling changes, and curriculum variances from month to month might have affected the individual participants’ experiences and outcomes.

5. The focus of this study was on brigade-level command team spouses and the training they receive as part of the CTSDP-BDE; therefore, the results of the study are potentially not generalizable to other LDPs.

6. Most, but not all of the participants in the CTSDP-BDE program had prior command experience at the battalion level, which might have potentially affected the outcomes of the surveys or qualitative interviews.

7. Command experience for each participant might vary because of the multiple types of commands (artillery, armor, medical, Dentac, Special Operations, National Guard, etc.).
8. Command and General Staff College Institutional Review Board constraints prevented the researcher from submitting and collecting quantitative survey data directly, which in turn may affect the response rate in this study.

9. Changes in CTSDP-BDE schedule to include reduced time with academicians and increased time with military speakers since the conclusion of this research may affect generalizability and outcomes of future studies.

Delimitations to this study include decisions made regarding the sample selected. Only command team spouses of brigade-level commanders and command sergeant majors who were participating as spouses in the CTSDP-BDE received invitations to complete the ROPELOC survey before and after attending the course. Additionally, the researcher chose the CTSDP-BDE specifically because of available access to the sample participants and the willingness of the SCP to cooperate in this research.

**Significance of Study**

In this study, the researcher presents evidence that will contribute to the field of adult education, LDPs, and military spouse educational programs. Additionally, research conducted in this study provides a baseline for future research surrounding military spouse educational programs and highlights the significance of informal leadership roles assumed by command team spouses in military communities.

In an investigative report identifying brigade command competencies, Wolters et al. (2011) suggested that the transition from battalion to brigade command is one of the hardest command transitions in the U.S. Army and that it often involves indirect or informal methods of leadership. Wolters et al. (2011) also cited relevant topics from the
U.S. Department of the Army’s (2006) *Army Leadership Field Manual* that outlined a meta-competency framework that focuses on three, core, leader competencies: leads, develops, and achieves. According to the framework used by Wolters et al. (2011)

*Leads* involves elements of leading others, extending influence beyond the chain of command, leading by example, and communicating . . . *Develops* involves creating a positive environment, preparing self and developing others . . . [and] *Achieves* involves getting results. (p. 5)

Although not explicitly stated, the focus at the brigade level is heavily on the use and influence of informal leadership, which is an essential part of what military spouses do as part of the command team. Therefore, this researcher proposes that, although the military spouse is not an employee of the U.S. Army, the need to pursue educational programs at each level of command can have both a direct and an indirect influence on operational readiness and community health for service members and their families. In addition to its value to the U.S. Army community, this research might inform academics, developers, researchers, or funders for LDPs in other areas.

**Definition of Terms**

**Agentic.** According to the nuances of human nature, people learn by identifying individuals as both products and producers of their learning environment (Bandura, 1986; Cervone, Artistico, & Berry, 2006, p. 173).

**Andragogy.** According to Knowles (1972), “The art and science of helping adults learn” (p. 43) is contrasted with helping children learn, and is otherwise known as “pedagogy” (p. 43).

**Army community service.** An ACS is an empowered community service in the U.S. Army that provides comprehensive services, including responsive advocacy and prevention, information and referral, outreach, financial, employment, soldier and family
readiness, exceptional family member, and relocation assistance services that support the readiness and well-being of soldiers and their families, civilian employees, and retirees. ACS also provides training, information, and support programs, and has a wide array of resources available for U.S. Army communities (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013b).

**Army Family Team Building course.** The AFTB course is a training program that improves personal and family well-being, preparedness, and leadership skills that help the U.S. Army continue to adapt to a changing world. In addition to three levels of classes, AFTB offers volunteer opportunities. ACS instructors and master trainers are volunteers who are trained to facilitate all AFTB and ACS classes (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013b).

**Army leader.** According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2012b), “Anyone who by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility inspires and influences people to accomplish organizational roles” (p. 1) is a U.S. Army leader.

**Camp follower.** Civilians in support roles (both families and service providers) that travel alongside the military during active military campaigns and peacetime military deployments, otherwise moving from military base to military base in a nomadic lifestyle (Alt & Stone, 1991).

**CARE team.** A selected team of volunteers who offer emotional support and practical assistance in the event of a casualty, severe injury, or disaster. In the event that a casualty occurs within a U.S. Army community, the commander may activate a CARE team, depending on the affected family’s needs, and request for support. CARE teams typically consist of three to four responsible, knowledgeable volunteers who have been screened and trained, and who have signed a confidentiality agreement (U.S. Department of the Army, 2010).
**Commander.** A senior commissioned rank and officer in the American military in a leadership role is a commander (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a).

**Command sergeant major.** A CSM is a senior noncommissioned officer (NCO) appointed in the American military in a leadership role (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a).

**Command team.** This team in the U.S. Army is generally comprised of the commanding officer, the senior NCO, and their spouses. Each command environment varies, and this definition might further include executive officers and their support staff (U.S. Department of the Army, 2009).

**Command team spouse.** A married or legal spouse of an active duty, National Guard, or reserve commanding officer or senior NCO within the U.S. Army organization is termed a command team spouse. In this study, military spouse, senior spouse, and command team spouse are used interchangeably because any military spouse in a command situation has the potential of being both a senior spouse and a command team spouse (U.S. Department of the Army, 2009).

**Community capital.** Resources and assets invested to create new resources in a community setting to include seven elements: cultural, social, human, political, financial, natural, and built (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004).

**Culture.** “Values, norms, and assumptions that guide human action” (Wilson, 2008, p. 11).

**Cultural capital.** Encompasses a broad array of linguistic competencies, manners, preferences, and orientations, which Bourdieu (1986) terms “subtle modalities in the relationship to culture and language” (p. 242). Additionally, three variants are apparent: (a) in the embodied state incorporated in mind and body;
(b) in the institutionalized state, that is, in institutionalized forms such as educational qualifications; and (c) in the objectified state, simply existing as cultural goods such as books, artifacts, dictionaries, and paintings (Bourdieu, 1986).

**Department of Defense.** The DOD components include the Office of the Secretary of Defense, the military departments (Department of the Air Force, Department of the Army, Department of the Navy [including the Marine Corp]), the Office of the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the combatant commands, the Office of the Inspector General of the DOD, the DOD agencies, field activities, and all other organizational entities in the DOD (DOD, 2010).

**Education.** The “gradual process of acquiring knowledge” (Fortino, 2012, p. 1), which focuses primarily on theoretical principles and building the mind to broaden one’s understanding.

**Experiential learning.** “The process whereby knowledge is constructed through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 41).

**Evaluation.** The ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose (Preskill & Torres, 1999).

**Family readiness group (FRG).** A command-sponsored organization of family members, volunteers, soldiers, and civilian employees associated with a particular unit. FRGs are typically organized at company and battalion levels, and fall under the responsibility of the unit’s commanding officer (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013b).

**Human capital.** The set of competencies of knowledge, social and personality attributes, and creativity that embodies a person’s ability to perform labor to produce economic value (Little, 2003).
**Informal leader.** Someone within an organization or work unit (either paid or unpaid) who, by virtue of how he or she is perceived by peers is seen as worthy of attention to a following (Pielstick, 2000).

**Leadership.** The skill of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to accomplish the mission and improve the organization (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b).

**Leadership Development.** A long-term progressive process that combines training, education, and experience to prepare individuals for the demands of future assignments, often within the command team (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d).

**Life effectiveness.** The theoretical concept referring to the extent to which individuals demonstrate a range of generic life skills (Neill et al., 1997, p. 5). Life effectiveness is how a person believes or defines his or her own effectiveness in various tasks of life and is closely related to notions of “personal skills,” “life fitness,” “practical intelligence,” “personal competence” and “self-efficacy” (Neill, 2008, p. 1).

**Locus of Control (LOC).** The extent an individual believes they can control events that affect them (Rotter, 1966). According to Rotter (1975), when one perceives reinforcement as being out of one’s control and contingent upon others with greater control or power, or because factors such as chance, fate, or luck, then they possess “external control beliefs” (p. 57) or “external locus of control” (p. 57). In contrast, those who view a reinforcing event, as being under their own control and contingent upon their own behavior, should then be labeled as possessing an “internal locus of control” (Rotter, 1975, p. 58).

**Military culture.** This unique way of life, emphasizes core values, customs, traditions, and hierarchical chain-of-command mentality, which require the commitment
of the service member and his or her family regardless of personal cost (Drummet, Coleman, & Cable, 2003, p. 283).

**Possible selves.** Personal selves that are developed as ideal or hoped for, and even personal selves that one fears or dreads in life (Rossiter, 2007, p. 5).

**Pre-Command Course (PCC).** A preparatory course located at the SCP at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, for all soon-to-be battalion and brigade-level commanders and command sergeant majors, and their spouses. A PCC is synonymous with a CTSDP and CTSDP-BDE because the terms are used interchangeably in military culture (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d).

**ROPELOC.** An instrument used to measure the differences for the 14 different scales listed below. The ROPELOC encompassed the skills that were found to be fundamentally important for individuals to be successful in all aspects of personal and professional life because they relate to the informal leadership training. The following list of terms from Richards et al. (2002) described the specific aspects of the ROPELOC explored in this study:

1. **Self-confidence:** An individual puts forth effort into achieving the best possible ability to be successful (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).
2. **Self-efficacy:** An individual developing his or her ability to handle things and find solutions in difficult situations (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).
3. **Stress management:** An individual developing his or her self-control and calmness in stressful situations (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).
4. **Open thinking:** Individuals learning to remain open and develop adaptability in thinking and ideas (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).
5. **Social effectiveness**: An individual developing his or her own competence and effectiveness in communicating and operating in social situations (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

6. **Cooperative teamwork**: Individuals cooperating with each other in a team situation (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

7. **Overall effectiveness**: Success or effectiveness of a person in all aspects of life (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

8. **Leadership ability**: A person developing their capacity to lead (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

9. **Time efficiency**: One’s ability to efficiently plan and utilization of time (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

10. **Quality seeking**: One puts forth effort into achieving the best possible results (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

11. **Coping with change**: An individual’s ability to learn to cope with different situations (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

12. **Active involvement**: A person using actions and energy to make things happen (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

13. **Internal locus of control**: An individual takes internal responsibility for actions and success (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

14. **External locus of control**: An individual accepts that external issues control or determine success (Richards et al., 2002, para.1).

**Shapeshifting.** One’s ability to learn to perform different selves and knowledge in different environments, while learning to establish a coherent identity to anchor oneself, or even market oneself (Fenwick, 2008, p. 22).
Social capital. The networks, norms of reciprocity, and mutual trust that exist among and within groups and communities (Flora et al., 2004).

Social cognitive theory. SCT emphasizes the role of observational learning, social experience, and reciprocal determinism in the development of personality (Bandura, 1986).

Social role theory. The understanding that one's actions, behaviors, dispositions, and desires are determined by a set of specific socially determined roles that are constructed by a set of socially acceptable norms and expectations that people internalize as they become socialized (Eagly, 1987).

Training. To “coach in, or accustom to a mode of behavior or performance” (Fortino, 2012, p. 1) for which the goal is to learn a finite set of information.

Volunteerism. The policy or practice of providing one’s time or talents for charitable, educational, or other worthwhile activities, especially in one’s community (Ingram, 2010).

Volunteer Management Information System (VMIS). An online management tool used among the Army Volunteer Corps as a way for volunteers to track hours, awards, trainings, and certificates (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014).

Workplace learning. A flexible form of learning that enables employees to engage in the regular process of up-dating and continuing professional development and is “treated not as the outcome of the change but as a process” of change (Fenwick, 2008, p. 19).
Summary

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study including a brief overview and background of the command team spouse, command team spouse education, and program evaluation. Next, a review of the problem statement, statement of purpose, methodology, role of the researcher, assumptions, limitations and delimitations, and significance of the study were provided. Finally, chapter 1 concluded with a section providing definition of terms used throughout this study.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the researcher examines literature related to military spouse education for informal leadership roles. The chapter encompasses five overarching areas: (a) an overview of the theoretical foundations used in this study, (b) the command team spouse, (c) influence to the U.S. Army as an organization, (d) military spouse education, and (e) evaluation methodology of a LDP. First, the researcher discusses a brief overview of SCT, theory of life effectiveness, and SRT because these theoretical underpinnings provide a framework for the study. Second, an overview of military spousal role and development is presented through both a historic and current literature review, which is followed by an in-depth analysis of informal leadership roles and the influence command team spouses have on the U.S. Army as an organization. Third, the researcher provides a historical analysis of military spouse education over the last 30 years, which is followed by a review of training and development, and the CTSDP-BDE. Fourth, an overview of program evaluation methods is discussed, which is followed by an in depth review of instrumentation used in this study. A concept map demonstrating relationships among the overarching areas is presented in Figure 1 to provide guidance and context in this literature review:
Theoretical Underpinnings of the Study

Identifying one framework for this study was difficult. On one hand, the CTSDP-BDE program is grounded in the tenets of adult learning theory and is understood through the aspects of social learning and sociocultural theories. On the other hand, leadership development and life effectiveness is important for military spouses who assume informal leadership roles. With the competency research of LDPs, a constructivist approach would be relevant. However, the CTSDP-BDE program is not a competency program. It is an overall self-awareness program designed to aid the development of military spouse leaders; therefore, it requires a unique perspective in the methods of research. With this in mind, three interrelated theoretical underpinnings were selected to guide the major sections in this study. The first underpinning, SCT, is related specifically to the CTSDP-BDE program. The second underpinning, the theory of life effectiveness, relates aspects of SCT (SF and efficacy of social roles in an effective way). The third underpinning, SRT, relates directly to the role of a military spouse and the informal
leadership roles he or she often assumes in military communities. Together, the intention is that LDPs, such as the CTSDP-BDE, can be better evaluated and understood through a holistic systems perspective.

**Social Cognitive Theory**

The tenets of adult learning, social learning, and sociocultural theories are incorporated throughout the chapter; however, SCT provides a unique framework in understanding this study. According to Pajares (2002), SCT emphasizes the critical role that thinking plays in a person’s capacity to construct reality, to self-regulate, to encode information, and to perform behaviors. As evidenced by Cervone et al. (2006) and Schunk and Pajares (2005), SCT has been well documented across multiple disciplines and has been directly influenced by foundational studies in the field of social psychology. Although SCT was grounded in the seminal social learning theory of Bandura and Walters (1963), the conceptual framework as relevant to adult and leadership development came from a family of social cognitive theories possessing three defining features.

The first feature relates to an interactionist perspective and specifically Bandura’s (1986) triadic reciprocal determinism approach, in which Bandura posited that personality, environmental influences, and behavior should be analyzed as factors that mutually influence one another. According to Bandura, psychosocial functioning in terms of triadic reciprocal causation explains how determinism, behavior, cognitive, and other personal factors and environmental events operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bidirectionally. However, according to Cervone et al. (2006), it is important to note that this interactionist view goes beyond the assertion that “people and situations influence one another” (p. 170). Instead, it speaks to the nuances of human
nature and learning by identifying individuals as *agentic*, that is, both products and producers of their learning environment (Cervone et al., 2006, p. 173).

The second feature of SCT takes a systems view of adult learning and development. According to Cervone et al. (2006), social–cognitive and affective mechanisms are construed as a complex system of interacting elements; therefore, adult development through a systems view highlights how cognitive and affective processes jointly rise to influence behavior. Simply put, learners should be viewed as individuals and coherent psychosocial systems that maintain the ability to develop their own behavior. Thus, Cervone (2005) found that this separate perspective “shifts one’s attention away from the charting of the individual differences in the population and toward the careful analysis of personality structure and organization at the level of the individual” (p. 424).

A third and final feature within SCT addresses personality variables and the identification of traits that influence personal development and behavior. Although multiple personality theories are available, the overall question of which traits influence social cognition and how they should be measured remains. In a study of cognition and emotion, Lazarus (1991) explored this question and found that a clear distinction exists between knowledge and appraisal in personality development. Consequently, he created what came to be known as the knowledge-and-appraisal personality architecture model. Lazarus’ (1991) model is broken down into three separate distinctions: (a) beliefs (self-efficacy, self-appraisal), (b) evaluative standards (ethics, self-worth), and (c) aims and goals (intentions, actions). In his model, Lazarus (1991) suggested that individual learners are in a constant state of situational evaluation or otherwise relating themselves to the world in a continuous manner, which in turn influences behavior.
At first, each of these features appears to focus primarily on a person, an environment, or a behavior perspective; however, further review of the literature revealed that each feature maintains a very different approach to SCT. Therefore, using a broad overview of the theory has multiple benefits for the complexities of this study, for the researcher seeks to explore how formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles. Furthermore, each feature of SCT covers separate variables of self-concept because they are directly or indirectly measured in the 14 scales of the ROPELOC instrument, which is used to measure quantitative data in this study.

**Theory of Life Effectiveness**

Life effectiveness is a theoretical construct that is grounded in the psychological constructs of self-concept and self-esteem and is defined by Neill et al. (1997) as “the psychological and behavioral aspects of human functioning, which determines a person’s effectiveness or proficiency in any given situation” (p. 1). Originally, Neill et al. (1997) used Williams, Eyring, Gaynor, and Long’s (1991) description of effective life management in their research to help develop their definition of life effectiveness. Williams et al. (1991) defined effective life management as the situation in which a person believes one acts to make the best use of available resources, has opportunities for self-improvement, makes good decisions, solves problems well, achieves goals, maintains good life balance, does what one enjoys, and manages life effectively. Furthermore, definitions of life effectiveness include the definitions of three former researchers:
1. Sibthorp and Arthur-Banning (2004) considered life effectiveness to be a measurement of how effective people believe themselves to be at doing necessary tasks to have a successful life.

2. Culhane (2004) posited that the aspects of life effectiveness were both personal and professional skills components, including AI, CT, CH, LA, OT, QS, SC, SF, SE, SM, and TE.

3. Neill’s (2008) view of life effectiveness was how one defines one’s own success in life and is closely related to notions of personal skills, life fitness, practical intelligence, personal competence, and SF.

**Social Role Theory**

SRT is grounded on the notion that one’s actions, behaviors, dispositions, and desires are determined by a set of specific, socially determined roles that are constructed by a set of socially acceptable norms and expectations that one internalizes as one becomes socialized (Eagly, 1987). Consequently, one can then choose either to validate those norms or to act against them in one’s life. In this research, SRT fits as a combined framework with SCT and, in some ways, mirrors the three features of SCT that were discussed earlier, by focusing on, as Dullin (2007) said, “interactions between and among individuals, groups, societies, and economic systems as developed by social systems in which people live” (p. 104).

Historically, SRT was developed to recognize the division in labor between women, who often assumed responsibilities at home, and men, who often assumed responsibilities outside the home (Eagly, 1987). However, current research using SRT involving gendered differences in the workplace, and leadership indicates that gender differences are flexible and dependent on the immediate social role of individuals.
(Conway, Pizzamiglio, & Mount, 1996; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). In this view, SRT uses a structural approach to role differences, rather than a cultural approach. Therefore, structural pressures (e.g., from family, organizations, and communities) cause men and women to behave in different ways (Dullin, 2007).

Social roles (e.g., friend, mentor, neighbor, or military spouse) are identities that develop over time, with shared norms among the occupants of social positions (Smith & Talyor, 2010). Although much of the research surrounding SRT focuses on gendered differences, bias, and norms, proponents of the theory espouse a different perspective of how role reversal in the military is reflective of our changing western culture. According to Smith and Taylor (2010), participating in social roles necessitates both the “identification of” and “identification with” (p. 49) role expectations as one becomes invested through one’s actions, regardless of gender. According to Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995), SRT implies that individuals might question the capacity of women in particular positions (e.g., in leadership roles). That is, men who are regarded as agentic often occupy leadership roles. Consequently, individuals often assume that leadership demands these manifestations of an assertive, agentic personality. In a study of leadership and personality, Feingold (1994) uncovered findings that agree with SRT, showing that men do indeed demonstrate more agentic traits, and that women demonstrate more communal traits. However, further research in this area has demonstrated that, in the organizational context, the difference in leadership style between males and females diminishes, providing evidence against the original notion that an agentic personality is a more successful leadership quality (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992).
In SRT the perception is that people have a social role that depends solely on their gender, for they tend to do what is expected of them or act the way society believes is appropriate to these roles; therefore, they perpetuate sexual differences (Dullin, 2007). Critics of this theory suggest that it might not be as relevant in today’s culture as it was in the 1980s when the theory was first developed (Monk-Turner, Blake, Chniel, Forbes, Lensy, & Madzuma, 2002; Diekman, Goodfriend, & Goodwin, 2004). Dullin (2007) highlighted similar issues with the theory, but suggested that SRT progression could occur if it were further developed by using other interrelated theories that might explain why and what differences occur in today’s culture. Therefore, combining SCT with SRT to research the command team spousal roles or military spousal roles in general is a relevant example of Dullin’s suggestion. Using SRT in this context might explain how gendered roles can be reversed, for an ever-increasing number of male military spouses who are entering in the command team environment.

According to Smith and Taylor (2010), SRT draws upon “symbolic interactionism and identity theory perspectives” (p. 51) where adult “engagement with life influences their interpersonal relationships and productive activities” (p. 51). Thus, individuals who embrace their roles and become engaged in activities surrounding those roles (e.g., a command team spousal role) can have positive effects on their adult development in the form of psychological well-being and physical health (Reitzes, 2003). In a study on social roles and role engagement, Reitzes (2003) identified seven factors that influence role engagement across diverse social roles and that are helpful in understanding adult military spouse development:

1. Earlier levels of role involvement influence later levels.
2. Gender differences are apparent, reflecting socialization and labor force participation.

3. Work role characteristics and family factors influence role engagement.

4. Patterns of role engagement vary by life-cycle stage.

5. Human capital (i.e., education, income) facilitates role engagement.

6. Engagement in one role encourages engagement in other roles.

7. The greater the identification with a role, the greater the role participation (p. 424).

Reitzes (2003) illustrated the nature of military spouse development over time, and how the complexities of military life could influence role engagement, life satisfaction, identity, and emotional well-being. More importantly, SRT provides insight into an otherwise complex understanding of command team spouses and why they might assume leadership roles in their communities.

**The Command Team Spouse**

**Historical Synopsis of Spouse Role**

Throughout history, world events presented military spouses with life choices typically wrought with both complexity and unpredictability. Along with societal changes, the rise of feminism, and the modernization of today’s U.S. Armed Forces the role of a military spouse has changed dramatically in recent times. Historical accounts of military spouses from the last half of the 20th century claim that they were completely integrated into the military way of life through a “two-person career” where formal and informal demands were placed on the married couple (Papanek, 1973). According to Durand (2000), this “two-person career” is characterized by experiences in which demands were placed on “both members of a married couple, but only one spouse,
generally the man, is employed by the institution” (p. 73). Furthermore, a clearer understanding of the military spousal role is apparent because, as Shea (1966) noted, it happens to be the wife’s “responsibility to create the right background” (p. 1) for her husband and her ability to do so could “make a subtle, but important contribution to his advancement” (p.1). Although the U.S. Armed Forces increasingly has regarded military spouses as influential to the organization, their continued participation is largely shaped by their historical role as camp followers. The term “camp follower” has historically been defined as a person in a support role (either a family member or a service provider) who travelled alongside the military; however, the term “camp follower” today is often used to describe the modern families of military personnel who accompany soldiers while traveling during active military campaigns or during peacetime military deployments, especially in situations when they are moving from military post to military post in a nomadic lifestyle (Holmes, 2001). In their book *Campfollowing: A History of the Military Wife*, Alt and Stone (1991) reviewed historical accounts of spousal experiences in a command environment:

For over 100 years the world of the American military wife has remained hidden beneath the romance and tradition of her military husband. Mainly viewed as a nuisance by the military men of the Revolutionary War, she won grudging acceptance for her nursing skills in the Civil War and for her survival ability on the frontier. Gradually, in the twentieth century, the military granted her the status of the “dependent wife.” Still, she existed only in the background – a helpmate, a volunteer, a silent partner whose needs, wishes, and problems remained hidden (p. 126).

Such accounts are important to highlight how military spousal roles changed over the last century. For example, the term “military spouse” in today’s literature no longer refers specifically to the wives of service members. With an increasing number of male spouses bearing the role of spousal support and family duties, their involvement is similar
to their female counterparts, especially in a command team spousal role. Additionally, it should be noted that the term “military spouse” is used synonymously across the U.S. Armed Forces. Although this research focuses primarily on the U.S. Army spouse in the command team environment, the role is similar to those in other service branches and in most modern militaries that primarily hold a western perspective and culture.

Although changing roles can partly be attributed to changes in society and western culture, the traditional willingness to participate as a command team spouse was potentially influenced by the inclusion of spousal participation in a command role on DOD military service member evaluations. This eventually led to discontent and the end of such practices within the military in December 1988, with a memo signed by Secretary of Defense Caspar Weinberger (Harrell, 2001b). With the changing perspective of inclusion on spousal roles in the command environment and the discontinuation of spousal roles on service member evaluations, various military services began to hear strains of discontent from military spouses regarding role confusion and ambiguity (Harrell, 2001b).

Prior to the significant change in spousal roles, changing perspectives are identified as early as 8 years before the DOD officially changed its policy on the matter. In the fall of 1980, the U.S. Department of the Army held the first ever Army Family Symposium, and published the following statement reflecting the role of “the Army wife” (p. 10):

The roles and expectations of the Army wife have changed and are not clearly defined, leaving confusion and frustration on the part of both the organization and the military wife. Women are asking that there be a reappraisal of their role in the military community. There is a perception by many that they are powerless to make decisions regarding significant life events that impact directly on them when their spouse is in the Army. The Army system has developed few effective avenues by which wives can participate in those decisions that affect them and
their families. Their rights and responsibilities within the organization are usually an extension of their spouses’ rank and privileges, and their potential for significant contributions to the success of the service member and the organization is often overlooked. The result is feelings of “second class citizenship,” depersonalization, and alienation. At all levels, service personnel are electing to go on tours unaccompanied by the family so that the wife’s career and/or family life is not interrupted. Increasing numbers of mid-level career persons are leaving the service and turning down key career developing assignments because of family considerations (p. 10).

With this finding, the U.S. Army appears to have been the first branch of the military to respond to military spousal role differences. Additionally, DOD held a Blue Ribbon Panel in 1987 that formally examined the subject of spousal expectations and contributions in the military (U.S. Air Force, 1988). The DOD panel (U.S. Air Force, 1988) found that 60% of spouses and military members perceived spousal participation to be “essential” or “probably helpful” (p. 57) to the military member’s career progression despite the new omittance of spousal roles on service member evaluations, which formally ended in December 1988. Although spousal participation is no longer used in service member evaluations, the results of this panel’s inquiry provide a reference for examining perceptions of the roles and contributions expected of a commander’s spouse today.

Just as the spousal role was changing in the last part of the 20th century, the U.S. Armed Forces engaged in Desert Storm, during which military families experienced multiple prolonged deployments. These deployments highlighted the need for command team spousal roles and additional educational opportunities to train spouses and families on how to navigate and successfully mitigate the burdens wartime places on military families (C. Yuengert, personal communication, April 15, 2013). During this time, spousal roles began to change again, as the literature surrounding many training programs that had been developed for senior spouses began to refer to their role as a “command
team spouse” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2009, p. 2). Consequently, this change reflects the U.S. Army’s response for inclusive command environments and the changing nature of the spousal role in command. Furthermore, the September 11, 2001, terrorist attack led to another significant change in the command team spousal role: larger educational programs, increased funding for training and development, and the inception of the CTSDP-BDE (U.S. Department of the Army, 2011b).

**Research on Military Spouse Roles**

To date, a significant amount of research has revolved around a wide range of themes concerning military spouses. However, a few specific studies have reflected the changing role of a military spouse. These changes include but are not limited to these seven issues:

1. The unique demands faced by spouses from the “greedy” institution of the military (Rosen & Durand, 2000; Segal, 1986a, 1986b).
2. The impact of social change on the military family and spousal roles (Durand, 2000; Harrell, 2001b; Martin & McClure, 2000; Segal & Segal, 2001).
5. The perceptions of military life on male spouses of female military personnel (Jebo, 2005).
7. The perceptions and experiences of military wives (Bitner, 2011; Easterling & Knox, 2010; Hays, 2010; McGowan, 2008; NMFA, 2007; Rosetto, 2009).

Each of these studies addressed the barriers, perceptions, and experiences of the military spouse, and most of the studies were written in a positive or a negative tone, making
objection and generalization in this type of research difficult. Four studies Durand (2000), Harrell (2001b), Massello (2003), and Edwards (2008) in particular reflected current and objective research surrounding the role of the command team spouse and the influence they have on the U.S. Army as an organization as is specifically relevant to this study.

**Durand.** Arguably, the role of a military spouse has been one of constant change and ambiguity across history. The gendered differences and ideology of military spouses as a primary support for their active duty husbands have been adjusted to meet modern times and expectations. With these changes, relevant research was needed to assess the role of a contemporary military spouse. Durand (2000) conducted a small (unpublished) research study in the mid-1990s that was the first of its kind to examine this new role of the military wife and determined what impact her changing role in service and commitment had on the U.S. Army and its way of life. Durand’s research developed empirical evidence that specifically outlined areas in a spouse’s life and role (both officer and enlisted) regarding careers, expectations, changing demographics, and commitment to both the U.S. Army and her service member. Additionally, Durand (2000) highlighted the fact that today’s military spouse “expects greater equality in [her] marital relationships. . . [because] “there appears to be a limit on how much she is willing to sacrifice for the Army” (p. 85). However, understanding that family is important to a military spouse does not necessarily mean that she is not invested in her service member’s career or the U.S. Army way of life. In fact, it becomes part of her identity for which she feels connected to others like herself.

Although Durand’s (2000) research provided many outcomes for future studies, several weaknesses make generalization to the larger military spouse population today
difficult. Durand primarily targeted military wives, not husbands, because Durand claimed to study the “traditional Army family at present” (p. 75). Along with changing demographics in the U.S. Armed Forces over the last 10–15 years, the increasing number of male military spouses, and the repeal of the DOD “Don’t Ask Don’t Tell” policy in September 2011, many of today’s U.S. Army families no longer fit the “traditional” mold of the past (Tungol, 2012).

**Harrell.** With ongoing changes the expected roles of a military spouse in command appeared to have been “mothballed” by the late 20th century; however, Harrell (2001b) suggested that the U.S. Army spouses who did “participate in the military community did so in the context of informal expectations they chose to fulfill” (p. 56). A particular strength of Harrell’s (2001b) research was that it was conducted in three different geographic locations that held vastly different demographics and housed operational units of command that were structured specifically by rank (junior enlisted to command general). According to Harrell (2001b), choosing operational units, as opposed to training units, highlighted the “typical” role of spouses because the role of the spouse often rests on both the rank and job of the uniformed military member. Harrell (2001b) found that informal expectations led to increased volunteerism and mentoring among spouses, which directly reflected upon the uniformed service member. Military spouse contributors and writers affirmed in *Recapture the Sisterhood, Embrace the Misterhood: Connecting, Coaching, and Mentoring Today’s Army Spouse* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c) what was found in Harrell’s (2001a, 2001b) original research 10 years earlier. According to the military spouse contributors,

> Whether you’re a senior spouse based on your husband/wives’ rank or you’re part of a Command Team, it’s helpful to be aware that spouses have expectations of you. Before they get to know you, they will create perceptions based on past
experiences or how they perceive things should be – which is sometimes based on unrealistic ideas. (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c, p. 43–44)

Whether realistic or unrealistic, the perception of an active military spouse is seen as an extension of the service member, who is often judged by how he or she manages their life at home (Harrell, 2001b). According to Harrell (2001b), the military member who is unable to manage his home life properly is often “perceived to be a questionable leader” (p. 60). Whether a correlation exists between home life and leadership is unknown, but the perception continues to exist.

Massello. Such perceptions can have a significant and stressful impact on the military command team and especially on the command team spouse (Massello, 2003). Therefore, Massello (2003) suggested that military life has many stressful aspects, but the command team spousal role can be a particularly stressful time on married couples. Massello (2003) explored stress on military commander (officer) spouses by using established surveys with high levels of validity and reliability that measured the variables of gender, age, educational level, hardiness, LOC, organizational command level of the military spouses, number of units commanded, number of years of experience as a commander’s spouse, presence of children, strength of the marital relationship, availability of social support, degree of acceptance of the military lifestyle, time devoted to performance as a commander’s spouse, and additional money spent as a result of being married to a military commander. Of the 101 respondents in Massello’s survey, 16% were male and 85% were female, with a mean age of 42.84 years and a mean of 17.64 years of marriage. Massello (2003) showed a positive correlation between gender and years of experience in the spousal role, high levels of internal LOC, and social support for mitigating stress levels in the command spousal role. Additionally, Massello (2003)
reported a direct relationship between organizational command level and time spent performing in a command team role reported by commanders’ spouses. In essence, the higher the command level, the higher the level of stress; therefore, the greater time spent in the role as reported by the commanders’ spouses. Massello’s (2003) explored variables that were detailed, used geographic locations that were spread across the United States, and used valid instrumentation and questions extensively, which a strength of the study. Furthermore, Massello identified several key demographic questions useful to this researcher’s study. Nevertheless, Massello’s sample of active duty, U.S. Air Force, officer spouses in a command squadron, group, or wing in the U.S. Air Force’s Air Mobility Command make it difficult to generalize the findings to other services in the military. The command culture and environment in the U.S. Air Force is arguably very different from in U.S. Army command environments; therefore, Massello’s findings might not accurately reflect similar stresses found in the experience of a U.S. Army command team spouse.

Edwards. Edwards (2008) examined spousal influence to organizational change in the U.S. Army. In this monograph, Edwards highlighted organizational change theory, adult learning theory, theory of margin, and the ongoing work-family conflict that a soldier experiences over the course of his or her career. Edwards posited that, if Army leaders effectively communicate their messages and gain the confidence and support of the military spouse, the work-family conflict would likely be reduced or resolved, leading to greater and more positive outcomes in organizational change. Edwards primarily used McClusky’s (1963) theory of margin that stated that adults constantly seek to balance the aspects of load and power in their lives, that is, margin in life (MIL). In discussing McClusky’s (1963) theory, Edwards (2008) suggested that it “can help demonstrate how
spouses provide principal support for organizational change because family life is an external factor that is very important to an employee’s MIL” (p. 20). Edwards’ (2008) use of McClusky’s (1963) theory remains relevant to understanding how or why individuals persist in life or career pursuits. However, Edwards (2008) suggestion that military spouses are influential primarily because of causal effects relating to a commander’s communication skills is short sighted; military spouses can be agents of change, but not in the narrow view proposed by Edwards.

Overall, Edwards’ (2008) attempt to gather empirical evidence to support the hypothesis was insufficient because Edwards primarily targeted a small active duty soldier population, instead of the actual military spouse, adding little evidence to the research. Edwards noted this discrepancy to be a major limitation in the study and further analysis by this researcher revealed that no significant direct correlation existed to support Edwards’ hypothesis. Although Edwards’ statistical analysis was not helpful in this researcher’s study, Edwards’ literature review surrounding U.S. Army organizational change through a masculine lens contributed several aspects to it, further highlighting the influence that a command team spouse, as an informal leader, can have in military communities.

**Informal Leadership Roles**

*The Constitution of the United States does not mention the First Lady. She is elected by one man only . . . and yet, when she gets the job, a podium is there if she cares to use it. I did.* – Lady Bird Johnson (1970)

Today’s world requires leadership that is capable of spanning both the world of structure and stability and the world of crisis, urgency, and (often) unwanted rapid change (Pielstick, 2000). Such are the demands that are placed on a brigade command team, which often include one or more command team spouses. The role of a command
team spouse provides great opportunity for influence that informally supports the wellbeing of the brigade and families connected to it within U.S. Army communities.

The changes in the U.S. Department of the Army’s (2012b) Army Leadership Policy emphasized the importance of collective leadership in its organizational system. According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2012b), “Informal leadership that exists throughout organizations supports legitimate authority and plays an important role” (p. 4), which does not necessarily “adhere to hierarchical levels of authority” (p. 4). Furthermore, U.S. Department of the Army (2012b) states, “Anyone can demonstrate leadership” (p. 2) which “involves at least two people or groups, one which leads and another which follows” (p. 4). Although this researcher found a significant number of studies on informal leadership that discussed organizational behavior (Bass, 1990; Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Hall, 1986; Han, 1983; Holmes, McNeil, & Adorna, 2010; Kellerman, 2003; Knox, 2000; Korkmaz, 2007; Pearce & Herbik, 2004; Pescosolido, 2001; Pielstick, 2000; Rhode, 2003; Senge, 1996; Wheelan, 1996; Whitaker, 1995; Zhang & Liu, 2010), little research involving the effects of informal leadership roles through development programs was found in the literature review, and no literature was identified that involved the military spouse in a command team role.

According to Rhode (2003), leadership at its core is “generally viewed as the ability to influence and inspire others to act in pursuit of common goals, often beyond what their jobs or roles require” (p. 4–5). The U.S. Department of the Army (2012b) defined leadership as “influencing people by providing purpose, motivation, to accomplish the mission and improve organization” (p. 1). Although the traditional assumption is that leaders have distinctive personality traits within formal roles of leadership, Knox (2000) and Pielstick (2000) suggested that effectiveness depends
heavily on context and relationship between the characteristics of leaders (both formal and informal) and the needs, goals, and circumstances of their followers. According to Knox (2000), an important characteristic of leadership is to empower followers to make decisions, which in turn promotes the ability for followers to find their own resources and accomplish tasks. This act, in turn, allows the leader the freedom to focus on other tasks. Therefore, according to Bass (1990), empowered work teams might evolve into self-directed or even self-managed teams, which stresses a “win–win” (p. 595) situation and improves overall performance of the group. Shared goals, and allowing greater autonomy and decision-making, are the keys to a leader’s success in an enabling and empowering a command environment.

According to Knox (2000), a formal or informal leader must know and understand the climate within which the corporation or group works. Therefore, effective communication is a central trait that is often associated with the concept of effective leadership (Bass, 1990). According to Covey (1989) an effective leader understands the importance of listening to others to find out what matters most to the other person. Covey (1989) listed empathic listening as a key habit to develop to become a successful leader because listening can help one to “seek first to understand, then to be understood” (p. 237). The key to effective communication is to understand what the other person is saying. Successful leaders are “tuned in” to what their followers are saying. This gives the leader a base of understanding to help followers reach goals or accomplish tasks (Bass, 1990; Covey, 1989; Knox, 2000).

According to Thomson (2011), an alternative perspective on effective communication skills through storied leadership can be equally powerful. Thomson (2011) examined authentic leadership through a cognitive and cultural approach of
narrative story telling by military spouses in various military communities. Thomson (2011) used a qualitative, interpretive approach to explore and analyze the responses of 17 military spouses, who met specific criterion for the study. Although Thomson reported limited demographics, all 17 respondents were female, were equally representative of the four major branches of service (U.S. Army, U.S. Air Force, U.S. Marine Corps, and U.S. Navy), and were equally distributed across the ranks (officer and enlisted). In Thomson’s study, themes of independence, interdependence, resiliency, and resourcefulness emerged; however, cause and effect relationships differed. Evidence of transformational growth in leadership was found throughout the narratives, especially, as Thomson (2011) noted, in situations in which the spouse felt as though she were “a pretty seasoned wife” (p. 38) who had “been there, done that” (p. 38) and was “paying it forward” (p. 137).

According to De Pree (2004), effective leaders are those who learn first to lead themselves. Therefore, it is important for a command team spouse to be self-aware of the personal aspects of being an effective informal leader. According to Kellerman (2003), one of the least discussed aspects of leadership, that is, of holding a position of considerable authority, is the toll-taken. Kellerman (2003) wrote, “Leading is working. Leading is stressful. Leading is time-consuming. Leading is limiting. Leading is isolating. Leading is tiring” (p. 55), which is reflected in Massello’s (2003) research. Massello (2003) explored the stress levels of military commander spouses within the U.S. Air Force by surveying spouses within an Air Mobility Command. Similarities in spouses of clergy members and military service members surrounding lifestyle and expectations are highlighted in Massello’s literature review, and quantitative findings of 101 surveys confirmed that stresses of military spouses involve their social status, relocation, career derailment, unpaid contributions to the organization, participation, volunteerism,
charities, housing, and the “fishbowl effect” (Massello, 2003, p. 81–124). Massello (2003) found that gender, high levels of internal LOC, and years of experience were highlighted as mitigating effects on stress levels. However, out of the 101 respondents, Massello (2003) found that “ninety-one percent (91%) believed they should be actively involved in activities throughout the base . . . . Whether this sense of obligation is self-inflicted or actually expected is unclear” (p. 87). Massello’s (2003) listed several limitations to the study relating to the current lack of sufficient research on military spouses and the specific nature of the U.S. Air Force; however, Massello also provided findings from which additional studies can build surrounding command team spouses as informal leaders.

According to Pielstick (2000), “Informal leaders, those not in positions of leadership but recognized as leaders nevertheless, do not have formal authority at their disposal” (p. 100). However, a national study conducted by Pielstick (2000), who explored the difference between formal and informal leaders, revealed that informal leaders are perceived by others as showing higher levels of leading than formal leaders overall (p. 111). Although Pielstick’s (2000) study is valuable, the suggestion that military spouses (as informal leaders) are more valuable than formal military leaders is presumptuous and misleading and is not the intention of this study.

So, why do command team spouses take on unpaid, voluntary, informal leadership positions? In short, historical evidence and personal accounts of previous military spouses demonstrate that it is a personal choice for those who feel compelled by duty, a need to help others, a need to be a supportive spouse, and an understanding of the reciprocal nature of military communities. However, above all else, it is the realization that they are the recipient of efforts by previous military spouses who chose to be
informal leaders at one time or another (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013; Harrell, 2001b; Massello, 2003). Consequently, the relevance of the present researcher’s study on command team spouses highlights the effects military spouses as informal leaders have on the U.S. Army as an organization and throughout military communities, which in turn directly affects operational readiness.

**Influence to the Army as an Organization**

The role of the command team spouse is complex as are the educational programs (e.g., CTSDP-BDE) designed to influence this role. However, both can have direct influence and application to the U.S. Army as an organization. Although the typical length of the command team spousal role varies, it is often a 2–3-year commitment, which is the same as a tour for the active duty soldier. Military spouses often find themselves in the role of a command team spouse more than once over the course of the active duty soldier’s career, not merely at the brigade level. Additionally, the development of a command team spouse is highly influenced by the types of commands and unit cultures that they experience over time, consequently, making them products of their environment. When discussing the command team spousal role it is important to note how military culture influences the development of a military spouse and to understand the reciprocal effect this development can have through the military spouse on the U.S. Army as an organization. Military culture can be pervasive, but it can also provide structure and safety in a communitarian perspective (Cafforio, 2003). In this section, the researcher discusses military culture and the influence it has on a command team spouse, along with how it can directly influence a military spouse, and the impact military spouses have on the U.S. Army as an organization in the form of cultural capital, social capital, human capital, and volunteerism.
Military Culture

The definition of culture within the military underwent a major shift in recent years (Cafforio, 2003; Dunivan, 1994; Wilson, 2008). According to Cafforio (2003), the deep cultural changes of today’s military are the result of “changing roles, self-conceptions and bases of legitimacy, erosion of long-standing organizational formats, adjustment to tight budgets, mission complexity and unpredictability, real-time media coverage, and the rise of multiculturalism” (p. 442–443). With recent events such as the repeal of the DOD “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell” policy, the downsizing of the U.S. Armed Forces, and the U.S. Supreme Court’s decision to strike down the Defense of Marriage Act (1996), cultural changes will clearly continue to occur in the near future. Therefore, along with Wilson (2008) and for the purpose of this research, culture will be broadly defined as the “values, norms, and assumptions that guide human action” (p. 11). Drummet et al. (2003) also provided a definition of military culture in describing it as “a unique way of life that explicitly demands commitment of the service member regardless of personal cost and implicitly requires an equal amount of commitment from the family of the service member” (p. 283). Military culture, in comparison to other forms of culture, emphasizes core values, customs, and traditions; hierarchy and chain-of-command; and cohesion and esprit de corps, which are perpetuated over time (Cafforio, 2003).

Understanding military culture for the command team spouse is important. However, levels of understanding might vary depending on prior experience, years of direct influence, and whether one’s own cultural identity (e.g., foreign or religious) will remain dominant (Abbe & Halpin, 2009). Although a cultural understanding is important, it is not enough to be an effective informal leader in the command environment. A
command team spouse must also be able to use situational cues to determine when and how culture is relevant, and be able to use other skills to interact with individual members of the command environment. In such situations, LDPs potentially become a vital component to the education of command team spouses.

In American organizational studies, Schein (2010) suggested that “leadership is culture management” (p. 19–20) and organizations such as the U.S. Army maintain **macrocultures** that become influential to the many diverse subcultures held in U.S. Army occupations and units across the globe. Schein (2010) described how culture emerges and how leaders create an organizational culture to lie within the three levels of culture—visible artifacts and material culture, stated values and beliefs, and underlying, unarticulated assumptions, which exemplify the components in which cultural capital resides (p. 24).

**Cultural Capital**

Cultural capital encompasses a broad array of linguistic competencies, manners, preferences, and orientations, which Bourdieu (1986) termed “subtle modalities in the relationship to culture and language” (p. 242). Bourdieu (1986) identified three variants of cultural capital:

1. The embodied state incorporated in mind and body.
2. The institutionalized state, that is, in institutionalized forms such as educational qualifications.
3. The objectified state, simply existing as cultural goods (e.g., books, artifacts, dictionaries, and paintings). (p. 242)

Since the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (1986) introduced the idea of cultural capital, extensive research has been conducted surrounding cultural capital, the
quality of one’s life, and subjective well-being (Belfiore, 2002; Bowling & Gabriel, 2004; Jeannotte, 2003; Kim & Kim, 2009; Matarasso, 1997; Michalos, 2005; Silverstein & Parker, 2002). All studies reviewed used qualitative methods, except Kim and Kim (2009), which is generalizable to this research. Kim and Kim (2009) conducted an empirical study, reviewing how cultural capital influences subjective well-being of participants at the individual level. Kim and Kim (2009) found that cultural divides within groups directly and indirectly influence one’s quality of life. Using a multistage stratified sampling method of 1,950 participants, Kim and Kim (2009) found that life satisfaction appeared to be higher for those who had frequently experienced cultural activities than for those who rarely did. Additionally, Kim and Kim (2009) completed multivariate regressions to assess the “relative effect of cultural experiences on subjective well-being” (p. 304), while controlling for other variables. Consequently, Kim and Kim (2009) found that “cultural experiences have a structural relation with and effect on happiness” (p. 307). What Kim and Kim (2009) suggested is that a wide variety of cultural capital can have a positive effects on quality of life and subjective well-being.

Cultural capital can be thought of as the filter through which people live their lives, the daily or seasonal rituals they observe, and the way they regard the world around them (Flora et al., 2004). The perpetual norms and traditions of military life influence how a military spouse interprets, acts in, and experiences the world through shifting cultural structures, codes, or orders such as the hierarchical chain of command experience. Additionally, Bourdieu (1986) found that “cultural capital can be acquired, to a varying extent, depending on the period, the society, and the social class” (p. 244) in which individuals live. Therefore, by status and proxy of their command team role, spouses have opportunities to help military communities in a way that would otherwise
not be afforded to them. With this status, they can act as the bearers of cultural capital in military communities by being influential to younger spouses and helping to reproduce and perpetuate the structure of culture within the military community. For the command team spouse, cultural capital can be the difference between creating an environment to maintain the status quo or building the foundation for making change. These suggestions were built on the premise that one’s activities in community service can lead to social and human capital, which are further defined as a field of relationships that can be multidimensional to both command and communities of practice within the U.S. Army as an organization (Daniels, Grove, & Mundt, 2006).

Social Capital

Social capital refers to the networks, norms of reciprocity, and mutual trust that exist among and within groups and communities (Flora et al., 2004). According to a study by Furstenberg (2005), building connections and social capital within communities “often begins with strengthening bonds with the extended family” (p. 814). Such extended family can include fictive family members, which can often refer to friends or neighbors within the community (Furstenberg, 2005, p. 812). Such relationships are found in military communities, where social support networks are the norm and individuals depend on their neighbors as an alternative to kin to cope with long family separations. Within these networks, the concept of social capital has significant utility in describing the informal relationships and their complex dynamics. Managing and accumulating social capital helps to describe the challenge of people seeking influence and support within and from these networks. Furstenberg (2005) found that these challenges stem from the idea that the successful accumulation of social capital depends on a “the norm of reciprocity” (p. 815), or quid pro quo, which is often found in support
networks. Supporting Furstenberg’s (2005) perspective of social capital, Moelker and Van Der Kloet (2003) explained that some social support networks combine both “generalized reciprocity” (p. 202) and “communitarian character” (p. 202), which reflects the balance of “give and take” (p. 202) in most relationships. Therefore, the strength of support networks in military communities might very well rely on the altruistic behavior of individuals or informal leaders (military spouses) who act on the understanding that they might someday receive support in return from someone with whom they are not personally acquainted (Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003, p. 220).

The literature about social capital to date is vast. Although the researcher focused primarily on the communitarian and familial aspects of social capital, several studies in particular connect social capital to (a) learning and identity development (Balatti & Falk, 2002; Preston & Dyer, 2003), (b) community development (Colclough & Sitaraman, 2005; DeFilippis, 2001; Flora et al., 2004; Huebner et al., 2009; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005), (c) institutionalism and familism (Bourg & Segal, 1999; Bowen et al., 2003; Furstenberg, 2005; Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003; Realo, Allik, & Greenfield, 2008), and (d) LDPs (Van De Valk & Constas, 2011). From each study, as Furstenburg (2005) noted, one theme remained common: “no general agreement exists on what is meant by social capital” (p. 817); therefore resulting in an “unreflective quality of measurement” (p. 817) from which to pull from for generalization.

Additionally, as Furstenberg (2005) noted, many authors of social capital research identify a need for more longitudinal research to demonstrate the proper causal effects of social capital along with “social experiments to establish a causal link between access to social capital and its consequences” (p. 817). These findings highlight potential problems with the concept of social capital in that to date researchers have been unable to establish
a causal link or quantify the effects of social capital. Therefore, they are tempted to apply
the concept to any power relationship in a social network—as opposed to the cultural
norms of respect, stature, or duty, as seen in military command and community
environments. Consequently, they make it difficult to provide inference in similar
research surrounding effects of social capital and the facilitation and growth of
community networks.

Overall, social capital has varying definitions, depending on the context, but it
also has great implications for future research. The concept of using social capital to
build bridges within communities is potentially useful to researchers, particular in helping
to understand how command team spouse can influence the U.S. Army as an organization
by building and establishing networks that support families within military communities.
Furthermore, these networks perform many functions in military communities, including
both economic and noneconomic aspects of human capital.

**Human Capital**

According to Little (2003), human capital can be described as a set of
competencies: knowledge, social and personality attributes, and creativity that embodies
a person’s ability to perform labor so as to produce economic value. These competencies
are skills that people acquire through deliberate investments in education; skills that are
the capacities that contribute to economic production; and skills that lead to earnings in
the labor market as the result of a person’s productivity (Little, 2003). Networks formed
in military communities can often lead to opportunities for the development and
investment of human capital for military spouses. Therefore, for purposes of this study,
leadership development, as described by the CTSDP-BDE, is a form of human capital.
The concrete study and acquisition of skills necessary to function as a leader contributes
to the productivity and influence of the U.S. Army as an organization and military community (Wolters et al., 2011). Conversely, human capital is also an economic result of implied networks and volunteerism throughout military communities.

In relation to leadership development of the command team spouse, research by Bowles, Gintis and Osborne (2001) suggested a model of behavioral traits that are influential to the leadership roles, but not normally regarded within human capital theory as skills. Bowles et al. (2001) employed the term “behavioral” (p. 2) as a catch-all for descriptors of leadership traits to include: future-oriented, self-directedness, IL and EL, aggression, Machiavellian intelligence, conscientiousness, self-esteem, preference for challenge over affiliation, fear of failure, degree of trust, and church attendance. Additionally, Bowles et al. (2001) described SF as a leadership trait that can be viewed as an additional form of human capital. Self-efficacy in this manner can lead to increased confidence in one’s ability to guide, motivate, and consequently produce desired effects in any organization, which potentially leads to increased human capital. The inference from this study is that LDPs such as the CTSDP-BDE are relevant to the development of pertinent leadership skills that would otherwise contribute to sources of human capital within the U.S. Army as an organization.

**Volunteerism**

Markedly, the development of human capital through leadership programs for informal leaders is important. However, in this study the researcher proposes using a systems perspective of human capital that also includes the aspect of volunteerism, which remains a key economic resource in military communities. In a brief review of the literature, broad evidence is available to support the fact that military spouses serve a vital role by volunteering in military communities (Durand, 2000; Harrell, 2001b; Jessup,
1996; Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003; NMFA, 2007, 2011; Segal & Segal, 2003; Weinstein & White, 1997). Although Ingram (2010) defined volunteerism as “the policy or practice of providing one’s time or talents for charitable, educational, or other worthwhile activities, especially in one’s community” (p. 13) the term has become a catchall phrase for people accomplishing a variety of tasks (without pay) within the community they live. According to Harrell (2001b), in an environment of decreasing budget dollars, military spouses become a vital resource in the form of volunteerism, which depending on location can be “valued at millions of dollars each year” (p. 57). In a study on military families, Moelker and Van Der Kloet (2003) further explored the notion that military wives were providing the armed forces with “free services” (p. 209) by researching their “mother superior syndrome hypothesis” (p. 209), which suggested that active engagement in volunteerism is primarily the result of commander’s wives, who reign as “mother superior” (p. 209) over the younger spouses. However, statistical analysis of Moelker and Van Der Kloet’s (2003) data did not support the original hypothesis of a correlation between rank and participation, as most active participants in the study are wives of enlisted and lower officer ranks. Although their study appears to negate the claim that volunteerism occurs more at higher levels, it does infer that volunteerism by military spouses equates as “free services” provided and, therefore, money saved by the DOD in military communities.

In this study, the researcher proposes that structures of cultural and social capital by command team spouses in military communities can potentially (directly and indirectly) influence sources of human capital, which equates as participation and volunteerism in military communities. Wilson and Musick (1997) suggested an integrated theory of formal and informal volunteerism that may help explain this concept further.
Their theory is based on the premise that volunteer work is (a) productive work that requires human capital, (b) collective behavior that requires social capital, and (c) ethically guided work that requires cultural capital (p. 694). According to Wilson and Musick (1997), volunteer work is a form of collective action, but also requires social capital, or ties among people. Social ties provide information, promote trust, and foster norms of generalized reciprocity, all of which encourage work undertaken for a collective good. Informal social interactions and participation in voluntary associations, as well as social roles like employment and parenthood, link individuals to others in the community.

Overall, the idea that organizations such as the U.S. Army can benefit from recognizing and responding to the needs of military spouses and family members is not unique (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a). The social roles of command team spouses often result in the perpetuation and influence of military culture and the identification of and building of networks, which might result in social and human capital as discussed in this study. The premise is that command team spousal roles play an important part, which may or may not produce results depending on the unit of command and individual assuming the role. Additionally, volunteerism in military communities has been demonstrated to equal millions of dollars each year in saved financial capital for the U.S. Army as an organization. Therefore, a systems perspective of capital and military spousal roles demonstrates reasons why the U.S. Army should pay attention to how it educates, trains, and develops command team spouses. The systems perspective is a top-down perspective that flows well with the cultural hierarchy on which the U.S. Army is built and incorporates a holistic view of how informal leadership can have far reaching effects.
**Analysis of Military Spouse Education**

**Evolution of a Spousal Training Program**

Along with the changing military spousal role over the last half of the 20th century, education, training, and development for military spouses of commanders and command sergeant majors assuming command has changed (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2013d). This includes the evolving PCC located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Although extensive historical literature exists surrounding the military spouse, no evidence or published documentation exists surrounding military spouse educational programs or the effects such programs have on the military spousal role. Therefore, an extensive historical analysis of the PCC curriculum and design over the last 30 years was conducted to provide a base line for future research surrounding spousal educational programs.

As the need for documentation existed, the researcher obtained primary data for this study through oral interviews with past facilitators of the Command Team Seminar (CTS) program, narrative inquiry methods, and research of historical documentation from the SCP, all of which is currently archived at the Combined Arms Research Library at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. In this historical analysis, primary data collected include a compilation of several life history interviews, technical reports, curriculum, and artifacts collected over the years by both past facilitators and the SCP. Ultimately, the researcher collected over 1700 pages of artifacts and consequently took on the responsibility of archiving these documents; therefore, in this study, they will be cited as the U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, or 2013d, depending on the year range of the different parts of the document collection.
Today, after 10 years of war, for families dealing with multiple deployments and changing spousal roles many types of spouse programs are available in the U.S. Army. Some are family assistance and specific resource oriented, some concern general military information, and others are service information “drops” that are location-and unit-specific. To understand fully where the CTS program fits with overall military training objectives, it should be noted that the CTS program is part of what the U.S. Army deemed the Spouse Training and Education Program (STEP) concept in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The STEP program was a direct result of changing spousal roles in the Army and continues today. A general diagram of specific programs offered is described in Figure 2.

An original version of the STEP diagram was developed and proposed in 1985 by D. Thompson (director of the SCP; Personal communication, April 10, 2013), who suggested that the STEP program consist of progressive, yet sequential curriculum that would continue through all levels of command. The idea was innovative, but budgetary concerns and the lack of support for spousal training and educational programs across the U.S. Army in the mid-1980s led to a disjointed effort. However, D. Thomson (Personal communication, April 10, 2013) reported the major idea that carried on from the original proposal regarded the role of the command team spouse as “informal leaders and to develop/mentor less experienced spouses within Army units.” Although the STEP program continues today, evidence of a progressive based curriculum does not. Therefore, a goal of Thompson’s original proposal to senior U.S. Army leaders is actually one that has major implications for this researcher’s study because a great need is yet felt for progressive spousal education at all levels. The problem is that the curriculum that exists currently is not necessarily formatted in a progressive model because it is
contracted out to several different groups. The idea of building blocks in spousal education is not necessarily new; however, the changing nature of today’s U.S. Army calls for substantial changes in how it trains and educates both soldiers and families.

**Figure 2 STEP Diagram**

![STEP Diagram](image)

*Figure 2. STEP diagram of officer spouse training at each level of command to include the Command Team Spouse Development Program.*

The changing spousal role in the late part of the 20th century led the U.S. Army to make several changes in both policy and programs to support the separate role and identity of a military spouse. In fact, one of the top recommendations from the U.S. Department of the Army (1980) at the Army Family Symposium was to

Provide leadership training and official support for officer, NCO, and enlisted wives to enhance their leadership skills and help them serve as positive role models. . . . When Commanders and senior NCO’s are trained for their new assignments, create special funded training for the wives on dealing with the human problems that may confront them in the new assignment (pp. 10–11).

This is impactful to this research surrounding command team spouses, as one of the primary ways listed to prepare them for the transition in roles is to create systemic LDPs.
According to the U.S. Department of the Army’s (1988, as part of 2013a) *Command Team Seminar Facilitator Handbook*, the CTS program was an experience-based training program built on four unique principles of adult learning: 1) That the greatest learning occurs when adults take responsibility for determining what they learn; 2) That adults learn that which is personally beneficial; 3) That adults learn what they discover for themselves; and 4) That adults learn more from experience and feedback than from experience alone. (p. 24) Furthermore, the CTS program followed this experiential learning approach from the mid-1980s to now as training activities are designed as social process events in which learners are invited to participate. According to course materials, the experiential learning cycle (e.g., experiencing, sharing, interpreting, generalizing, and applying) provided activities that offered the potential to involve the whole person in the educational process. Objectives in each stage of the cycle potentially move the individual to higher levels of learning, which is similar to the experience that a command team spouse goes through as the active duty spouse progresses to higher-level commands in the U.S. Army. The curriculum and instruction is designed as such to help participants discover and diagnose the process underlying their patterns of behavior both in themselves and in their surrounding peers. Although the experiential learning process has evolved in the last 30 years, the process, as followed by the CTS facilitators in the 1980s, is diagramed as follows in Figure 3:

Some of the topics surrounding experiential learning based curriculum in the 1980s included SM, group formation and development, individual learning styles, effective communication, conflict management, situational leadership, personality assessments (Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator), problem solving, role expectations, well-being, family support groups and joining the unit (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, p. 27–30). Although much of the material surrounding experiential learning programs stresses the importance of the process, very few guidelines for facilitators were offered in the early days of the program. However, strategies for the process were found in the *Command Team Seminar Facilitator Handbook* (1988, as part of U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a), which provides a detailed overview of how to facilitate each stage by using leading questions. For example, in stage one (the experiencing stage), participants were often asked questions such as “What do you need to know to . . .?” and “Would you be willing to try . . .?” for whatever course content was being covered at the moment (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, p. 28). In Stage 5, (the applying phase or real-world application phase) participants were asked questions such as “What would be the consequences of doing or not doing that?” or “How could you apply or transfer that?”
which were directed at applying the general knowledge that the CTS program would add to their personal and professional lives (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, p. 28–29).

One of the findings surrounding 1980s spousal educational curriculum and training materials was the change in terminology and language surrounding spousal roles in a command team environment. For example, a topic of discussion from the 1980s curriculum informed command team spouses of “Who Does What?” which was a detailed description of each person’s role according to rank (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, p. 50–51). According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2013a), the assumed role for an officer’s spouse was to “help and teach other wives to work effectively in their various assignments” (p. 50) by acting as a mentor and advisor to all that fell “beneath” (p. 50) them in rank or years of experience. In contrast, the U.S. Department of the Army (2013a) reported that the enlisted wives were not only expected to act as mentors and advisors to the other enlisted wives, but also to “inform the commander’s wife of all noncommissioned officers and enlisted wives’ activities” (p. 51). The hierarchical expectations of these roles changed significantly over the years, as did the curriculum surrounding the CTS program. The rise of feminism, policy changes surrounding women in the military, an increasing number of male military spouses, and the individual needs of spouses to maintain separate identities from their active duty member’s jobs demanded the change in expectations and roles for military spouses in the U.S. Armed Forces.

The military spousal roles and curriculum surrounding the CTS changed significantly in conjunction with the 1988 memo signed by Secretary of Defense Caspar Weinberger that officially discontinued the practice of spousal actions included in the service member’s official evaluation report (OER). Inclusive terminology can be found throughout CTS course materials surrounding the relationship between the officer and
enlisted spouses of commanders and command sergeant majors immediately following that policy change, which was directly influenced by large group discussions with senior U.S. Army leaders at Fort Leavenworth focusing on the role and importance of the commander’s spouse. Personal recollections confirm that these U.S. Army leaders received similar briefings from their superiors in an effort to disseminate changing cultural perspectives in the U.S. Army at that time (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013; C. Yuengert, personal communication, April 15, 2013).

Significant changes to the CTS program occurred in the 1990s. Along with changing spousal roles in the U.S. Army and the buildup of forces during and after the Persian Gulf War in 1994, additions to the CTS curriculum included blocks of instruction on legal issues, army family programs, choices and challenges, time management, personality types, deployments, unit outreach, working with volunteers, FRGs (formerly family support groups), trauma in the unit, and the Command Team Charter, which provided participants the opportunity to present expectations and build mutual goals as a command team (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013c, p. 67; B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). A fact sheet developed by the U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) SCP administrators for the CTS program in 1995 formally described the CTS program goal as the ability “To support unit readiness by providing command teams with the awareness and skills needed to make a contribution to a positive environment of family, unit, and community”( p. 213). Additionally, the U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) learning objectives for the program included: (1) an increase of personal awareness of U.S. Army programs; (2) develop an awareness of personal values as they relate to the values of the organization; (3) recognize informal influences in the organization as a member of the command team; and (4) develop the skill to contribute to
the positive environment of family, unit, and community (p. 611). To achieve these objectives the U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) course sequence consisted of three distinct phases:

PHASE 1 (Before Assuming Command) – Just as the commander must develop a personal philosophy for command, the spouse may also explore personal values and goals to arrive at a philosophy for the role of informal leader. Subjects in this phase address institutional and personal values, discussion about the spouse’s role, and group development (p. 611).

PHASE 2 (During Command) – This phase addresses those skills and knowledge required during the command tour such as managing conflict, group dynamics, situational leadership, family readiness groups, volunteer management, trauma and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (p. 611).

PHASE 3 (After Command) – This phase focuses on long-range goal setting and leaving a better unit for the next Command Team (p. 611).

Although the specific roles and responsibilities of each member of the command team were theirs to determine mutually, it was explicitly stated in all program materials that no formal attempt would be made to define a specific role for the command team spouse.

In reviewing the curriculum one thing is certain: Continued emphasis was apparent from beginning to end on behavior and personal awareness and command team spouses as informal leaders at higher-level commands in the U.S. Army are often judged with high expectations by peers, the community, and the unit (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). Consequently, one of the more relevant courses of instruction on personal observation and awareness was a particular section on values, according to a long-term facilitator of the CTS program (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). The U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) curriculum was modeled after Massey’s (1979) model of human behavior, which includes the understanding of one’s own values (i.e., family, church or religion, spiritual, cultural, group) as important to successful informal leadership (pp. 611–626). The expectation is
that understanding one’s values leads to increased understanding in the values of others, which in turn reduces conflict and leads to greater acceptance and communication. Although the curriculum changed over the years to understanding interpersonal and intrapersonal communication, the concept of personal awareness continued.

Documentation regarding the inclusion of command sergeant major spouses in the CTS program is limited. However, B. Harrison (Personal communication, March 26, 2013) confirmed that CSM spouses were indeed in the program starting in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Curriculum and instruction for CSM spouses was inclusive with the commander’s spouse to develop a united command team. However, separate CSM panel discussions were conducted during which new CSM command team spouses were provided the opportunity to ask questions of mentors or those who had already experienced the role as the enlisted spouse role is culturally different from the officer’s spouse role. Many of the documented questions from the U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) SCP curriculum for this panel revolved around role expectations and relationships between the enlisted and officer spouse (p. 497). Other questions related to the changing roles of all military spouses, including being employed while in the command team role and how to juggle or navigate with success. The participation of CSM spouses in the CTS program at Fort Leavenworth in the 1990s was limited because many spouses chose to attend a similar program specifically for CSM spouses at Fort Bliss, Texas, which was the primary location of the Command Sergeant Majors Academy for the U.S. Army (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). According to documentation obtained from past facilitators in this course much of the course instruction was similar to what was covered in the CTS program at Fort Leavenworth (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013c, p. 499–512); B. Harrison, personal...
communication, March 26, 2013; C. Yuengert, personal communication, April 15, 2013).

According to C. Yuengert (Personal communication, April 15, 2013), many of the spousal programs across the country maintained similar curriculum for the very fact that one individual would attend CTS and then implement similar programs at their installation because the need for education was there and the funds for travel were not. In many instances, these educational programs were contracted out and facilitated by the same individuals who ran the CTS program. In other instances, newly trained facilitators developed and maintained the curriculum. This practice provided a needed service to the military spouse; however, it also provided disconnect in messages and visions of how spousal educational curriculum should be developed across the U.S. Army.

The curriculum surrounding volunteers and volunteer management has always had a place in the CTS program. Large group discussions took place with each set of participants on how to manage, organize, motivate, and recognize volunteers. The combination of military spouse education and discussions regarding volunteers is a natural and necessary topic for the U.S. Army as an organization. Much of the day-to-day tasks accomplished in U.S. Army units and communities are often conducted by military spouse volunteers. Therefore, it has been and still is in the U.S. Army’s best interest to educate its top leaders on the importance of recognition and management of this large source of human capital. In late 1992 and early 1993, mainstream media ran several stories that resulted in “bad press” for command teams in the military (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013c, p. 74; B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). These articles created a poor reflection of command teams in the U.S. Army; consequently, the SCP launched a participant survey in April 1993 regarding perceived spousal roles and opinions of the command team aspect in the PCC at Fort Leavenworth (U.S. Department
of the Army, 2013c, p. 74–75). Results from the survey were clear—over 80% felt recent press articles did not portray an accurate picture of the U.S. Army in general. Therefore, U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) did not feel the need to change the name of the CTS to a more “user friendly” approach such as “Cohesion Unit Development Training” or “Command Information Seminar” (p. 56–60). However, other survey questions regarding perceived expectations and roles reinforced the continued perception of role expectations for command team spouses. U.S. Department of the Army (2013c) results showed that of those who responded to the survey 57% felt that the command team spouse had a choice regarding her involvement in unit functions; conversely, 39% felt the spouse had no choice regarding involvement and that it was required, and 4% were “on the fence” (p. 59–60). Additionally, 69% of respondents (34 out of 49 polled) felt that the U.S. Army gets “two for one,” that is, along with the commander comes the unpaid spouse volunteer. As a reflection of changing roles and culture, 25% felt the commander’s OER was influenced by the spouse’s involvement and 66% felt spouses did not influence the OER (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013c, p. 59–60).

With the September 11, 2001, tragedy and subsequent military operations including Iraq and Afghanistan, the CTS program changed once again. The content did not necessarily change, however curriculum became more focused and emphasis of instruction surrounded what command team spouses were currently facing in the their units (B. Harrison, personal communication, March 26, 2013). Trauma in the unit and FRGs became large topics. Because of past experience from prior conflicts, the focus for the U.S. Army became an effort to help educate command teams not only on the aspects of readiness and warfare, but also understanding how to support family readiness and maintaining balance in personal and professional lives (U.S. Department of the Army
Prior experience with veterans and families led the U.S. Department of the Army (2013d) to understand that if it did not support the families, the soldier would not be as “ready” as he should be (p. 21). According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2013d), the goal of family readiness was for leaders, soldiers, and family members to have a better appreciation of the differences in multi-component services; that they understand the importance of family readiness, and that as a result of the training the families, soldiers, and units are more ready, more capable, and have a stronger sense of cohesion. (p. 25)

As military spousal roles continued to evolve, the U.S. Army responded by developing the Spouse Orientation and Leader Development (SOLD) program in 2003. SOLD was originally designed using data from the 2001–2002 U.S. Department of the Army (as cited in 2013d) Survey of Army Families IV study, which better integrated spouses into the command environment (p. 45). Additionally, the designer of the SOLD program intended it to be used as an integrated methodology for providing services to U.S. Army spouses through each step and transition in their lives when married to a U.S. Army soldier. Although the SOLD program was designed to benefit all military spouses, the program was particularly significant for command team spouses, who often assume roles as informal leaders and as outlined in each of the four stated goals of the SOLD program: connect, grow, contribute, and lead (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 44). The SOLD framework became a complex design with user-friendly web links and real world application for U.S. Army spouses; however, the concept lacked continued support and ended with the development of newer U.S. Army programs.

In 2009, the SCP officially revamped their brigade-level PCC by creating the new brigade PCC (BDE PCC) and Command Team Spouse Development Program (CTSDP-
BDE), which is a 5-day course that focuses on both leadership skills and U.S. Army spouse pertinent information. The first pilot for the CTSDP-BDE ran in April 2010 as SCP partnered with KSU to provide a course tailored to the needs of brigade command spouses. According to a U.S. Department of the Army (2013d) SCP historical report, the purpose of the course is to “prepare and equip today’s informal leaders with the advance skill sets that enable the creation of a positive environment for family, unit, and community; directly supporting unit and organizational readiness” (p. 165). The newly designed course focuses specifically on the brigade level to include the change from working battalion to brigade, brigade and higher interaction, senior command team interaction, strategic communications role, teambuilding and increased social activities and functions (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 164–166). Although initial piloting of the course and funding did not include CSM spouses, U.S. Army funding approved and included the whole command team (including CSM spouses) in October 2010 (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 164–166). Although the program grew exponentially over the last 30 years and continues to evolve currently, a top-down historical timeline is presented in Figure 4 to provide context of the spousal training and educational program at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas:
Figure 4. Top-down historical timeline of spousal education at School for Command Preparation in Fort Leavenworth, KS.
Contemporary Training and Development Program

Leadership development and the organization. Leadership development, management skills, and teamwork education often rank as the most important and most frequently offered training topics in organizations (Filipczak, Picard, & Stamps, 1998). The U.S. military has a history of successfully integrating LDPs for a labor force that continues to have a large turnover rate, which can be as often as every 2–3 years and necessitates finding and developing new leaders on a continuous basis (Reimer, 1998). Therefore, leadership development for new command teams can be critical to the success of the U.S. Army as a military organization.

Leadership development for command teams in the U.S. Army is unique in comparison to corporate organizations because new competencies for each level of command are required and new leaders are continuously needed to meet these new challenges (Smith, 2009). According to Persyn and Polson (2012), the focus on education and development has received much attention within U.S. Army doctrine, especially with the implementation of the U.S. Department of the Army’s (2011a) Army Learning Model for 2015, which “re-emphasizes the importance of adult learning principles that have historically characterized military training and education” (p. 10). The focus of the Army Learning Model for 2015 remains on integrating training and education in a continuum of learning rather than treating the two as mutually exclusive domains, which intentionally reflects the Army’s stance on being a learning organization (U.S. Department of the Army, 2011a).

According to Senge (1990), a learning organization is a place “where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where new and collective aspiration is set
free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together” (p. 3). Senge (1990) identified five “technologies” of the learning organization: personal mastery, mental models and, most importantly to U.S. Army command team leadership development systems thinking, building shared thinking, and team learning (pp. 6–10). It is widely discussed in leadership literature that an organization that places an emphasis on learning will be able to adapt to change much faster and with less turmoil than an organization that does not place an emphasis on learning (Johnson, 1998). Most organizations attempt to force change rather than create the culture necessary to promote successful change (Smith, 2009). Therefore, change should be internal and started in small groups or isolated locations such as a command team, which can primarily be developed at programs such as the CTSDP-BDE.

Sogunro (1997) suggested that leadership education be extended to all levels of employees with the assertion that all employees are potential leaders and need development. Although the military spouse is not an employee of the DOD, his or her potential influence to the organization is of great importance. Sogunro’s assertion directly parallels both systems thinking and that of the U.S. Army PCC, which extends leadership training to military spouses. Additionally, Sogunro (1997) proposed that leadership education must be current and those who received training in the past need a “refresher” or update to their leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities. The idea of extended leadership education to all members of the command team, to include the military spouse, reinforces Sogunro’s notion that a more empowered workforce will emerge.

A review of the literature suggested that many different leadership style programs are available (Bass, 1990; Carbone, 2009; Chatterji, 2008; Knox, 2000; Russon & Reinelt, 2004; Sogunro, 1997). According to Knox (2000), the program chosen must be
tailored to the organization’s specific needs and must include the following: culture and climate of the organization, needs of the individuals, and the applicability of the training intervention to the intended audience (p. 17). Furthermore, Bass (1990) suggested that various leadership styles and theories should be taken into account when developing educational programs as it will help present a balanced program (Bass, 1990). Although much research has surrounded LDPs (Bass, 1990; Carbone, 2009; Chatterji, 2008; Knox, 2000; Russon & Reinelt, 2004; Sogunro, 1997), one study in particular highlights the effects of the program on participant roles in the community. Sogunro (1997) looked at the impact LDPs have on participant roles revealing several competencies that rank particularly high on the survey’s “some improvement scale”: verbal communication, respecting the abilities of others, listening skills, appreciating the abilities of others, providing leadership in a group, being active in meetings, and displaying sensitivity to the feelings of others after the completion of the course (p. 726). Furthermore, this study shows a positive impact on leadership abilities of the participants after the program, which indicates that the effectiveness of the program had long-term positive implications for those who attended (Sogunro, 1997). Sogunro’s (1997) study looked at a rural population trained in civic leadership where sample participants were trained volunteers for the program; thus, somewhat biasing the study. Additionally, the data measured is qualitative in nature. Although this is a good indication of how the individuals felt about the effectiveness of the training, no quantitative data existed to help support the claim. Overall, Sogunro (1997) revealed that the ultimate goal of the program was to develop participants’ leadership skills to increase their effectiveness in their roles, which would ultimately lead to enhanced overall company performance and increased employee
satisfaction, which is very similar to what the CTSDP-BDE course strives to accomplish for the U.S. Army as an organization.

**Experiential learning.** It has long been established that, historically, military spouse education is experiential in nature (Alt & Stone, 1991; Harrell, 2001a; Massello, 2003). However, military spouse educational programs today have evolved with the needs of the U.S. Armed Forces. According to Kolb (1984), the focus of experiential learning is on the learning process of an individual and it is the process of making meaning or learning from direct experience. The idea of experience, as a core aspect of adult learning in any situation, is completely intertwined with what is known through the current literature on adult education. Therefore, it is difficult to describe or discuss education and development of any kind that does not address the role that experience plays in learning. Kolb (1984) posited that experiential learning is “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience . . . and results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (p. 41). Such is the process of adult leadership development.

Discourse in the field of leadership is ongoing regarding whether the qualities of effective leadership are innate or acquired through experiential learning. Hill (2003) suggested that much of leadership is learned and that a strong correlation exists between leadership and learning, but especially learning from social situations. Subsequently, Hill (2003) proposed, “Leadership is primarily learned from on-the-job experiences—by doing, observing, and interacting with others” (p. 147). However, an alternative perspective is that people do not always learn from their experiences. To make meaning from one’s experiences, leaders must be able to reflect on and consolidate the lessons of those experiences. Then, LDPs become essential tools in developing senior leaders. To
change and grow as a leader one must be prepared to engage periodically in introspection—to collect feedback on and analyze their behavior, attitudes, and values (Hill, 2003, p. 148). However, the difficulty lies in remaining objective, which demonstrates the need for a network of developmental relationships (superior and lateral, internal, and external to the organization) through which they can better learn from their own experiences by receiving individualized feedback, advice, and emotional support in a safe learning environment.

Experiential learning is an active process. It involves placing the learner in unfamiliar environments, outside his or her comfort zone, and into a state of dissonance (Gass, 1993). Ironically, this form of learning occurs most often for the typical military spouse who lives in a constant state of change. To learn in a state of disharmony, participants and learners are usually required to use problem-solving skills and self-examination skills. Kolb (1984) showed that, although the effects of learning in this environment are significant, the process is the most vital component. The challenging experiences of military life often drive participants out of their comfort zones and push their personal limits. The anticipated result is personal growth and changes in the participant’s self-esteem. As Kolb stated, an experience that one does not reflect on is unrealized learning. Although the primary objective of experiential learning and military spouse training is that the individual grows through reflection, it should be noted that this might not always occur. The pressures of military life can be overwhelming for some along with the motivation to learn from the experience.

Command Team Spouse Development Program–Brigade Level

Program description. The CTSDP-BDE is a 5-day course, held monthly, 11 times per year, and was developed by the SCP in partnership with an interdisciplinary
team from KSU comprised of members from the College of Education, College of Human Ecology, and College of Business. The CTSDP-BDE is an academic program designed to provide participants with “a personal and professional growth opportunity highlighting the self-awareness and leadership skills needed to effectively and positively contribute to the family, unit, and community environment” and support unit and family readiness as they enter the brigade-level command team (U.S. Department of the Army, 2011b, para. 1). Emphasis is on leadership and interpersonal relationship skills essential to the future role of a command team spouse; therefore, the CTSDP-BDE affords spouses of brigade commanders and command sergeants major the opportunity to learn about U.S. Army programs and resources, exchange ideas with other command team spouses and mentors, and clarify role expectations. Since its inception in April 2010, over 500 command team military spouses have completed the course. Although participation in the CTSDP-BDE program and brigade command environment is voluntary, the U.S. Army as an organization offers leadership development education to command team spouses, as many often go on to assume informal, yet influential leadership roles in U.S. Army communities.

An overview of the CTSDP-BDE program involves a mixture of informal learning and formal presentations, revolving around several key themes. Although the CTSDP-BDE course was not developed with the ROPELOC in mind, the following themes are described followed by corresponding ROPELOC scales that this course is likely to affect:

- **Entering the brigade command environment: Examining the transition and analyzing the situation** – The participants identify key aspects of their personal transition into the brigade command team spousal role, with
particular focus on the personal impact on life, current and potential stressors, and areas of strength on which one might draw. The participants complete the *Transition Guide and Questionnaire* (Schlossberg, 2010), analyze the outcomes through group discussion, and identify possible avenues for support during their transition into a new role (as cited in U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The analyzing the situation theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: participant SC, SF, SM, OE, and CH.

- **Perceptual influences** – The participants engage in group discussion and facilitator lecture to examine why “common sense” is not so common (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The perceptual influences theme potentially affects the participants’ beliefs regarding these ROPELOC scales: CT, SE, LA, OT, QS, IL, and EL.

- **Social tendencies** – The participants complete or self-assess using the DISC model (“D” – directors, dominator, task oriented; “I” – interactors, socializers; “S” – servicers, relators; “C” – calculators, cautious personalities) and engage in small group activity to analyze these social tendencies (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The social tendencies theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: CT, SE, LA, OT, QS, IL, and EL.

- **Leaders and followers** – Using group discussion and interactive exercises, the participants examine the “three needs of all people” (power, affiliation, and achievement); and the participants discuss the “bases of power” or types of power in leadership roles (coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, referent power); and which types followers are typically resistant, compliant, or committed to in the leader-follower relationship. The participants then engage
in facilitated discussion surrounding the ways that leaders can influence others by being credible, likeable in an unbiased manner, and realistic (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The leaders and followers theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, OE, QS, LA, AI, IL, and EL.

- **Communication** – The participants engage in group discussion and interactive group exercises surrounding communication and active listening in relationships. “Key to Leadership = Communication and the Key to Communication = Establishing a Climate of Trust!” Following group discussion, the participants engage in the “Stream of Life” activity involving two-person teams (mentor and protégé) using active listening and communication as the mentor helps the protégé cross the “Stream of Life” using only their listening skills, with eyes closed (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The communication theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, IL, and EL.

- **Qualities of successful leaders** – The participants analyze the different leadership styles (autocratic or democratic), understand strengths and weaknesses of alternative styles, and through group discussion describe and rate their own personal leadership style (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The qualities of successful leaders theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: OT, CT, LA, QS, IL, and EL.

- **Serving as advisor, coach, and mentor** – Through group discussion, the participants identify the key characteristics, strengths, and applications of advising, coaching, and mentoring roles. The participants also discuss the
characteristics and behaviors of exemplary brigade spouses’ known to them, using prior interviews and experiences (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The advising, coaching, and mentoring theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, QS, AI, IL, and EL.

- **Conflict resolution** – Through facilitated discussion, the participants become familiar with basic conflict resolution concepts, principles, and styles. The participants self-assess their primary conflict resolution style and engage in group activity using the “Circle of Conflict” lesson. Through group discussion, the participants analyze the different conflict resolution styles of others and identify basic approaches to working with differences in individual and group situations (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The conflict resolution theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, IL, and EL.

- **Working with difficult people and crucial conversations** – Using facilitated group discussion, the participants generate a list of difficult discussions and conflict situations that have been experienced by command team spouses. Through this discussion, the participants begin to understand the “roadmap” for crucial conversations and to identify ways to facilitate successful conversations about difficult topics from multiple perspectives (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The working with difficult people theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, IL, and EL.

- **Supporting personal, family, and community resilience** – Through lectures and facilitated group discussions, the participants identify the basic elements
of personal, family, and marital resilience. Consequently, the participants outline the steps that they might individually take to enhance their own level of resilience and well-being as advisors and support resources to their command spouse, family, and unit (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The supporting personal, family, and community resilience theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, AI, IL, and EL.

- **Tips for the road discussion** – The final discussion is designed to integrate all of the lessons from the week, including the specific topics of concern from the group. The discussion involves a final brief presentation from each participant to the group as they might present themselves to the brigade. This exercise emphasizes one’s guiding values and principles, mission and vision for their tenure as part of the brigade command team, and key activities and involvement that they wish to prioritize during their time in the brigade command (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The tips for the road theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, SE, OE, LA, AI, IL, and EL.

- **Media interaction and social media** – Through the lectures and discussions, the participants learn the positives and negatives of interacting with the media. The participants are encouraged to develop “sound bites,” as command team spouses, that convey the vision of the brigade. The participants also engage in facilitated discussion surrounding social media and the engagement of younger generations, using social media in the U.S. Army. Additionally, volunteers partake in practice media interviews to prepare them for possible
future media engagements (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The media interaction and social media theme potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, OE, LA, IL, and EL.

- **Hogan Assessment** – The participants undergo a personality assessment involving a “potential report” that outlines an individual’s day-to-day leadership style, including behavioral descriptions, leadership competencies, and comprehensive development recommendations. The assessment also includes a “challenge report” that describes the individual’s leadership characteristics, way of interpreting the world, and way that they treat subordinates while under stress and pressure. The assessment involves a one-on-one coaching session for the interpretation of the results using positive and constructive feedback (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). The Hogan Assessment potentially affects these ROPELOC scales: SC, SF, OT, SE, CT, OE, LA, IL, and EL.

Along with set core themes, the CTSDP-BDE program also incorporates a variety of military speakers and presenters on topics such as U.S. Army Family Programs, the Comprehensive Soldier and Family Fitness Program, and general senior U.S. Army leaders to meet set program objectives (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). These objectives include (a) improving participants’ understanding of the command team concept and role, (b) enhancing participants’ understanding of challenges and possible transition into the command team role, (c) improving participants’ understanding of personal and effective leadership styles, and (d) enhancing participants’ understanding of the command team spousal role as it pertains to community relationships and influence (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d, p. 180). During all presentations, the participants
are encouraged to discuss topics relevant to them and their role as a brigade-level command team spouse while in a safe and informal environment. The combination of informal learning and formal presentations can be considered what Fenwick (2008) termed *workplace learning*. According to Fenwick (2008), learning, as it occurs in the CTSDP-BDE, is “treated not as the outcome of the change but as a process . . . [and] “can be defined as expanding human possibilities for flexible and creative action” (p. 19).

According to Amagoh (2009), critical to the success of any leadership development process is the ability to encourage participants to reflect on learning experiences to promote the transfer of knowledge and skills to work contexts. The CTSDP-BDE course is designed to emphasize personal and group reflection and the sharing of experience and knowledge to support participants in their upcoming role as a brigade-level command team spouses. In the CTSDP-BDE course, emotions and learning are by nature intertwined and most topics are emotionally charged— for good reason. Wlodowski (2008) noted, “Emotions largely determine what we pay attention to and help us to be aware of our mind-body states, as well as affect what we remember” (p. 21). The role of a military spouse is significantly different for every individual, at each level of command, throughout a military career. This role could be considered a job for some, albeit an unpaid position. The focus from the individual self to the possible self as an informal leader can be a difficult concept to grasp, particularly for the less experienced command team spouse. However, the intent of the program is that transformational or transitional learning will take place as participants try to draw connections between their personal identities and the goal of being an informal leader at the brigade level.

**Theory and review of CTSDP-BDE.** Learning and reflection are key components to the CTSDP-BDE because the program is fundamentally and academically
grounded in the principles of adult learning theory (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d). Foundationally, the CTSDP-BDE program is grounded in andragogy, which Baumgartner, Lee, Birden, and Flowers (2003) considered to be “the backbone of adult learning theory” (p. 6). Knowles (1972) defined andragogy as “the art and science of helping adults learn” (p. 43), which is contrasted with “pedagogy” (p. 43), helping children to learn. Knowles’ andragogical model incorporates five assumptions specific to adult learners:

1. First, Knowles (1980) assumed that, through maturation and adult development, learners move from “being dependent personalities toward being . . . self-directed” (p. 44–45). Adults might be independent and self-directed in some areas, but otherwise might exhibit dependent attitudes and behaviors in other areas because of previous school experiences. Therefore, mentors, parents, and teachers hold a specific responsibility to facilitate and nurture this important developmental task towards self-direction (Knowles, 2005).

2. The second of Knowles’ (1980) assumptions directly follows the role of the adult learner’s experience. Knowles (1980) stated, “Adults come to an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience” (p. 59). The accumulation of experience creates a rich environment for learning that extends to not only the learner, but also those around them who benefit from this resource. Therefore, it is important for facilitators to tie in adult learner experiences with course discussions, materials, and case studies to promote learning (Knowles, 1980).

3. Knowles’ (1980) third assumption relates to one’s readiness to learn and the timing of learning activities as related to developmental tasks. This is especially
true in formal LDPs. When adults are ready to learn, it is generally considered against the backdrop of their current life situation; therefore, it influences their ability and willingness to partake in a learning environment (Mezirow, 2000). Consequently, programs [e.g., the CTSDP-BDE] must be organized with the concept of life-application and proper developmental needs of the adult to provide education to learners and their readiness to learn.

4. Fourth, Knowles assumed that adult learning is problem-centered rather than subject-centered (Knowles, 1980). With adult learners, education is a stepping-stone or building block to pre-existing knowledge. Consequently, education is often viewed as a necessary process by which learners acquire the competence needed to achieve life potential. Knowles’ understood that adult learners were predisposed to application-based knowledge; therefore, instructors should organize activities and discussion around the competencies and developmental levels of adult individuals (Jarvis, 2001).

5. Finally, Knowles (1980) assumed that adults are internally rather than externally motivated to learn. Tenets related to self-direction and prior experience suggest that adult learners are more motivated when internal motivation for learning occurs rather than the alternative in which external reward or incentive occurs.

With this model, Knowles’ (1980) approached adult learning problems, inquiry, and solutions from a standpoint that is relevant to life and life situations. Although Knowles’ andragogical model is grounded on set assumptions, the CTSDP-BDE was developed using andragogy as a foundation, which incorporates three overarching pieces that all adult educational settings need to have: climate that is positive; curriculum that is applicable; and methodologies that are appropriate (Knowles, 2005).
According to Merriam (2001), learning best takes place when adults can readily apply new knowledge and find its value immediate to them. Facilitators in the CTSDP-BDE attempt to use applicable exercises to provide real value to the learning process, and to promote student autonomy, participation, and collaboration. For example, during Day 2 the facilitator describes four distinct personality styles (or social tendencies) associated with the DISC model after which participants are then asked to self-assess and identify with a style that they believe fits them best. Following the assessment, the participants are asked to group together with others who have the same personality type and social tendency and to discuss further the specific commonalities that they share. This activity provides the participants with the opportunity to take new knowledge and to give it a life experience in a safe environment with others who share their tendencies. According to Cranton (2000), encouraging learners to become aware of their “unique psychological type” (p. 199) and to respond to different activities accordingly is one way that teachers can foster the transformative learning process.

According to Baumgartner et al. (2003), “Transformative learning changes how individuals know and experience the world” (p. 27). Although transformative learning in the CTSDP-BDE might take place for participants attending throughout the week, it is important to understand that the process itself can be viewed through different lenses, depending on where a participant is in his or her leadership development. Using a developmental perspective, Daloz (1999) purported that the transformative learning process is intuitive and involves the facilitation of students’ minds, bodies, spirits, and social environments to help one negotiate transitions and change thinking. In contrast, Mezirow (2000) suggested that transformative learning occurs when individuals change their “meaning schemes, which are ‘sets of immediate specific expectations, beliefs,
feelings, attitudes, and judgments’” (p. 18). In either approach, the main ingredients in transformative learning involve experience, critical reflection, and reflective discourse as a means for change (Baumgartner et al., 2003). Participants in the CTSDP-BDE typically come with a wealth of experience that they can critically reflect on and then fully engage in reflective discourse with other participants regarding their perspectives. According to Mezirow (2000), such discourse usually involves challenging each other’s assumptions and building consensus to determine the truth of one’s perspectives. The CTSDP-BDE seeks to provide an atmosphere to encourage and facilitate such discourse, which is essential for transformative learning to take place.

Using tenets of andragogy and transformative learning as foundational theories to understanding the premise of the CTSDP-BDE is essential; however, it is important to note that neither theory addresses the sociocultural context of the military in which the learning actually occurs. In environments that involve rapid change (e.g., the military), people quickly learn to transform their practices to fit the environment, otherwise known as shapeshifting. According to Fenwick (2008), shapeshifting refers to one’s ability to “learn to perform different selves and knowledges in different environments, while learning to establish some coherent identity to anchor themselves, or even market themselves” (p. 22). The typical command team spouse is often experienced enough to have mastered the skill of shapeshifting, but how he or she comes into the experience can better be described through Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory of development. It is no surprise that military culture is influential, especially to the military spouse. In his research, Vygotsky (1978) argued that social interaction precedes development; consequently, consciousness and cognition are the end product of socialization and social behavior. This “socially mediated process” fits directly with military culture and the
historical context of experiential learning for military spouses, but more so explains how culture and environment influence outcomes in the CTSDP-BDE program (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 52).

Although Vygotsky’s (1978) social cultural theory of development helps to explain the how and why of shapeshifting, Rossiter’s (2007) construct of possible selves might offer additional insight or understanding of how adult learning in programs like the CTSDP-BDE can be the medium through “which change, growth, and goal achievement occur throughout the life course” (p. 5). The goal of CTSDP-BDE is not to change who the participants are as individuals; however, intensive personal and group reflection of their roles as informal leaders allows a participant to explore her possible self, which includes the development of personal selves that are ideal, hoped for, or even the avoidance of a self that one fears or dreads in life (Rossiter, 2007). As previously stated the typical command team spouse is often experienced enough to have mastered many skills and to have the ability to envision her possible self. However, it is important to note that not all participants in the CTSDP program are long-term military spouses. Some participants are new to the military environment, which can pose several challenges for both the participant and facilitators in the program. Although challenging, the facilitators in the CTSDP-BDE attempt to acknowledge the skills and attributes of each course participant to individualize the personal experience; consequently, the overall goal is to help the participants to develop a further understanding both personally and professionally in their informal roles as a brigade-level spouses.

According to Degeling and Carr (2004), leader development is typically built on a foundation of cognitive, socioemotional, and behavioral skills. These skills, supported by the leader attributes of self-awareness, openness, trust, creativity, and practical, social and
general intelligence, provide the basis for leadership. Therefore, it should be emphasized that the theories mentioned regarding the CTSDP-BDE are not mutually exclusive. The theories of adult learning, sociocultural, and experiential learning provide a basis for understanding each segment of how and why participants learn in the CTSDP-BDE. However, with the triadic reciprocal approach, Bandura (1986) suggested that the person, the environment, and the behavior all influence one another and are foundational to understanding the overall process of learning in the CTSDP-BDE program.

Within the CTSDP-BDE, the participants are reminded that effective leadership grows primarily from knowledge of the self and that, as they go forth and become community leaders, they become a reflection of the U.S. Army as an organization. Congruently, the U.S. Department of the Army (2011a) in its Army Learning Model for 2015 reflects on how the U.S. Army considers itself a learning organization that promotes the facilitation of change, empowers organizational members, encourages collaboration and shares information, creates opportunities for learning, and promotes leadership development at every level. The CTSDP-BDE program is a direct reflection of the U.S. Army’s dedication to facilitating large-scale transformation through education. Thus, it is important that the U.S. Army pay special attention to the development of these future informal leaders to sustain long-term effective leadership practices and high organizational performance.

**Evaluation of a Leadership Development Program**

Prior review of the literature in this chapter provides a pathway for understanding spousal education in the military and the reasons why the CTSDP-BDE is in place. However, with continued budget cuts and shortage of DOD funding a continued need exists for further evaluation of outcomes as related to the CTSDP-BDE program.
Complexities are involved with the CTSDP-BDE (as with any LDP), which provides several challenges for a researcher trying to identify alternative methods for evaluating change or outcomes. Although the evaluation of programs is often determined by a specific theory or model, this researcher used existing social science theories to guide the evaluation measurement and design to provide a context for interpreting the evaluation findings. Therefore, the following section provides an overview of the literature as it relates to program evaluation, with an in-depth review of the theoretical concepts of life effectiveness and LOC because they provide the basis for the chosen ROPELOC instrument used in the quantitative part of this study.

**Program Evaluation**

With any LDP, ongoing interest is present among researchers, participants, practitioners, and funders to improve evaluation methods. According to Daponte (2008), the “goal of evaluation is to assist with continuous programmatic improvement and introspection” (p. 3). Therefore, organizations devote significant resources in time and money to programs aimed at developing their leadership talent. However, according to Bersin (2006), extensive evaluation of these types of programs is rare, which can often be explained by lack of time and competing priorities for funding. Furthermore, methods vary within the organizations (e.g., classroom sessions, on the job experiences, or coaching); therefore, measuring set organizational outcomes might often prove difficult because of the complexity of the terms of the factors involved (Carbone, 2009). In an initial meeting with K. Summers (Personal communication, 2012), the director of the SCP at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, regarding mutually beneficial topic areas for this study his top response was “assessment and evaluation of the CTSDP-BDE program.”
Evaluation efforts are typically conducted to document or measure a range of effects that might include individual, organizational, and community outcomes (Caffarella, 2002; Chatterji, 2008; Daponte, 2008; Hannum et al., 2007; McLean & Moss, 2003; Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2009; Russon & Reinelt, 2004; Shadish et al., 2002; Van De Valk & Constas, 2011). For example, a review of 55 LDP evaluations that was conducted by the Development Guild/DDI for the W.K. Kellogg Foundation found that most LDPs desire to evaluate outcomes and impact of their respective efforts (Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Additionally, Russon and Reinelt (2004) found several key results when evaluating LDPs: (a) LDPs evaluate outcomes and impacts on multiple levels, including both individual outcomes (e.g., perceptions, knowledge, skills, and behavior) and organizational, community, or systems-level outcomes; (b) few leadership programs have an explicit program theory, which is more or less a description of how and why a set of activities are expected to lead to outcomes and impacts; and (c) LDPs typically desire to evaluate outcomes and impact, which are usually mid- to long-term in nature. However, most programs are under time constraints to show immediate results to funders; therefore, they often end up with premature or short-term evaluation reports instead. According to Van De Valk and Constas (2011), an assumption that underlies many evaluation efforts is that cause and effect relationships exist between program participation and the reports of changes in attitudes, knowledge, and professional practice. Therefore, the connections one makes between an LDP and a set of desired outcomes (e.g., life effectiveness, leadership skills, community development) are a matter of causal inference; however, proving this is entirely dependent on the conditions under which the data are collected and analyzed (Shadish et al., 2002).
After a review of the literature, one thing is sure: an LDP evaluation can be difficult. According to Chatterji (2008), most LDPs can be viewed as a “package” (p. 23) of independent variables or multiple causal inferences, and program effects are often additive and multiplicative as well. Additionally, Chatterji (2008) stated, “Replication of findings is extremely difficult because conditions of the research can rarely be reproduced or sustained in real stakeholder contexts” (p. 26). Therefore, although many LDPs (including the CTSDP-BDE) are a package of treatments or independent variables, the isolation of a specific treatment and measurement of specific outcomes across the entire cohort becomes increasingly complex.

According to Hannum et al. (2007), “LDPs, and evaluations of them, are conducted in a wide variety of settings for a variety of purposes” (p. 23). Therefore, one should take into account both purpose and resources available when designing an evaluation for an LDP because multiple theoretical and methodological approaches must be considered. Caffarella (2002) noted that the heart of program evaluation is often judging the value or worth of the program; therefore, proving worth in the CTSDP-BDE could be a difficult task for three major reasons. First, it might be difficult to demonstrate that program outcomes are actually tied to the CTSDP-BDE. For example, factors such as prior experience, personality, openness, and situation might account for the occurrence or absence of change for the participant. Second, developing clear criteria or competencies on which judgments can be made is difficult to do, especially for outcomes that are not quantifiable (Caffarella, 2002). Third, program developers might not want to make judgments or have others make judgments that could affect the reputation of the program. This is especially tricky if the researcher has been part of the program from the beginning
because any type of evaluations or research might be seen as punitive or could be seen as advancing political or personal agendas.

Arguably, multiple evaluation models are available, including both economic and noneconomic perspectives. With most programs, funders want to see a specific return on investment or (ROI), which helps to answer the question, “Was it worth it?” Was the money invested in course registration, airfare, and hotels worth what you learned at the conference and were you able to implement on the job what you learned at the conference? In the financial world, ROI is defined as the net earning that is made on an investment. Simply translated:

\[
\text{Attendee ROI} = \frac{\text{Course benefits (\$)} - \text{Course costs (\$)}}{\text{Course costs}} \times 100
\]

For example, if the attendee ROI of one participant in the CTSDP-BDE program were 80%, this means that for every $1 invested to attend the CTSDP-BDE program the U.S. Army would obtain back $1.80 in cost savings or revenue enhancements. However, the CTSDP-BDE course is unlike other LDPs in that the military spouse is not an employee of the U.S. Army; therefore, ROI is extremely difficult to measure. With military spousal educational programs, the ROI might not be immediately quantifiable; however, the effects from the spousal role on community development, retention of service members, and volunteerism (already discussed as a large monetary benefit to the military) can lead to long-range results that exceed the original investment.

One of the most widely used evaluation models for LDPs is Kirkpatrick’s (1959; 1975; 1994) four-level model, illustrated in Figure 5:
Kirkpatrick’s (1959) model outlines four levels of training outcomes: (a) reactions (e.g., participant reaction to the experience of the program), (b) learning (new information obtained by participant as relevant to the outcome), (c) behavior (application of knowledge to leadership role), and (d) results (ROI for both participants and organization). The difficulty of evaluation increases with each level; therefore, most evaluations typically target the lower levels of Kirkpatrick’s (1959) model. Proponents of Kirkpatrick’s model, McLean and Moss (2003) suggested that its simple format brings a “practical, rather than theoretical, perspective” (p. 5) to evaluation methods, which in turn promotes a “common language” and “tool” (p. 5) for trainers to facilitate the comparison of results. Holton (1996) suggested that the model did not appear to be effective in measuring organizational performance, the effectiveness of an organization in achieving outcomes as identified by its strategic goals, or the realization of a ROIs, which is why
most researchers typically use the lower levels of reaction and learning to measure results.

Although multiple methodological approaches are used in the evaluation of LDPs, in a meta-analysis of 55 LDP programs, Russon and Reinelt (2004) found that theoretical approaches or mixed-methods approaches grounded in theoretical concepts help program administrators to “check the alignment between planned activities and desired outcomes and impacts” (p. 105). A key finding of this meta-analysis was that experimental and quasi-experimental approaches have limited use in evaluation methods of LDPs because they cannot accommodate the complexities of a program that must be responsive to the unique needs of each individual participant (Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Russon and Reinelt (2004) proposed that using a mixed-methods approach in an evaluation of LDPs would allow one to combine “qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods in such a way that they are able to complement each other’s strengths and compensate for each other’s weaknesses” (p. 106). Consequently, a thorough review of the evaluation literature, along with the demonstrated weakness of using a methodological approach to evaluation, provides the basis for using a mixed-methods design in this study, in which the researcher proposes to measure change through the evaluation of personal effectiveness and LOC as measured by the ROPELOC instrument.

**Life Effectiveness**

The construct of life effectiveness continues to evolve through continued research; however, it was originally developed as a superior construct for measuring intervention outcomes in comparison to the existing constructs of self-concept or self-esteem (Richards et al., 2002). According to Richards et al. (2002), a debate is ongoing in the field of adventure education regarding whether a self-concept can be measured as an
outcome variable or whether it can merely be expressed through observable behavior. Admittedly, the measurement of behavior can be problematic to standardize in instrument form; therefore, making self-perceptions of self-concepts difficult to measure accurately. According to Richards et al. (2002), life effectiveness can be used as a “mid-point” between self-concept and behavior, allowing for the best of both types of measurements (p. 2). Lane (2008) added to this theory by pointing out the multidimensionality of life effectiveness as a construct because it allows for better understanding of the potential outcomes of personal development programs.

Life effectiveness is a theoretical concept referring to the extent to which individuals demonstrate a range of generic life skills and is broadly defined as important factors that help explain how effective a person will be in achieving his or her desires and wishes in life (Neill et al., 1997). Although the roots of life effectiveness are grounded in psychological constructs of self-concept it has been extensively researched in both experiential and adventure educational research and evaluation, involving (a) adolescents (Culhane, 2004; Ellis, Marsh, & Craven, 2009; Imholt, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Luo, 2011; Merrell, 2009; Ulkins, 2007), (b) university students (Sariolghalam, & Noruzi, 2010;), (c) nursing facilities (Weitz, 2010), and (d) assessment of rural women leaders (Sylvia, Grund, Kimminau, Ahmed, Marr, & Cooper, 2010); however, no identifiable research or evaluation of adult learners in a LDP has been conducted to date. The lack of research on adults in this area might be because of lack of interest or the belief that adult life effectiveness primarily comes from experiential or self-directed learning. According to Sibthorp and Arthur-Banning (2004), life effectiveness can be considered a measurement of how effective or competent people believe themselves to be at the tasks necessary to
have success in life, which to date is primarily evaluated through adolescent adventure programs.

Life effectiveness was first measured by the Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (LEQ), which is a self-reporting tool designed to measure the change in personal development because of participation in an adventure educational program (Neill et al., 1997). Neill et al. (1997) described the LEQ as the next step in the historical development of psychometrically developed instrumentation in adventure educational studies because prior instrumentation in the 1970s and 1980s (including the Tennessee self-concept scale, Rotter’s LOC, and Marsh’s Self-Description Questionnaire) are limiting, indirectly matched to program aims, and not designed to measure change. The domains of the LEQ have evolved since its inception and now include time management, social competence, achievement motivation, intellectual flexibility, task leadership, emotional control, active initiative, and SC (Neill, Marsh, & Richards, 2003).

**Locus of Control**

Locus of control theory was originally developed by Rotter (1966), who used prior work in social learning theory (Dollard & Miller, 1941), along with an extensive review of the existing personality, sociology and psychology literature, to explore the concept. Rotter (1975) proposed that when one perceives reinforcement as being out of one’s control and contingent upon others with greater control or power, or because factors such as chance, fate, or luck, then they possess “external control beliefs” (p. 57) or “external locus of control” (p. 57). In contrast, Rotter also argued that those who view a reinforcing event, as being under their own control and contingent upon their own behavior, should then be labeled as possessing an “internal locus of control” (p. 58).

Rotter (1966) hypothesized that both EL and IL might provide
major significance in understanding the nature of the learning process in different kinds of learning situations and also that consistent individual differences exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal control to reward in the same situation. (p. 1)

Rotter’s (1966) hypothesis, along with extensive research of existing instruments such as the 26-item James-Phares scale (James, 1957) and the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964; both claimed as a measure of external and internal attitudes) led to the development and testing of Rotter’s (1966) I-E scale, which he believed would more accurately measure variables related to IL and EL.

Since its inception, many studies have used and modified Rotter’s (1966) LOC instrument (De Man & Devisse, 1987; Ng, Sorenson, & Eby, 2006; Rotter, 1975; Twenge, Zhang, & Im, 2004). In many of these studies, EL is correlated with negative psychological outcomes or negative self-concept (Rotter, 1975). In a study with undergraduate students, De Man and Devisse (1987) found a statistically significant relationship between EL and alienation as evidence between EL and low self-esteem. In a meta-analysis examining LOC scores over time from 1960 to 2002, Twenge et al. (2004) found that college students are becoming more externally focused. According to Twenge et al. (2004), “The average 2002 student scored more externally than 80% of college students in 1960” (p. 314). Conversely, a separate meta-analysis conducted by Ng et al. (2006) identified more than 222 studies conducted between 1990 and 2005 from which they examined the relationships between LOC and a wide range of work outcomes for adults. Ng et al. (2006) found direct positive correlations between IL and task and social experiences that led to greater job satisfaction in adult workers.

Although much research continues to revolve around the expanded theory of LOC, the evolution of instrumentation over time can be seen through the story of Rotter’s
I-E instrument. Furthermore, LOC is a construct that has been used and expanded upon in adventure educational research and evaluation today. Hence, the development of the ROPELOC, which combines both life effectiveness and LOC to measure overall outcomes.

**Review of Personal Effectiveness and Locus of Control Instrument**

The ROPELOC instrument is built on the original work of the LEQ with more focus on the effect of personal change in programs (Richards et al., 2002). ROPELOC is designed to tap into key psychological and behavioral aspects of human functioning that indicate a person’s effectiveness in a variety of areas, which is instrumental in researching the life effectiveness outcomes of command team spouse participants who have completed the CTSDP-BDE. The ROPELOC instrument contains 14 scales: personal abilities and beliefs (SC, SF, SM, OT), social abilities (SE, CT, LA), organizational skills (TE, QS, CH), and energy scale (AI), and a measure of OE in all aspects of life (Richards et al., 2002, p. 2). The LOC (IL & EL) scales measure the person’s tendency to take responsibility for his or her actions and outcomes or to see external controls determining those actions. The instrument consists of three questions per scale, all of which are rated on a scale of 1 (false, not like me) to 8 (true, like me). The ROPELOC instrument was specifically chosen for this study as the instrument measured key aspects of participant behaviors that the researcher believed would potentially result as an outcome of attending the CTSDP-BDE program. Additionally, the instrument asked several key questions regarding one’s AI that are difficult to quantify in a development program such as the CTSDP-BDE and would be of concern and interest to the SCP and U.S. Army as an organization. Active involvement in particular is a behavioral characteristics that is not directly influenced by the CTSDP-BDE curriculum, but serves
as an excellent control measure for this research as the question remains whether or not participating in spousal education programs such as the CTSDP-BDE promotes military spouses to be actively involved in military communities either through informal leadership roles or volunteerism.

The original development and use of the ROPELOC instrument by Richards et al. (2002) was intended to measure outcomes related to life effectiveness, and has since been used in multiple studies involving (a) adolescent, adventure, experiential learning programs (Culhane, 2004; Ellis et al., 2009; Imholt, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Luo, 2011; Merrell, 2009; Ulkins, 2007); (b) university students (Sariolghalam, & Noruzi, 2010); (c) nursing facilities (Weitz, 2010); (d) self-concept awareness educational seminars (Liggins, 2012), and (e) assessment of rural women leaders (Sylvia et al., 2010). However, no identifiable research or evaluation of adult learners in a LDP using the ROPELOC instrument to measure outcomes has been conducted to date.

Although many of the aforementioned studies demonstrated no statistically significant effect on life effectiveness using the ROPELOC composite scores from a pretest-posttest design (Culhane, 2004, Imholt, 2009; Merrell, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Weitz, 2010), several showed partial correlation for varying factors within the ROPELOC measure. For example, Culhane (2004) studied 5th-grade students from a public elementary school who completed 12 adventure lessons during an 8-week intervention program. No change was observed from the participants’ ROPELOC pretest–posttest composite scores, but the subcategory of quality seeking (QS) had a significant change (Culhane, 2004). Additionally, Merrell (2009) used the ROPELOC instrument to measure the change on 6th graders after a 2-day adventure course. Similar to Culhane (2004), Merrell (2009) found no statistically significant changes in the
participants’ composite scores, but increases were observed in the subcategories of CT, CH, and EL.

Common factors in all of the previously mentioned studies were the use of adolescents, experiential learning, and a pretest–posttest design, but only one identifiable research project used a modified version of the ROPELOC instrument to study the determining characteristics of adult women leaders in rural communities. Sylvia et al. (2010) used a mixed-methods design implementing two separate interview activities (using 30 participants) to explore key domains related to rural women leaders, which then shaped the development of a final modified ROPELOC survey given to 133 respondents. The results of this study reveal six themes (lifelong learning, bias and discrimination, SF and overcoming barriers, community influence and social capital, leadership mentors, and expression of leadership) as important factors in determining leadership development of women in rural areas, which could then be used to foster leadership development in young women through primary and secondary schools, 4-H, and other community organizations (p. 26). Although limitations to Sylvia et al.’s study included a small sample size from the rural Midwest, limited generalizability, and variation of the ROPELOC instrument compromising validity of the measure, the overall outcome remains relevant to this researcher’s study involving brigade command team spouses because it demonstrated how the ROPELOC could be used in evaluating LDPs. Contrary to the approach used in Sylvia et al.’s study involving rural women leaders, this study proposes using the ROPELOC in a pretest–posttest design to measure evaluation outcomes of life effectiveness for participants in the CTSDP-BDE program, which is a formal educational program for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles in U.S. Army communities.
Summary

Chapter 2 provided a review of the literature pertaining to the command team spousal role, current and historical military spouse education, overall program evaluation methods related to this study, and the theoretical underpinnings that connect it all together. An example of how the theoretical underpinnings and main topics flow in this chapter was presented as a mind map in Figure 1 during the introduction of this chapter. Overall, in this literature review, the researcher connects pertinent literature surrounding the importance of spousal participation and support in U.S. Army communities while highlighting literature surrounding spousal education in the U.S. Army.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of a formal education and LDP (i.e., CTSDP-BDE) offered to command team spouses in preparation for brigade-level command team roles and environments. Although the nature of study is specific to the CTSDP-BDE, a potential underlying outcome of this study was to develop primary documentation and research regarding military spouse educational programs, which adds to a growing body of academic knowledge on spousal education in the American military.

This chapter describes the study’s research methodology and includes in-depth description of the following areas: research design, rationale for methodology, research questions, pilot study overview, protection of human rights, sample population, instrumentation, and data collection and procedures. The chapter culminates with an overview of analysis procedures and a brief concluding summary.

Research Design

The design used in this study is a nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed methods approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010). In this type of design, one data set, in this case the qualitative set, provides a supportive, secondary role in the study to the quantitative data set. Two concurrent approaches involving both quantitative and qualitative data are used to answer different research questions within the study in this design (Figure 6).
Figure 6 Nonexperimental, Embedded, Concurrent, Mixed-Methods Design

In the quantitative portion, the survey data from a pretest and posttest using the ROPELOC instrument were used to explore whether change occurred for participants using the 14 scales of the ROPELOC. The ROPELOC survey was administered using a repeated measures design, which researchers typically use as a way of measuring developmental changes during LDPs. The developmental changes are measured using a participant’s response before and after the program, which reduces the error of variability because the participant serves as his or her own control and treatment. Therefore, the ability to detect developmental changes, as defined by the ROPELOC survey, is more powerful when using this design (as opposed to a between-subjects design).

During the CTSDP-BDE, subjective researcher observations provided data for the identification of recurring themes in the program. Additionally, the researcher’s observations helped to determine whether the participants met the preset criteria for participating in the follow-up qualitative interviews. The criteria for participation in the qualitative interviews included the willingness to participate in the study and the timing.
of the command role because it met the parameters for data collection. In the qualitative portion, the data was collected using open-ended questions to explain what aspects of the CTSDP-BDE the participants perceived to have influenced life effectiveness for their informal leadership roles as command team spouses. This study was conducted over the course of 7 months; therefore, the data was collected, triangulated, and analyzed from 7 separate courses. Full description of the nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent methodology is provided in Figure 7. Consequently, the data from each method were analyzed separately and interpretation of the results is provided in Chapter 5.

Figure 7 Nonexperimental, Embedded, Concurrent Mixed-Methods Research Methodology
Rationale for Methodology

Multiple methodological approaches are used in the evaluation of LDPs; however, in a meta-analysis of 55 LDP programs, Russon and Reinelt (2004) found that theoretical approaches or mixed-methods approaches that are grounded in theoretical concepts help program administrators to “check the alignment between planned activities and desired outcomes and impacts” (p. 105). A key finding of this meta-analysis is that experimental and quasi-experimental approaches have a limited use in evaluation methods of LDP because they cannot accommodate for the complexities of a program that must be responsive to the unique needs of each individual participant (Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Russon and Reinelt (2004) proposed that using a mixed-methods approach in evaluation of LDPs would allow one to combine “qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods in such a way that they would be able to complement each other’s strengths and to compensate for each other’s weaknesses” (p. 106). Additional suggestions in this meta-analysis for appropriate use in evaluating LDPs included using a case study approach, an empowerment and participatory approach, limited experimental and quasi-experimental approaches, and most importantly the mixed-methods approach, which, according to Russon and Reinelt (2004) was highly recommended. Overall, a thorough review of the LDP literature, along with the demonstrated weakness of certain methodological approaches to evaluation that were highlighted by Russon and Reinelt (2004), provides the basis for using a mixed-methods design in this study.

Among researchers, a controversy exists with respect to the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research designs. Both quantitative and qualitative purists can be found who believe that the theoretical perspectives that influence and inform each design remain in complete opposition from one another; therefore, they believe that these
approaches should not be mixed. Although some individuals seek to continue the paradigm debate, Creswell and Plano Clark (2010) noted that other researchers have moved on to identify the “best” worldview that provides a foundation for mixed-methods research where “the focus is on the consequences of research, on the primary importance of the question asked rather than the methods, and on the use of multiple methods of data collection to inform the problems under study” (p. 41). Thus, the worldview is pluralistic and oriented towards a “what works” practice, which is mostly commonly associated with *pragmatism* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Although the trend is to use a single worldview (e.g., pragmatism) in a mixed-methods design, using a “what works” practice is not appropriate for program evaluation research (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2009). Therefore, this researcher’s study employed a *dialectical perspective* using the paradigms of postpositivism (quantitative) and constructivism (qualitative) as guiding assumptions that shaped how measures were used in the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010; Greene & Caracelli 1997). An example of this dialectical perspective is outlined in Figure 8 below:
In the quantitative method of this study, the social science theories of life effectiveness and LOC provided the foundation for the research variables and the decision to use the ROPELOC instrument for quantitative data collection. With this survey, the researcher implicitly used a postpositivist worldview to explore the occurrence of participant change from the CTSDP-BDE, as defined by the 14 variables in the ROPELOC. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the tenets of positivism include the view that “social research adopts the scientific method” (p. 5) and that it “consists of rigorous testing of the hypothesis by means of data that take the form of quantitative measurements” (p. 5). In the qualitative portion of this study, data gathered using observations and interview questions helped the researcher to explain what aspects
of the CTSDP-BDE program influenced the change, which is in line with a constructivist perspective.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), constructivists believe that “researchers individually and collectively construct the meaning of the phenomena under investigation” (p. 6), which is most often collected through narratives and qualitative measures. These perspectives, one a positivistic inductive view (quantitative) and the other a constructivist deductive view (qualitative), were employed with different sets of data collection and analysis tools that provided unique descriptions of the same phenomena (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Additionally, in the embedded concurrent design of this study, the quantitative data collection and analysis received greater emphasis and the unique design structure allowed for a separate, yet triangulated analysis of the data through an alternate means of collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010).

The strength of using a nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods design in this study was the premise that a single data set would not have been sufficient to answer the research question; therefore, this design would potentially mitigate many of the threats to internal validity (e.g., history, maturation, testing) that typically would relate to the purely quantitative pretest–posttest design described by Campbell and Stanley (1963). Additional strengths of the mixed-methods design in this study were that it would mitigate concerns regarding participation rates from a small population and from the nature of the CTSDP-BDE as a contracted program, which would allow funding agencies an opportunity to focus on either set of data that the researcher would develop (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010). Challenges in this embedded design were the data analysis of the two sets of emerging qualitative data, confounding variables (e.g.,
individual experience, time [maturation], and experience level of participants), and mitigating the potential of researcher treatment bias during course observations.

Research Questions

In this mixed-methods study, the primary research question was, “Can formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles”?

Quantitative Research Questions

With the guiding overall research question, the following quantitative null hypothesis and subquestions were used in the quantitative portion of this study:

$H_0$: No statistically significant relationship exists between formal educational programs and life effectiveness for military spouse participants as measured and defined by the 14 scales of the ROPELOC instrument.

Subquestions related to $H_0$:

1. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to following scales: SC, SF, SM, OT, SE, CT, OE, and LA).

2. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant organizational skills? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to following scales: TE, QS, and CH).

3. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE promotes participant AI? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to the active involvement scale).

4. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in the participant’s measure of LOC? If so, what is the nature of it? (Question pertains to IL and EL).
Qualitative Research Questions

Combining the overarching research question and researcher observations, the researcher explored the following qualitative question: What aspects of the CTSDP-BDE formal educational program do participants perceive influenced life effectiveness and their informal leadership roles?

Pilot Study

In this research, the pilot study was conducted in order to refine and adjust the quantitative survey and to gather insight on what types of interview questions the participants might respond to in follow-up interview sessions upon completing the CTSDP-BDE program. Although significant changes were made to demographic questions, survey e-mail requests and qualitative interview questions, no changes were made to the ROPELOC survey because of the pilot study.

Survey Pilot Study

Piloting the online survey in this study provided much needed insight to the validity of the online survey and demographic questions. In accordance with U.S. Army Command and General Staff College (CGSC) Quality Assurance Office (QAO) procedures, a total of 22 e-mails that explained the study, instructions for participation, and the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality were sent to two separate groups of participants in March and April of 2013. The Inquisitë™ software program tracked nonresponses and sent out necessary e-mail reminders to participants for both the pretest and posttest. Of the 22 participants, 16 participants responded to the pretest survey and eight of those 16 participants responded to the posttest survey for a total population of \( n=8 \). The number of participants in the pilot study was limited and the nature of the identities of command team spouse participants was sensitive; therefore, limited
demographic information is provided. Of eight participants, all of the participants were female (100%), six participants were listed as Caucasian/White (75%), one participant was listed as Hispanic/Latino (12.5%), and one participant was listed as “other” (12.5%) with no further response.

The initial feedback from participants regarding the survey suggested that the original e-mail sent to the participants should provide more in-depth explanation of the study itself. After further research using Dillman, Smyth, and Christian’s (2009) survey methods and techniques, the language that was used in the e-mail correspondence changed in an effort to be more inclusive and to increase participation. One such change included identifying the researcher in advance as a military spouse because the sense of helping a fellow military spouse in research appeared to result in higher participation rates in the survey. Additionally, the timing of the initial e-mail requests changed to an earlier day and time in an effort to reach participants before they travelled to the CTSDP-BDE course.

Feedback regarding the online survey from peer reviewers and professional colleagues in the CTSDP-BDE program indicated that several of the initial demographic questions were vague and needed further detail to correctly analyze experiences of the sample population of command team spouses. Therefore, several changes were made to the demographic questions regarding the participant’s military experiences, educational levels, and occupational statuses. No changes were made to the demographic questions that related to gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, or number of children living at home. Additionally, no changes were made to the actual ROPELOC because the validity of the instrument would have been compromised.
**Focus Group for Interview Questions**

Using qualitative data from research observations the researcher tentatively developed several interview questions (noted in the qualitative instrumentation section) regarding which aspects of the CTSDP-BDE program had influenced life effectiveness for the participants who assume informal leadership roles in the command team environment. Two separate focus groups of approximately 22 participants total in March and April 2013 were e-mailed qualitative interview questions and asked for suggestions and feedback. Response rates to this inquiry were low (7), but overall feedback was positive. Most participants believed that the interview questions were specific and relevant to the CTSDP-BDE course. Two participants suggested that the questions be changed to reflect the individual experience more than the course itself. Therefore, the interview questions used in this study reflect the changes that were suggested by the pilot study participants and focus specifically on the participants’ perceptions, experiences, and opinions regarding the command team spousal role and spousal education in the U.S. Army, including the CTSDP-BDE program.

**Protection of Human Rights**

The application to conduct the research at the U.S. Army CGSC, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, was approved by the CGSC QAO on March 14, 2013, and was assigned the Research Control Number 13-10-059. The KSU Institutional Review Board approved the Application for Approval (Appendix B) to conduct the research on March 14, 2013 and assigned it tracking number 6534. The SCP approved the request to conduct research on December 10, 2012.

The participants were provided full, KSU informed consent statements (Appendix D) advising them of their rights, which they acknowledged and “e-signed” by agreeing to
participate in the online survey. The participants who participated in the interviews were again provided statements advising them of their rights. All of the data, records, and field notes remained safeguarded to prevent public disclosure of the survey and interview responses.

As an administrator in the CTSDP-BDE program, the researcher has access to both the data and participants. The Institutional Review Boards from both KSU and the CGSC approved the CTSDP-BDE research design and protocol, as evidenced by the KSU approval letter (Appendix B) and the CGSC approval memorandum, Memorandum of Agreement, and Researcher Responsibilities (Appendix C). Additionally, in an effort to maintain confidentiality and anonymity in a quantitative data collection, the CGSC QAO disseminated, collected, and stored all of the data from the online survey.

**Population and Sample**

The military spouse participants attending the CTSDP-BDE program were the target population for the study. The total population of command team spouses at the brigade level is unknown because the U.S. Army no longer tracks spousal involvement in OERs and because involvement in spousal educational programs (e.g., the CTSDP-BDE) remains voluntary. Therefore, the generalized population for this study is estimated using the number of the participants who attended the CTSDP-BDE from its inception in 2010 until September 2013 when this study was concluded (\(N=463\)). Annually, an average of 110 participants attends the CTSDP-BDE; therefore, the researcher allocated a predetermined 7-month period for data collection to provide a sufficient sample size for both the quantitative and qualitative measures in this study.
Quantitative Population and Sample

The military spouse participants who attended the CTSDP-BDE during March 2013 and September 2013 make up the nonrandom convenience sample size ($n=40$) in the quantitative portion of this study. Initially, 81 participants attended the program between March and September 2013. All 81 of the participants received e-mails prior to attending the CTSDP-BDE program (pretest) and received follow up e-mail invitations (posttest) on completing the weeklong program. Subsequent reminders were sent out automatically using Inquisitë™ software program that tracked participant completion in the online survey. Of the 81 total participants, 52 participants completed the pretest and 40 participants completed the posttest. Unmatched responses from the pretests were omitted in this study, providing a total of 40 matched pairs (pretest and posttest) for survey analysis and yielding a participation rate of 49% for the online instrument.

Although the survey responses from March and April remain purposeful in this study, the participant demographics from March and April ($n=8$) were omitted in the final analysis because changes were made to the demographic survey questions for May through September. Significant changes were made to the demographic questions relating to educational level, military background, and employment history; therefore a total sample ($n=32$) was used to report demographics for analysis in Chapter 4.

Qualitative Population and Sample

The sampling methods for the qualitative measures in this study included a convenience-criterion sample of CTSDP-BDE participants in attendance from March 2013 to September 2013. The researcher’s observations during the CTSDP-BDE program identified 26 participants who met the preset criteria for the qualitative follow-up interviews. The criteria for participation included the willingness to participate in the
study and the length of time from the completion of the CTSDP-BDE program to the command role (because of the time constraints determined by the researcher, this period was limited to no more than 3 months). Combined with the course observations the researcher gained access to the eligible participants’ e-mail addresses through the SCP. Twenty-six e-mail invitations were sent to the prospective participants requesting follow up interviews. Of the 26 e-mails, five e-mails were returned (no longer in use); therefore, the total number of eligible participants for the qualitative interviews fell to 21. Of the 21 eligible participants, 10 participants completed the follow up interviews.

The nature of this research surrounding command team spouses was sensitive and the researcher was concerned to maintain participants’ anonymity; therefore, limited demographic data was collected for the qualitative interviews. Of the ten interviews, all of the participants were female; six participants were officer spouses (rank of colonel); and four participants were enlisted spouses (rank of command sergeant major).

**Instrumentation**

The theoretical frameworks in this study included the SCT, the theory of life effectiveness, and the SRT. Therefore, as Pajares (2002) recommended, the instrumentation was chosen to help explain how the CTSDP-BDE program could influence spousal roles “through their individual and self-reflective processes in human adaptation and change” (para. 2). Although the ROPELOC is an instrument often found in research that involves adolescent, adventure educational programs it also has demonstrated effectiveness in adult educational settings, for literature supports the concept that it was designed to measure specific variables of life effectiveness found across the life span.
Quantitative Instruments

The ROPELOC instrument is a 45-item questionnaire using an 8-point scale that is designed to be a multidimensional tool to measure personal life effectiveness and LOC after participation in an experience program. Using Inquisit™ software the researcher developed an online survey that combined demographic questions and the 45-item ROPELOC questionnaire. Demographic questions were asked in the pretest to better understand the make-up of the research participants and to identify common themes and patterns of responses that would relate to gender, age, ethnicity, marital status (number of years), number of children living at home, educational level, employment status, and military background or experience. The instrument for this study consisted of 14 scales that were divided into four subquestions:

1. *Personal and social abilities and beliefs*: SC, SF, SM, OT, SE, CT, OE, and LA.
2. *Organizational skills*: TE, QS, and CH.
3. *Active involvement*: AI.
4. *Change in participant locus of control*: IL, measures a person’s tendency to take responsibility for his/her actions, and EL, measures a person’s perspective that external controls determine their actions.

Using Cronbach’s alpha the internal validity of these 14 subscales ranged from .79 to .93 with a mean of .85 and an overall alpha of .96 for the first trial sample that used adolescents in adventure programs \((n=1,250)\). The second trial \((n=1,475)\) had internal reliability that ranged from .71 to .90 with a mean of .83 for younger students Ages 11–13, and from .73 to .91 with a mean of .84 for older students Ages 14–16 (Richards et al., 2002). The exploratory factor analysis in the first trial sample produced average factor loadings ranging from .65 to .86 with an overall average of .75. In addition, a
confirmatory factor analysis of this first trial resulted in a goodness of fit index (GFI) of .925. The second trial had an average factor loading of .67 to .90 with a goodness of fit index of .94 (GFI) and .92 Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). In addition, the TLI for the LOC scales alone resulted in an average of .97 (Richards et al., 2002). Therefore, the ROPELOC instrument proved to have strong validity and reliability in Richard’s (2002) studies; however, the threats to internal validity remained in this researcher’s study that would explore the CTSDP-BDE and informal leadership roles assumed by command team spouses because (a) exposure to the pretest might influence performance on the posttest (testing threat), and (b) events other than the course might influence the results (history and maturation; Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Although Richards et al. (2002) had originally designed the ROPELOC instrument to measure outcomes related to life effectiveness for adolescent, adventure, experiential learning programs (Culhane, 2004; Ellis et al., 2009; Imholt, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Luo, 2011; Merrell, 2009; Ulkins, 2007), additional researchers who studied university students (Sariolghalam, & Noruzi, 2010), nursing facilities (Weitz, 2010), and rural women leaders (Sylvia et al., 2010), all of whom were adult students, have successfully used the ROPELOC instrument in their studies. The common factors in all of the aforementioned studies was the use of a pretest–posttest design; however, only one identifiable research project used a modified version of the ROPELOC instrument to study the determining characteristics of adult women leaders in rural communities. Sylvia et al. (2010) used a mixed-methods design to implement two separate interview activities (with 30 participants) to explore key domains related to rural women leaders, which then shaped the development of the final, modified ROPELOC survey that was given to 133 respondents. Sylvia found six themes (lifelong learning, bias and discrimination, self-
efficacy and overcoming barriers, community influence and social capital, leadership mentors, and expression of leadership) as important factors in determining leadership development of women in rural areas, which could then be used to foster leadership development in young women through primary and secondary schools, 4-H, and other community organizations (p. 26). Although the limitations of Sylvia et al.’s (2010) study included a small sample size from the rural Midwest, limited generalizability, and a variation of the ROPELOC instrument that compromised the validity of the measure, the overall outcome remained relevant to this researcher’s study involving brigade-level command team spouses because it demonstrated a needs assessment of how the ROPELOC could be used to determine LDPs. Contrary to the approach that Sylvia et al. (2010) used with rural women leaders, this researcher’s study proposed to use the ROPELOC in a pretest–posttest design to measure the evaluation outcomes of life effectiveness for participants in the CTSDP-BDE program, which is a formal educational program for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles in U.S. Army communities.

**Qualitative Instruments**

The qualitative measures used in this study are two-fold. First, the subjective researcher observations during each week of the CTSDP-BDE program allowed the researcher to identify common themes among the groups. Additionally, the observations that took place during the CTSDP-BDE allowed the researcher to identify the participants who met preset criteria to participate in the follow-up interview sessions. The criteria for participation included the willingness to participate in the study and the length of time from completion of the CTSDP-BDE program to assuming the command role (because the time constraints determined by the researcher, this period was limited to no more than
The participants who met the specific criteria regarding when they would enter the command team spousal role were then interviewed, using the following open-ended interview questions:

1. What prior experiences in your life prepared you for this informal leadership role as a brigade spouse and do they relate to the information you learned in the CTSDP-BDE program?

2. Can you identify one example from your leadership role that you found most beneficial from your participation in the CTSDP-BDE program?

3. Given your experiences as a current brigade spouse, are there things that you are now confronting in your role that were not covered in the course that could have better prepared you? Are there content areas you believe should be incorporated into the program?

4. Have you attended any other educational or training programs related to your role as a command team spouse at different levels of command? If yes, can you talk about those programs and your experiences?

5. What is your opinion about how the U.S. Army currently prepares spouses for their roles at each level of commands?

Each question was specifically crafted to connect ROPELOC subquestions to the qualitative data, which would in essence help to explain how the course might or might not influence informal leadership roles. For example, Question 2 asked participants an open-ended question by which the researcher intended to look for connections to individual ROPELOC scales. Question 3 potentially provided some indication or information regarding one’s LOC in a given informal leadership situation, and Question 4
provided an in depth understanding of how other experiences might have affected outcomes because of attending the CTSDP-BDE.

Data Collection and Procedures

The researcher had set predetermined time constraints; therefore, the course length and frequency data collection for this study was conducted over the course of a 7-month period. The long-term nature of the command role and length of the CTSDP-BDE program might potentially make it difficult to measure the immediate results or to complete a full evaluation of the process. Therefore, this study intended to explore the effects of the CTSDP-BDE program on participant life effectiveness as command team spouses by collecting data over a prolonged period. Additionally, the qualitative data were collected concurrently through course observations and sequentially through oral interviews after 3 months of completing the CTSDP-BDE program.

Quantitative Procedures

The CGSC QAO acted as the gateway for developing and delivering the ROPELOC through an online survey format using Inquisite™ software. Inquisite™ is the preferred survey instrument used at CGSC and includes survey notification, participant acknowledgments through e-signing, easy navigation through survey forms, and follow-up message reminders. In accordance with the CGSC IRB and QAO guidelines, recruitment and reminder e-mails for the online survey were distributed and governed by the CGSC QAO. Initial e-mails were sent to the participants on March 15, 2013, and subsequent reminder and recruitment e-mails were continued over the course of the next 7 months for each group. In these e-mails, the participants were asked to respond to the pretest before attending the CTSDP-BDE course. The participants received another electronic request to complete the posttest survey directly following completion of the
CTSDP-BDE program and they received subsequent reminders for up to 2 weeks after the course. Participation in the study was voluntary and the Inquisite™ software program ensured anonymity by not attaching participant information to any responses. All of the collected quantitative data is currently archived at CGSC QAO, separately from the qualitative data, in an effort to maintain increased confidentiality for the participants.

**Qualitative Procedures**

Using multiple methods and triangulation is important in qualitative research when attempting to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of the study. This strategy adds rigor and depth to the study, while providing validating evidence of the data obtained. The qualitative data collection in this study was completed in two separate phases, serving multiple purposes. In Phase I, researcher observations during the CTSDP-BDE allowed the researcher (a) to document group dynamics, participant reactions, and classroom environment; and (b) to identify course participants who met criteria for qualitative interview (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010). The observation protocol over the 7-month period consisted of researcher’s observations during the 5-day course on (a) Day 1 (introductions, highlighting of concerns, and identification of attributes in an exemplary command spouse) and (b) Day 3 (revisiting concerns and highlighting “tips for the road” exercise). The protocol for the observations was that the researcher was required (a) to be physically present (yet not disruptive) in the classroom setting; (b) to introduce why research was occurring; (c) to assure the participants that observations were for the researcher’s use only and not for publication or dissemination; (d) to participate in discussion only when asked; and to use field notes on site and to record extensive field notes and experiences afterward. Consequently, field notes from
course observations were used to identify common themes from each of the 7 months of data collection to compare against themes found in the qualitative interview analysis.

In Phase II, one-on-one interviews took place by telephone with the participants who met the research criteria. According to Creswell (2007), the interview process is a fundamental tool in qualitative research because it helps the researcher to understand the world from the subject’s point of view. The criteria for participation in interviews included the willingness to participate and the length of time before entering the command role. The last criterion was especially important because many of the participants attended the program up to 1 year before actually entering the command environment. The amount of time for data collection was limited; therefore, it was vital that the participants have already been in the role or be entering the role soon after completing the CTSDP-BDE. Therefore, interviews took place with participants who had been in the role anywhere from 2 to 4 months.

The initial recruitment for the interviews occurred through e-mail after the completion of the CTSDP-BDE. Once the participants had consented to participating in the interviews, a convenient time and date was set to conduct telephonic interviews. Prior to conducting the interviews, the participants received by e-mail (a) consent forms, (b) an overview of CTSDP-BDE course components (Appendix E), (c) reminder e-mails 2–3 days before to help explain the purpose of the study and their rights as participants, and (d) contact information for both the KSU and CGSC IRB offices. If participants had questions, the telephone or e-mail was used to clarify the details before the interviews took place. The interviews were audio-recorded, using online application software on the researcher’s iPad and lasted from 15–25 minutes.
Using a phenomenological approach, the interview protocol consisted of moderately structured interview questions with probing questions as needed for clarity and detail (Creswell, 2007). This method allowed the researcher to begin with a broad set of questions and to probe for additional information in a more spontaneous manner. If the respondents needed help to remember the course instruction details, prompts (Hogan Assessment, conflict resolution, etc.) from the previously e-mailed course overview were used to jog the participant’s memory further to deepen the responses of the question and to increase the richness and depth of responses. The role of the researcher in this study involved listening, reporting, interpreting, and participating in the interview process (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, participants were given the freedom to discuss the proposed topics openly and without interruption.

Upon completing the interview, all of the recordings were transcribed, using ExpressScribe™ software, and were returned to the participants for member checking to maintain accuracy. To protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, no locations or military unit specific data were kept in the transcriptions, and pseudonyms were used in place of real names. All recorded audio and transcribed interviews will be stored in a secure (nonpublic) location for up to 3 years.

**Data Analysis and Procedures**

In this nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods study, data analysis consisted of two separate, yet concurrent phases to interpret and validate both quantitative and qualitative data. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), this type of analysis is befitting the “parallel mixed-data analysis” (p. 266) of two separate processes. In Phase I of the analysis, the researcher used quantitative data with descriptive and inferential statistics to identify the appropriate variables as defined by the
ROPELOC instrument. In Phase II, the researcher used qualitative data with the analysis of themes drawn from researcher observations and participant interviews. Although the two sets of analyses are independent, each provided an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation in this study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

**Quantitative Analysis and Procedures**

Prior to the analysis of the quantitative data, the survey results were first organized and cleaned appropriately because several of the ROPELOC survey answers were found to be inversely related. That is, certain responses on the ROPELOC instrument related a higher response to a positive answer and a lower response to a negative answer. In a handful of the questions, the responses were found to be the opposite, meaning that a higher response would infer a negative answer and a lower response would infer a positive answer. Richards et al. (2002) initially developed the survey questions in this manner for two reasons: (a) to establish the responses as psychometric controls to maintain validity and reliability, and (b) to establish a “built-in Control Scale, which helps to determine whether changes reported in the other scales are due to program effects or simply due to retesting on the same instrument” (p. 2).

Once the data were properly organized and cleaned, the analysis of the data included a combination of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 21.0 software and Microsoft (MS) Excel. The descriptive data were collected and combined from all eligible pretest and posttest scores in MS Excel, and scores that did not match by participant identification codes were eliminated for statistical analysis, yielding a total of \( n=40 \) combined surveys. Then Wilcoxon’s Matched Pairs Signed Rank (Wilcoxon) tests were used to analyze the matched pairs, and Chi-Squared goodness of fit tests and Fisher Exact tests were used to measure the impact of demographic variables against statistically
significant factors from the ROPELOC survey. The level of significance for all statistical tests was alpha = .05 to decrease the probability of type 1 error.

First, the descriptive statistics were used to describe all of the demographic information from the population and the categorical variables of each were reported using percentiles. Second, the descriptive statistics were used to test the data for normality. The underlying data were found to be nonnormal, therefore nonparametric statistics (Wilcoxon test, Chi-Square tests, and Fisher Exact tests) were used to facilitate inferences about the impact of the CTSDP-BDE program on command team spouses. The selection of statistics was based on the recommendations by the committee members and the practices of other researchers (e.g., Naidoo, 2000 and Matthes-Loy, 2011)

In this pretest–posttest design, the researcher explored whether a systematic difference existed between the scores in the first treatment condition (pre-CTSDP-BDE) and the scores in the second treatment condition (post-CTSDP-BDE) to answer the initial hypothesis and subquestions relating to the ROPELOC instrument. Therefore, mean differences (posttest and pretest) were calculated and combined scores were developed in Excel format for further analysis using nonparametric tests.

In this study, a nonparametric Wilcoxon test was used to analyze composite scores from the pretest–posttest data. According to Field (2011), a Wilcoxon test is used when comparing two related samples, matched samples, or repeated measurements on a single sample, but is employed over the paired samples t test when the sample population cannot be assumed to be normally distributed. Additionally, Field (2011) states the Wilcoxon test is “used in situations in which there are two sets of scores to compare, but these scores come from the same participants,” as is the case in this study (p. 552). The Wilcoxon test is used to evaluate the magnitude of difference between matched pairs and
groups, in addition to determining the direction of difference between matched pairs. Using Wilcoxon’s test, the participant responses that did not change were ignored, while the frequencies of responses that did change were tabulated for both positive change and negative change.

In this research, the Wilcoxon test was used to address whether the CTSDP-BDE program increased participant responses, depending on the 14 ROPELOC factors. The test determined whether a significant change in participant response existed after attending the CTSDP-BDE program. Additionally, the researcher used this test the following null hypothesis and subquestions:

- $H_0$: No statistically significant relationship exists between formal educational programs and life effectiveness for military spouse participants as measured and defined by the 14 scales of the ROPELOC instrument.

1. Does statistical evidence exist that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs? If so, what is the nature of it?

2. Does statistical evidence exist that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant organizational skills for the participants’ informal leadership role? If so, what is the nature of it?

3. Does statistical evidence exist that the CTSDP-BDE promotes AI in a participant’s informal leadership role? If so, what is the nature of it?

4. Does statistical significant evidence exist that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in the participant’s measure of LOC? If so, what is the nature of it?

Upon completion of the Wilcoxon test, Chi-Square and subsequent Fisher’s Exact tests were conducted to determine whether the positive and negative responses from each subquestion were affected by the categorical demographic variables. According to Field
(2011), a major weakness in the Chi-Square analysis is the need for an approximate sampling distribution, which is difficult in smaller sample sizes. Additionally, two assumptions are present when using a Chi-Square analysis: (a) each cell must contribute to only one cell of the contingency table; therefore, it cannot be used in a repeated-measures design; and (b) expected frequencies should be greater than 5 for each cell to determine a statistical significance (Field, 2011, p. 691–692). In this study, the overwhelming majority of cases that used the Chi-Square analysis were found to be insufficient; therefore, results were reported using the Fisher’s Exact test for significance. If the test was found to be significant, the participant responses moved in the direction of the more positive or negative response type. The findings and interpretation of the results will follow in Chapters 4 and 5.

**Qualitative Analysis and Procedures**

The qualitative data analysis included the following steps: transcription, member checking, independent coding, peer review, and reflection. The reflection included constant comparison of observational data, field notes of the classroom environment, and the qualitative answers from the interviews and online survey comments. Using a somewhat systematic approach in this analysis helped to focus the researcher’s reflection and refinement of the emerging themes. This process allowed for triangulation of data to improve the accuracy and to reduce researcher bias.

**Data transcription and member checking.** Upon completing the participant interviews, the recorded data were transferred from the researcher's iPad voice recorder application to a metafile on the researcher’s Apple computer. Using ExpressScribe™ software the data were transcribed verbatim and was formatted into MS Word documents. To protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, no specific
locations or specific military unit data was used and pseudonyms were used in place of names. Following the completion of the transcription, the participants received MS Word documents for member checking. Two of 10 participants opted to make changes or revisions that more clearly reflected their viewpoints and one participant did not respond to the e-mail request for accuracy checking. Upon making changes, seven of 10 participants responded positively that the transcripts met their expectations. In sum, the observation field notes yielded 42 pages (12-point font) of typed data and the interviews yielded 115 pages of transcription data.

**Coding and analysis.** The analysis and coding of both observational data and interview data was conducted separately in this study, but were then later reviewed for the final interpretation and results of the thematic analysis. The observational data included the researcher’s field notes and reflections of classroom experiences. A reduction process was used to analyze the observational data and field notes, which, according to Bloomberg and Volpe (2012), included “questioning the data, identifying and noting common patterns in the data, creating codes that describe your data patterns, and assigning these coded pieces of information to the categories of your conceptual framework” (p. 142). Additionally, the observational data provided insight into the development of the qualitative interview questions and the identification of the participants who met the preset criteria for participating in the follow-up interviews. Overall, using the analysis of the observational data, the researcher identified the themes in the curriculum that continued from month to month, regarding the participants’ experiences, concerns, and focus surrounding the informal leadership role that they had assumed as command team spouses.
The analysis and coding of the qualitative data from the interview questions was completed using a phenomenological approach, by which the researcher recognized the value of the description of the unique individual experiences and provided a foundation for defining and interpreting those descriptions (Creswell, 2007). To add rigor to the analysis and credibility to the themes, a triangulation of methods was used: (a) an independent coder analysis, (b) an inter-rater reliability checks with professional colleagues, and (c) a peer review to check for accuracy of themes.

To develop a cohesive story line for an interpretation of the results, the researcher observations and reflections of the classroom experiences helped to develop a preset list of codes to begin an analysis. Subsequently, the analysis of collected interview data was completed independently using an inductive analysis procedure by constantly revising and comparing themes across the data, which allowed descriptors to emerge (Merriam, 2009). According to Bloomberg and Volpe (2012), coding is the process of “noting what is of interest or significance, identifying different segments of the data, and labeling them to organize the information contained in the data” (p. 142). During the coding process, according to Bloomberg and Volpe’s (2012) recommendation, the terms were then marked and identified, using in vivo labels, which were “terms based on the actual language of participants” (p. 143). Once the coding was completed, a coding guide (Appendix F) was developed and supplied to two peer reviewers to check for accuracy. The peer reviewers were identified and asked to help, based on their experiences in qualitative research and their lack of experience with military spouse education and environments. Their lack of experience with spousal educational programs was ideal in this situation to mitigate researcher bias in analysis and to provide an outside perspective.
Feedback from outside reviewers revealed minor personal differences in coding; however, no major changes were suggested.

**Summary**

In this chapter, the researcher addressed the methodology of mixed-methods inquiry used in this nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods study by which the researcher explored whether the CTSDP-BDE program influences life effectiveness for military spousal participants who assume informal leadership roles in a command team role. This type of design provided a holistic view of the research problem and an evaluation of the CTSDP-BDE formal educational program for informal leaders. The quantitative data and qualitative data were collected concurrently, but analyzed separately, answering two independent research questions that described the same phenomenon.
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of a formal education and LDP (i.e., CTSDP-BDE) given to spouses of senior military service members (command team spouses) in preparation for brigade-level command team roles and environments. The analysis and findings in this chapter provide the findings from the quantitative survey of the participants in the CTSDP-BDE ($n=40$) and the qualitative interviews of ($n=10$) criterion selected participants by which the researcher sought to answer the primary research question:

- Can formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles?

Quantitative Survey Findings

Using the quantitative results in this chapter, the researcher describes the survey response rate, the demographic characteristics of the participants, and the analysis using nonparametric statistics (Wilcoxon test, and Chi Square and Fisher Exact tests) to facilitate the inferences about the impact of the CTSDP-BDE program on command team spouses. Overall, the analysis and findings in this chapter help the researcher to answer the primary quantitative null hypothesis and subquestions:

- $H_0$: No statistically significant relationship exists between formal educational programs and life effectiveness for military spouse participants as measured and defined by the 14 scales of the ROPELOC instrument.

Subquestions related to $H_0$:

1. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs? If so, what is the nature of it?
2. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant organizational skills? If so, what is the nature of it?

3. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE promotes participant AI? If so, what is the nature of it?

4. Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in the participant’s measure of LOC? If so, what is the nature of it?

Survey Response Rate

In this study, 81 participants attended the CTSDP-BDE program between March and September 2013. All of the 81 participants received e-mail invitations to participate in this study prior to attending the CTSDP-BDE program (pretest) and e-mail requests (posttest) upon completion of the weeklong program. It is important to note that the ROPELOC survey instrument did not change because of the pilot study in March and April; therefore, the pilot study data \((n=8)\) remains purposeful in the analysis of the survey data. Of the 81 participants, 52 participants completed the pretest and 40 participants completed the posttest. The unmatched responses from the pretests were omitted in this study, providing a total of 40 matched pairs (pretest and posttest) for the survey analysis, yielding a participation rate of 49% for the online instrument.

Demographics

Descriptive statistics were used to describe all of the demographic information from the population, and the categorical variables of each are reported using percentiles. The participant demographics from the pilot study in March and April \((n=8)\) were omitted from the final analysis in this study because changes were made to the demographic questions in the surveys for May through September. Significant changes
were made to the demographic questions that related to educational level, military background, and employment history; therefore, a total sample ($n=32$) was used to report the total demographics for analysis purposes. Furthermore, the small sample of response rates among the demographic categories supported the need for condensed categories in the analysis. Therefore, the demographics that are reported in Table 1 reflect both the smaller sample size ($n=32$) and the condensed categories used for the final analysis.

The majority of the participants were female (31), with one male participant. The majority (30) of the participants responded that they were age 40 and above (93%) and the minority (2) responded that they were age 40 and below (7%). Twenty-one participants listed their ethnicity as white/caucasian (65%), one participant listed him- or herself as hispanic/latino (3%), five participants listed themselves as african american (16%), one participant listed him- or herself as multiracial (3%), and four participants listed themselves as “other” or “prefer not to answer” (13%). Twenty-five participants listed their length of marriage as exceeding 16 years or more (78%) and seven participants listed 0–15 years of marriage (22%). When asked how many children each respondent had at home, the number ranged from none to four children. Six participants listed three or more children still living at home (19%), 20 participants listed one to two children at home (62%), and six participants listed that they had no children at home (19%).
Table 1

Command Team Spouse Survey Demographic Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic information</th>
<th>N=32</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>96.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>3.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hispanic/Latino</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
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<td>African American</td>
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<td>15.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
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<td>65.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/Prefer not to answer</td>
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<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>39 years or younger</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 and older</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>93.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate’s degree or less</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree or higher</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military background</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Active duty or veteran</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government civilian or contractor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military volunteer</td>
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<td>65.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of marriage</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0–15 years</td>
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<td>21.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 or more</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>78.125</td>
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<td>Work and employment status</td>
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<td>Work full time or less</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay-at-home parent</td>
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<td>Volunteer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of children at home</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 or more</td>
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<td>18.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 or less</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No children</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Demographic reported for May through September. Demographic reported are condensed versions used for analysis. Due to best practices implemented by the CGSC QAO, data certain methodological conventions had to be modified during data collection and analysis.
Demographic for educational level varied; therefore, this section was significantly condensed for analysis. Fifteen participants responded that they had at least an associate’s degree (47%) and 17 participants responded they had a bachelor’s degree or higher (53%). Regarding military background and experience, three participants responded they were retired military or veterans (9%), eight participants responded that they had worked with the military in a civilian or contractor position (25%), and 21 participants responded that they had served as a military volunteer (66%).

When asked about current work or employment status, 17 participants responded that they worked full time or less (54%), seven participants responded they were stay-at-home mothers (22%), six participants responded that they had spent volunteer time performing services (19%), and two participants responded that they were students (5%).

**Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Rank Tests**

In a Wilcoxon test the absolute value of the differences between observations are ranked from smallest to largest, with the smallest difference getting a rank of 1, then next larger difference getting a rank of 2, and so on. Ties are given average ranks. Then, the ranks of all the differences in one direction are summed and the ranks of all the differences in the other direction are summed. The smaller of the two sums is the test statistic, $Z$. Unlike most test statistics, smaller values of $Z$ are less likely under the null hypothesis. First, to run the Wilcoxon test a new variable showing the difference (mean) between the pre-observations and post-observations among all 40 participants was created for both individual scale differences and overall subquestions. Then, all were analyzed using the Wilcoxon test in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Therefore, the results for both individual scale differences and subquestions are reported
The results for the Wilcoxon test by individual ROPELOC scales are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Rank Test by Individual ROPELOC Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SQ# ***</th>
<th>ROPELOC Scales</th>
<th>Z statistic</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Number of (D ≠ 0) **</th>
<th>Significant at 5% level p≤.05 *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SC</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>0.03252</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SF</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>0.005075</td>
<td>28</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>0.0006164</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>OT</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>0.05286</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>372.5</td>
<td>0.00702</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>CT</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>0.0001908</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>OE</td>
<td>353.5</td>
<td>0.001587</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>LA</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.01019</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>TE</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>0.09995</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>QS</td>
<td>306.5</td>
<td>0.008888</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CH</td>
<td>413.5</td>
<td>0.0005772</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>AI</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>0.2203</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td>205.5</td>
<td>0.05608</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>302.5</td>
<td>0.3499</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Reported scales include self-confidence (SC), self-efficacy (SF), stress management (SM), open thinking (OT), social effectiveness (SE), cooperative teamwork (CT), leadership ability (LA), overall effectiveness (OE), time efficiency (TE), quality seeking (QS), coping with change (CH), active involvement (AI), internal locus of control (IL), external locus of control (EL).

*Significant at 5% level of significance: if P-value ≤ 0.05, we reject H₀ and accept Hₐ.

**Number of (D ≠ 0) signifies the number of responses used in analysis where differences did not equal zero.

***SQ number signifies subquestion number used in analysis.

The CTSDP-BDE program showed a statistically significant increase for command team spouses in the variables Self-Confidence (SC) z=230, p<.05; Self-Efficacy (SF) z=315, p<.05; Stress Management (SM) z=436, p<.05; Social Effectiveness (SE) z=372.5, p<.05; Cooperative Teamwork (CT) z=358, p<.05; Overall Effectiveness
(OE) $z=353.5$, $p<.05$; Leadership Ability (LA) $z=231$, $p<.05$; Quality Seeking (QS) $z=306.5$, $p<.05$; and Coping with Change (CH) $z=413.5$, $p<.05$. However, no change occurred for Open Thinking (OT) $z=222$, $p<.05$; Time Efficiency (TE) $z=242$, $p<.05$; Active Involvement (AI) $z=270$, $p<.05$; Internal Locus of Control (IL) $z=205.5$, $p<.05$; or External Locus of Control (EL) $z=302.5$, $p<.05$.

Although individual scores are reported, the final analysis was completed using subquestions that combined ROPELOC scales by (a) participant social and personal beliefs, (b) organizational skills, (c) AI, and (d) measures of LOC. According to Field (2011), using the Wilcoxon test in this manner comes with an assumption that the distribution of differences between the values within each pair $(x, y)$ must be symmetrical and that the median difference must be identical to the mean difference. Members of a pair are assumed to have identical distributions; therefore, their differences (under $H_0$) should always have a symmetrical distribution; therefore, this assumption is not very restrictive. In this study, the assumption is correct because mean and median differences are mostly symmetrical in each subquestion (SQ1 $m=.31$, $md=.31$; SQ2 $m=.28$, $md=.26$; SQ3 $m=.09$, $md=.0$; SQ4 $m=.08$, $md=.08$). The results for the Wilcoxon test by subquestion are reported in Table 3 and a further interpretation of each subquestion and scale is provided afterward.

In this study, SQ1 was, “Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs? If so, what is the nature of it?” The results from the command team spouse responses, using the combined scales of SC, SF, SM, OT, SE, CT, OE, and LA, suggest that attending the CTSDP-BDE program statistically increased participant perceptions of their personal and social abilities and beliefs $z=611$, $p<.05$. Results from this finding were not surprising because
the literature surrounding the CTSDP-BDE suggested that much of the curriculum potentially influences outcomes related to participant personal and social abilities and beliefs regarding their informal leadership roles as command team spouses (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d). Although the results were positive, a further interpretation of the individual scales is necessary for clarification and an understanding of the outcome.

Table 3

Results of Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Rank Test by Subquestion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subquestion</th>
<th>Z statistic</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Number of (D≠0)</th>
<th>Significant at 5% level p≤.05 *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SQ1</td>
<td>611.0</td>
<td>6.43E-06</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ2</td>
<td>461.5</td>
<td>0.002589</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Yes*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ3</td>
<td>270.0</td>
<td>0.2203</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ4</td>
<td>372.0</td>
<td>0.2721</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. SQ1 reporting results for combined scales self-confidence (SC), self-efficacy (SF), stress management (SM), open thinking (OT), social effectiveness (SE), cooperative teamwork (CT), overall effectiveness (OE), leadership ability (LA); SQ2 reporting results for combined scales time efficiency (TE), quality seeking (QS), coping with change (CH); SQ3 reporting results for scale active involvement (AI); SQ4 reporting results for combined scales internal locus of control (IL) and external locus of control (EL).

*Significant at 5% level of significance: if P-value ≤ 0.05, we reject H₀ and accept Hₐ. Number of (D≠0) signifies number of responses (out of n=40) used in analysis where differences did not equal zero.

When the individual ROPELOC scales in SQ1 were analyzed separately, the majority showed a statistically significant increase in participant personal and social abilities and beliefs. For example, Self-confidence (SC) z=230, p<.05 produced a statistically significant response that indicates that command team spouse participants reported increased perceptions in their abilities to put forth more effort into the command team role because of completing the CTSDP-BDE program. Additionally, the participants reported an increase in Self-Efficacy (SF) z=315, p<.05 because of attending the program, which indicates a positive increase in individual perceptions that they could
handle the role of being a command team spouse regardless of the challenges. In addition, participants reported an increase in the Stress Management (SM) \( z=436, p<.05 \) scale, suggesting that command team spouses felt a stronger ability to remain calm and maintain self-control in stressful situations after attending the program. Social Effectiveness (SE) \( z=372.5, p<.05 \) also proved significant because the command team spouse participants reported an increase in their competence and ability to communicate and operate effectively in social situations because of attending the program.

Cooperative Teamwork (CT) \( z=358, p<.05 \) is a life effectiveness scale that also produced a significant response in SQ1, indicating that command team spouses felt more confident in team situations and when working with others after attending the program. The Overall Effectiveness scale (OE) \( z=353.5, p<.05 \) elicited a significant response as well, which is an interesting result because it indicates that the command team spouse participants experienced an overall increase in the perceptions of success or effectiveness in all aspects of their lives as a result of attending the CTSDP-BDE program. Lastly, the Leadership Ability (LA) \( z=231, p<.05 \) scale increased, indicating that command team spouses’ perceptions regarding their ability to lead others increased because of attending the CTSDP-BDE program.

The only scale in SQ1 to reveal no difference for command team spouse participants was Open Thinking (OT) \( z=222, p<.05 \), which suggests that attending the CTSDP-BDE program had little to no effect on participant abilities in learning to remain open and to develop adaptability in thinking and ideas. At first, this finding appeared to be amiss because much of the CTSDP-BDE curriculum is designed to promote OT and understanding of others. However, a further analysis of the data that included demographic information revealed that a majority of this sample population reported
being age 40 and above, which might indicate why this group showed no increase or change in the OT ROPELOC scale. Regarding adult development, Rogers, Mentkowski, and Reisetter-Hart (2006) suggested, “Behaviors and characteristics associated with open thinking can be deeply rooted personality traits” (p. 521) that potentially take much longer than a weeklong seminar to influence or change. Although OT did not change because of attending the CTSDP-BDE program, all of the other scales regarding personal and social abilities and beliefs increased. The positive results from scales SC, SF, SM, SE, CT, OE, and LA reinforce and support the mission of CTSDP and demonstrate a clear connection to life effectiveness for the participants who assume informal leadership roles as command team spouses.

In this study, SQ2 was, “Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in participant organizational skills? If so, what is the nature of it?” Results from the combined ROPELOC scales TE, QS, and CH suggest that attending the CTSDP-BDE program did in fact elicit a statistically significant increase in participant organizational skills \( z=461.5, p<.05 \). This finding was interesting because the CTSDP-BDE curriculum does not intentionally influence the participants’ organizational skills. Changes in this scale could potentially be an ancillary effect of the course; therefore, the individual scales in SQ2 were analyzed further for a deeper understanding of the outcome.

When analyzed separately the Quality Seeking (QS) \( z=306.5, p<.05 \) scale drew significant results that suggested an increase in the command team spousal participant perceptions regarding their abilities in achieving the best possible results as an outcome of attending the CTSDP-BDE program. However, the significant, positive results in this scale could also be a natural consequence or even a personal decision because of
attending the CTSDP-BDE program. The Coping with Change (CH) \( z=413.5, p<.05 \) scale also elicited a significant response, demonstrating that the command team spousal participants perceptions increased their ability to learn to cope with different situations after attending the course. This finding reinforces CTSDP-BDE curriculum and a previous literature review of the course as several topics focus on one’s ability to transition and cope with change. However, it should be noted that although significant, this outcome could also be the result of prior life experiences in the military because an overwhelming majority of the participants reported being married for 16 or more years.

Although other scales within SQ2 increased, Time Efficiency (TE) \( z=242, p<.05 \) revealed no change for the command team spouse participants. The lack of change in this scale might be personality driven because the ability to plan and use time efficiently is a characteristic developed early in life and because most command team spouse participants in this study were seasoned military spouses. In hindsight, SQ2 might show a higher level of significance if the TE scale was not included. In future studies the TE scale (organizational skills) should be analyzed separately, and QS and CH should be categorized as (a) personal and social abilities and beliefs or (b) something more pertinent to the course of study.

In this study, SQ3 was, “Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE promotes participant AI? If so, what is the nature of it?” Results from the AI scale suggest that the CTSDP-BDE program did not elicit a statistically significant increase in participant Active Involvement (AI) \( z=270, p<.05 \) for command team spouses. In reviewing the CTSDP-BDE curriculum, this finding makes sense. The topics covered in the course do not necessarily suggest or promote the participants to be actively involved. However, this SQ remained significant to this study because it was intended to measure a
type of ROI for the course and quantitative results clearly indicate this is not the case. Lack of significance in this question might be related to the notion that spouses who attended the program were already actively involved; therefore, measuring a change or difference because of attending the program was difficult. Contradictory to this finding, the qualitative data suggests that spouses are in fact actively involved. This paradox raises more questions for future research and is discussed in depth in Chapter 5.

In this study, SQ4 was, “Does evidence exist to show that the CTSDP-BDE affects change in a participant’s measure of LOC? If so, what is the nature of it?” The results from the combined IL and EL scales suggest that the CTSDP-BDE program did not elicit a statistically significant increase in participant measures of Locus of Control $z=372, p<.05$. The results from this finding were surprising, considering that several topics in the CTSDP-BDE curriculum potentially influence one’s LOC. The lack of statistical significance in this SQ might be the result of personality and age differences (similar to OT and TE) or it might be the result of small sample size. A further analysis of individual Internal Locus of Control (IL) $z=205.5, p<.05$ suggests that it might be significant with a larger sample. A further analysis of the individual External Locus of Control (EL) $z=302.5, p<.05$ clearly indicated no change. A larger sample size and a separation of the two measures in future research might result in a different outcome. Additionally, the qualitative data in this study clearly demonstrate personal accounts of how the program affected interview participants IL and EL, which data are discussed in depth in Chapter 5.

Chi-Square Analysis and Fisher Exact Tests

In this study, Chi-Square and Fisher Exact tests determined whether demographic variables had an impact on the outcome of SQ 1–4. The intention was to help identify
what characteristics (if any) might have affected the outcomes or differences in the participants’ survey answers. Interestingly, very few demographic variables showed a statistical significance within any given SQ, which suggests that the overwhelming majority of participants who attended the CTSDP-BDE program showed that the program had little to no impact on them, according to many of the demographic variables tested. Had the sample size in this study been larger, more significant results might have surfaced. Additionally, the participants in the CTSDP-BDE program were fairly homogenous, which might have further influenced the results of this study. Overall, the following demographic variables were found to be statistically significant, using Fisher’s Exact test for impact: SQ1 (ethnicity and number of children at home), SQ2 (ethnicity), SQ3 (ethnicity), and SQ4 (age).

In this study, although the demographic variables were condensed for the purposes of analysis, certain categories in the Chi-Square analysis remained insufficient (small sample size) in the results. According to Field (2011), a major weakness in the Chi-Square analysis is the need for an approximate sampling distribution, which is difficult in smaller sample sizes. The overall sample in this analysis remained at n=32; therefore, the distribution of categorical demographic variables proved difficult to conduct a true Chi-Square analysis; therefore, a Fisher Exact test was completed and reported alongside the Chi-Square in Tables 4–7. The interpretation of these tables and statistically significant findings from the demographic variables is discussed after each table.

In SQ1, both ethnicity \((p=0.0057, \text{Fisher’s Exact test})\) and the number of children that the participants reported as still living at home \((p=0.0203, \text{Fisher’s Exact test})\) showed a statistically significant association for participant personal and social abilities and
beliefs. A majority of the participants in this study reported themselves as caucasian; therefore, the results in this analysis are unclear. One could infer that most caucasian command team spouse participants with two or fewer children at home might experience a positive change in their perceptions of participant personal and social beliefs after attending CTSDP-BDE. Additionally, one might infer that, if a command team spouse has children at home, he or she might very well experience difficulties with SM, SF, and OE in an informal leadership role because their responsibilities and focus would lie primarily within the home. These assumptions should not be generalized. Therefore, these results are inconclusive and further research with a larger sample size should be conducted to make a clear determination.

Table 4

*Chi-Square Analysis Results by Demographic for Survey Question 1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>$X^2$ df</th>
<th>$X^2$ P value</th>
<th>Fisher Exact P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>0.0**</td>
<td>0.0**</td>
<td>0.0**</td>
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<td>.0075*</td>
<td>.0057*</td>
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<td>.5487</td>
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<td>.3663</td>
</tr>
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<td>Military background</td>
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<td>.4665</td>
<td>.6399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of marriage</td>
<td>3.846</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.1461</td>
<td>.2616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work or employment</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>.3462</td>
<td>.4116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children at home</td>
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<td>.0252*</td>
<td>.0203*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Total effective sample size for analysis in this table $n=28$ with four frequencies missing because of the zero sum. SQ1 consists of differences from ROPELOC scales measuring participant personal and social abilities and beliefs: self-confidence (SC), self-efficacy (SF), stress management (SM), open thinking (OT), social effectiveness (SE), cooperative teamwork (CT), overall effectiveness (OE), and leadership ability (LA).*

*Significance at 5% level $p \leq 0.05$ in bold.

**Zero listing indicates a total sum of zero for demographic variable, therefore no statistics computed.

In SQ2, ethnicity ($p = .0269$, Fisher’s Exact test) showed a statistically significant association for participant organizational skills. Similar to SQ1, the majority of
participants in this study were caucasian, which suggests that the sample size in this analysis was too small to make a full inference about whether ethnicity truly had an impact on participant organizational skills or individual ROPELOC scales within the SQ. Therefore, the results within this particular analysis are inconclusive and further research with a larger sample size should be conducted to make a clear determination.

Table 5

*Chi-Square Analysis Results by Demographic for Survey Question 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>$X^2$ df</th>
<th>$X^2$ P value</th>
<th>Fisher Exact P value</th>
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<td>.4581</td>
<td>1.000</td>
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<td>.0269*</td>
</tr>
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<td>Age</td>
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<td>.4820</td>
<td>.5906</td>
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<td>Educational level</td>
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<td>.0809</td>
<td>.1014</td>
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<td>.7549</td>
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<td>.3428</td>
<td>.3726</td>
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</table>

*Note.* Total effective sample size for analysis in this table $n=26$ with six frequencies missing due to zero sum. SQ2 consists of differences from the ROPELOC scales measuring change in participant organizational skills for their informal leadership role: time efficiency (TE), quality seeking (QS), and coping with change (CH).

*Significance at 5% level $p \leq .05$ in bold.

In SQ3, ethnicity ($p=.0250$, Fisher’s Exact test) showed a statistically significant association for participant AI. As was discussed in SQ3 participant AI is a confounding issue within this study. Although SQ3 itself showed no significance, the researcher hoped that the demographic information would show why no significance was apparent. However, similarly to SQ1 and SQ2, the overwhelming majority of the participants in this study were caucasian, indicating that the sample size was too small to make a full inference about whether ethnicity truly had an impact on participant AI. Again, the
results within this particular analysis are inconclusive and further research with a larger sample size should be conducted to make a clear determination.

Table 6
*Chi-Square Analysis Results by Demographic for Survey Question 3*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
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<th>$X^2$ df</th>
<th>$X^2$ P value</th>
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</tr>
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<td>.0561</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Educational level</td>
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<td>.5338</td>
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<td>Number of children at home</td>
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<td>.0669</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Total effective sample size for analysis in this table is n=24 with eight frequencies missing due to zero sum. SQ3 consists of differences from the ROPELOC scale that measures active involvement in a participant’s informal leadership role.*

*Significance at 5% level $p \leq .05$ in bold.

Table 7
*Chi-Square Analysis Results by Demographic for Survey Question 4*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
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<th>$X^2$ P value</th>
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<td>Age</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Military background</td>
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<td>.3580</td>
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<td>Length of marriage</td>
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<td>Work or employment</td>
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<td>Number of children at home</td>
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<td>.1765</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*Note. Total effective sample size for analysis in this table n=29 with three frequencies missing due to zero sum. SQ4 consists of differences from the ROPELOC scale measuring change in the participant’s measure of locus of control.*

*Significance at 5% level $p \leq .05$ in bold.

In SQ4, age ($p = .0301$, Fisher’s Exact test) showed a statistically significant association for participant measures affecting LOC. Although the individual scales within
SQ4 showed no statistical increase, this analysis potentially supports the assumption that one’s age influences both IL and EL. In this study, the overwhelming majority of participants reported that they were age 40 and older and that they were seasoned military spouses. After years of living in the military, a command team spouse will have developed a concrete sense of IL and EL, making it difficult to change after a 5-day seminar. This finding alone is significantly interesting because much of the CTSDP-BDE curriculum potentially influences LOC. Further investigation and interpretation of this significant finding can be found in Chapter 5.

Quantitative Summary

Using the quantitative analysis in this chapter and the Wilcoxon tests, the researcher found that the multiple ROPELOC scales were statistically significant (SC, SF, SM, SE, CT, OE, LA, QS, and CH). However, when scales were condensed and combined into subquestions, two of four subquestions (SQ1 – participant personal and social beliefs and SQ2 – participant organizational skills) showed a statistically significant response for command team spouses because of attending the CTSDP-BDE program. Lastly, the demographic variables were found to be statistically significant, using Fisher’s Exact test for impact on SQ1 (ethnicity and number of children at home), SQ2 (ethnicity), SQ3 (ethnicity), and SQ4 (age). An in depth interpretation of the findings is discussed further in Chapter 5.

Qualitative Interview Findings

This section contains themes and findings from qualitative interviews, which answer the primary qualitative research question: What aspects of the CTSDP-BDE formal educational program do participants perceive influence life effectiveness and their informal leadership roles?
Qualitative themes and findings emerged during the analysis using a constant comparative method involving researcher observations, interviews, historical data collection, transcription, member checking, independent coding, peer review, and researcher reflection. Overall, five themes and seven major findings emerged from this study:

1. The majority of the command team spouses indicated that the CTSDP-BDE positively affected their overall wellbeing and life effectiveness.
2. All 10 of the command team spouses indicated that they had rich life experiences, which helped to prepare them for informal leadership roles.
3. All 10 of the command team spouses indicated that they had had spousal educational opportunities prior to attending the CTSDP-BDE, which remained beneficial in their development and understanding of the command team role.
4. The majority of the command team spouses perceived that their attendance in the CTSDP-BDE program resulted in a positive manner, for they noted the real-world outcomes and results in their command team roles.
5. All 10 of the command team spouses indicated that additional curriculum could be included to make the CTSDP-BDE program better.
6. The majority of the command team spouses expressed positive opinions regarding how the U.S. Army educates command team spouses to prepare them for command roles.
7. The majority of the command team spouses indicated the U.S. Army could be doing more to enhance opportunities and quality of education for command team spouses at different levels of command.
The researcher will now discuss the five themes and subsequent findings with supporting details and illustrative quotations from participants for explanation. In this research design, the qualitative data plays a supportive role to the quantitative data. Therefore, throughout this section, multiple connections will be made to the quantitative section because many of the supporting quotations refer to participant behaviors and characteristics as defined by the ROPELOC instrument. Throughout the remainder of this chapter, pseudonyms will be used to refer to the command team spouses (n=10) who participated in the telephone interviews.

**Theme 1: Personal Effect**

- **Finding:** The majority of the command team spouses (9 of 10 [90%] + 1 online survey respondent) indicated that the CTSDP-BDE positively affected their overall well-being and life effectiveness.

The most important finding of this study is that participants believed that the CTSDP-BDE program had a positive impact on them personally and socially in their command team roles. This finding is highly significant because of the number of participants who shared their stories of success, clearly linking personal examples to topics covered in the CTSDP-BDE program. Interestingly, the responses in this finding emerged across all interview questions with strong evidence supporting quantitative findings from the ROPELOC instrument. In fact, the responses came at varying times in the overall interview process and one response came as a separate anonymous comment from the quantitative survey.

Personal and social life effectiveness was a major topic of concern for the command team spouse participants during qualitative interviews. This correlated with the researcher’s observation notes as topics of SC, SF, SE, and OE in the participants’
informal leadership roles came up from month to month. During qualitative interviews, three participants spoke specifically about the course and how it affected them personally. For example, Tina spoke about how the CTSDP-BDE course helped her refocus:

You get into the day-to-day things and kind of lose focus so going to that training was for me personally was beneficial because it sort of allowed me to refocus and almost redirect me to where I was originally going with my goals and command team performances. Um, but looking specifically at what was covered in the training and how that benefitted me both before command and now I would say the conflict resolution stuff. It was tremendously helpful.

Liz spoke about how she could use the information learned in the CTSDP-BDE program in everyday life:

Oh, absolutely. I mean if you think about it actually there wasn’t anything that wasn’t provided in your um, the classes that (inaudible) – you really want to know there were some things that were new to me, but I thought if I can’t put it in a military environment, I knew I could use it in my personal life.

Cindy spoke about how discussions in the course reinforced her transition to being a brigade command team spouse and the personal affect the experience has on her family:

Yes, and what was unique about that is that nobody was trying to you know – toot their horn or pump their fist and say let’s go Army! Everybody has to make the move sometime and have to make that transition. It can be a healthy one or a very negative experience. Um, I like the mentor spouse being able to talk honestly about that and nobody as a spouse up there was trying to tell us that you guys just need to suck it up and do your 30 years in the military. I think the other thing I heard – out of everybody's mouth if they even talked about it was that you have to make a very personal decision and your family makes a personal decision and it’s not going to be the same for everybody. Nobody told us to chase stars either, which was kind of nice too. I don’t think anyone every told me that, but it was implied that as a spouse we should really stick around because the Army needs you and really (INAUDIBLE) works on our sense of service as a family. Nobody really tried to tell us that, which was very mature and they kind of knew where we were. Were we happy with our spouses in command and that they weren’t going to be in command forever and that eventually we would need to make a big person decision about our lives . . . . When you hire that soldier to be a commander you just get whatever they bring to the table – you know you get the
spouse as they are. Sometimes that spouse is going to be a piece of that or sometimes they won’t be a part of the success. So, you know I don't know. I think it depends on the mindset of the family. It’s the mindset is that we are a team and that this is our life. It’s the military right now and that we are in this culture. I think that you’ve got a piece of gold, however if you are a family that doesn’t agree – it’s his job and he's just jerking me around America and we never get to call any place home then their perspective is going to be much different than mine, let’s say. You know if a person never comes into the fold and never buys into this way of life then. . . . You know what I’m saying?

At the end of her interview Cindy, offered one final opinion about regarding how the CTSDP-BDE had affected her personally, conveying a powerful message. Cindy said,

> You know the biggest thing I got from this course was knowledge about communication. It was really about how to communicate and how to assess, you know what I mean? It wasn’t the nuts and bolts, which was what I expected. It was about something that I can use no matter where I am. Whether it’s in or out of the military.

What Cindy described in her response directly relates to the concept of AI discussed in the quantitative section of this study. Her experiences indicate that AI is an individual and family commitment that is predetermined well before attending the CTSDP-BDE course. Additionally, two other participants spoke about how the course “recharged” their faith in their abilities to be informal leaders in a command team role, which further suggests that AI is something that needs to be influenced over a time. For example, Nina spoke about how she plans to continue to be actively involved:

> Yeah, by me being actively involved and showing that I cared about our soldiers and their families. That actually prompted a lot of folks that I knew that would not have normally gotten involved to actually get involved. . . .Well, it was something I did naturally anyway, but it was nice to have that reassurance in the course that what I was doing in the past could work into the future. And, to just keep being me and doing what I do and to be caring and compassionate for other people.

Trish spoke about relearning “patience” and how that patience helped her in her role:

> Yes, definitely learning patience. I think I learned the most probably from Charlie’s segment when he spoke about how different people perceive things
differently, so I definitely think that the class that Charlie taught on the different ways that people think and perceive things was the most helpful. It made me think about things and the way the military works. I would say Charlie was a big help. . . Basically that class of Charlie’s I learned that sometimes it’s best to get it out and say it instead of holding it in. I think that maybe some people don’t mean to say things in a certain way, but letting them know how I perceived it has been helpful.

In addition to supporting the quantitative finding that AI is not influenced by attending the CTSDP-BDE program, reports of feeling “recharged” directly correlates with quantitative findings found in SQ 1–4 where participants reported an increase in personal and social abilities and beliefs and or measures of LOC.

In the U.S. Army, a command team includes both officer and enlisted ranks and can be the most important relationship to a successful command environment. Spouses in a command team can be equally dependent on one another as they seek support, advice, and guidance. The command team relationship and the importance of this relationship are prevalent in CTSDP-BDE discussions, which Vicky (an officer’s spouse) suggested greatly influenced her OE as a member of a command team. When asked about how the program affected her, Vicky spoke about the significance of what she had learned in the course and the relationships she shared with others as a command team spouse:

You know I want to touch on one more thing. This is something at PCC [Pre-Command Course] that I figured out I was blessed with and other people have not. In our time in, we have had two amazing brigade commanders and amazing spouses and I learned so much from both of them. So, it really helps when brigade command spouses get to know their battalion and CSM (command sergeant major) spouses. I think that really helps them in the long run and I know that I could call either one of them if I had a problem right now and say – what do you think? So, you know I talked to a lot of ladies and not all of them had that same type of experience. That’s really a shame because I had such a great time with two of these ladies. You know I just saw the battalion commander we had when my spouse was a company commander – he and his wife. I still use lessons I learned from her you know when my husband was a captain. So, I’ve been very blessed. I’ve never had a command spouse that I thought oh good lord I can’t talk to that person.
In essence, Vicky’s experience was deeply affected by her peers in the CTSDP-BDE program, otherwise helping her to realize the value of her own experiences as a military spouse. This clearly indicates that command team spouses are fully capable of performing in an informal leadership role and often have great experiences on which to draw; however, like most adults who have been out of the situation for an extended time, doubts regarding their abilities have developed. Attending the CTSDP-BDE program not only “recharged” the participant’s faith in their abilities, but also provided extensive opportunities to renew their understanding of military values and culture further, improving their abilities to work as a team (CT).

Although most of the participants reported personal experiences of how the CTSDP-BDE had influenced their well-being and life effectiveness, several participants and one anonymous participant from the ROPELOC survey reported specific changes to their roles as informal leaders. For example, Tonya spoke about how the course had helped her learn more about her role as a command team spouse in a geographically dispersed brigade situation where people are mostly civilians:

I’m at ———, which is a totally different beast, which I did learn that there are so many different types of facets of the — you know the Army. There is this role that you play more publicly and then there are some that you don’t and then there’s that mixture of . . . if I come from almost all posts that we’ve been at where there’s all active duty personnel. Now we are in the middle of ——— and there is nothing on post that would pertain to a civilian basically, unless I had a government job, which is a little different. Now there is an FRG [family readiness group], but it is made up from people all over the region. Because these people are not active duty — they are all active reserve so they have a civilian life, they have civilian worlds that they are going to. So I’m finding out that you know, um, my role here is even less than I really thought it would be. I guess I did learn a little bit of that at the course because you just understand that there are so many different varieties and so many different components that make up this wonderful Army of ours in different locations and to learn how to deal with that.
What Tina alludes to in her response is how she was able to take what she had learned from the course to determine her own success by accepting the situation she was in and personally taking internal responsibility to change her outlook. Although not explicitly stated, this is clearly indicative of a change in her LOC (IL and EL) over the situation. Additionally, Lisa had a similar change in IL and EL by reporting experiences in her command team role and the concept of “non-personal failure,” which is her way of knowing she has done the “best she could in her informal leadership role.” Lisa said,

You know the other thing is we had a discussion/focus group a couple of years ago for redeploying – specifically wounded warriors – that it really highlighted something for us. We get so many complaints about you know – the unit didn’t do this or that for us and I just sat there and I looked at the sergeant and his wife and I said okay, you’ve got an opportunity right now. We done all of this for you guys – you know it wasn’t a bashing session. I said tell me, I’m Mrs. Colonel, what do you want from me? You know what they said? To be left alone! I looked at her and she looked back at me and she said oh my gosh I realize how that sounds. I just told you we didn’t get the support we thought we needed and now I just said I want you to leave me alone. So I think if we can take that type of scenario and talk about the importance of approaching people – not having that first meeting being at a time when somebody needs something and then also understand non-personal failure. To me, non-personal failure is when I’ve done what I can for somebody and they are still complaining about it. It’s putting information out and then having to listen to somebody say, well nobody told me. You know having meetings and training sessions and somebody saying, well I didn’t know that – that’s not my failure. So I’m telling you, personally I think it takes a pretty big ego in that my ego is not dependent upon somebody else’s approval for me to feel good about me. I don’t mean big ego as in I’m better than everyone else and I don’t need to take you into consideration. I’ve got to be strong enough to understand that I’m going to do what I can and I can’t do what everybody needs all the time. . . . Not everybody will. Not everyone is going to recognize a lack of involvement from other people as a failure. Not everybody will identify that, but they are still going to feel bad about it. We're going through something right now where you gotta do more with less. Okay, we are now operating a multi-billion dollar corporation on a small business budget. So, how do you do more with nothing and everybody feels bad about it. We want to do so much for people and we can no longer do that. All we can do now is say here are options.

Furthermore, one anonymous comment from the posttest survey correlates directly with a change in IL and EL and researcher observations of how participants
viewed the command team role after participating in the CTSDP-BDE program.

Anonymous said,

The question of if I succeed in life will be because of my own efforts. The reason I rated myself the way I did is, I believe you are only as good as the people you surround yourself with and opportunities like this program reinforce that. I cannot succeed alone. When you believe you are the only one that makes a difference or you think you can do everything alone, you succeed at nothing. It takes an army to run a village.

Participant responses from qualitative interviews clearly indicate a change in IL and EL after attending the program. Contradictory to these responses remains quantitative findings from SQ4 in this study, which raises a fundamental, yet unanswered question of why the disconnect occurred.

**Theme 2: Prior Life Experiences**

- **Finding:** All 10 (100%) of the command team spouses indicated they had had rich life experiences, which helped them to prepare for informal leadership roles.

In this study, prior experience as an underlying factor for command team spouses can greatly influence either optimistic or pessimistic outlooks in their abilities as informal leaders, which also influences how the participants will perceive the CTSDP-BDE program. During qualitative interviews maturity, life stages, and complexities of life experience varied from participant to participant. However, all of the participants maintained that they had had rich experiences that they believed were influential in their role as a command team spouse. Conclusively, understanding these life experiences and how they influence leadership behaviors is relevant to CTSDP-BDE administrators, facilitators, and curriculum developers.
During qualitative interviews, several participants reported how their mentor–mentee relationships with previous command team spouses were instrumental to their success and willingness to be actively involved, which again contradicts findings from the ROPELOC survey in this research. For example, Tina grew up in the military and had rich life experiences in many military environments; however, her most notable experience in preparation for a command team spousal role came from the role modeling of others whom she notes were “exemplary spouses.” Tina said,

Um, my prior experiences? Well, I grew up in the military so um, you know I’ve been living the life for as long as I can remember. I had some very good mentors in the past. Um, brigade and not necessarily brigade, but other command spouses that mentored me throughout so it was really role modeling of others. You know, following or role modeling others that had gone before me….However, I think for me personally the most powerful, um, assistance or you know training that I got came from other women – other spouses in the that same role. Both positive and negative because you know you kind of learn as you are coming through the ranks. You learn from those people who were there and assisted you with things and you have the other side where people may not have been so helpful and the mentorship that you really would have like to have seen wasn’t there. So, you kind of learn from that as well.

Vicky also mentioned a form of role modeling in preparation for her informal leadership role:

You are going to laugh. I’ve been going through this box of all the FRG [family readiness group] and training notes from the last 15 years. I’m going back and I’m actually relooking at the notes I took in meetings I had with our last brigade spouse to see what she was in charge in and what she was helping us with to make sure I’m not missing anything!

However, Cindy spoke about her mentor and her experience interviewing this person in preparation for the CTSDP-BDE course:

She was the one I learned so much from because she talked about herself and experiences. She and I had very similar personalities and I could totally see where she was coming from through that interview. You know people don’t necessarily know why a person would need to change themselves. I have people tell me all the time that they are not speakers and that they are bad at public speaking. I think to myself, you know I am too. But, if you never afford yourself the opportunity to
get past that fear and commit you never get over it or overcome that fear. I think some people are just kind of tied up in their own heads and have decided that they are only one way and that would never be comfortable speaking. A personality like that “S” that we talked about.

From these responses, the topic of mentorship is clearly prevalent in preparation for command team spouses. Although several of the CTSDP-BDE topics cover mentorship, the act of being in a mentor–mentee relationship is not fostered.

Furthermore, these responses suggest that the CTSDP-BDE course is not the only way for command team spouses to learn effective leadership. With this understanding, perhaps the U.S. Army should expand educational opportunities to spouses to include a formal mentorship program.

Although mentorship was prevalent throughout participant responses as being influential in their preparation for the command team role, other participants spoke more poignantly about prior command experiences and experiences they themselves had as prior U.S. Army service members. For example, Cindy spoke about her time as an FRG leader and transition from active duty soldier to spouse:

Um, well I was battalion FRG [family readiness group] leader and spouse and being a company leader as well. When —— was a major his company command was when I filled that role. Um, well so I also relied on my experiences in the military and I have about 9 years of experience in the military. It wasn’t that difficult to make the transition from active duty to spouse and leading that way really helped. The only exception is that the population is different. The military is full of precise, driven people and you don’t find that same population in the spouses.

Vicky spoke about her experiences as a dual military couple and how she has tried to continue being a supportive spouse over the years as her husband rose through the ranks:

Most definitely, the battalion command time. That thankfully helped prepare me. Well, I was also the company FRG [family readiness group] leader. Um, we were not – we were geographical bachelors because I was in the military too when he
was a lieutenant. So, I was not around when he was a lieutenant. Um, as soon as we were living together again I have always been active in the FRG [family readiness group] and always tried to help the commander spouse at whatever level I’ve been at whether it was company or if he was on a staff as like battalion XO, S3, brigade XO, S3. So, you know I’ve always been a part of things. The only year I wasn’t was when we were up at CGSC [Command and General Staff College] and SAMS [School of Advanced Military Studies] at Leavenworth.

Being a supportive spouse was clearly important to participants in this study, regardless of their own careers or ambitions, further questioning quantitative findings in this study surrounding AI. For instance, several participants spoke about a lifetime of experiences being military spouses and supporting their husbands over the course of their U.S. Army careers. Tonya spoke about her involvement and willingness to volunteer over her husband’s 25-year U.S. Army career:

Okay, um. Prior experiences . . . Um, I think for me it was more or less the fact that I have always been involved with my husband in the Army. Um, it’s a lifestyle where you can’t have you know a personal life without including the Army. I’ve always been involved in some form or fashion as an FRG [family readiness group] leader when my husband when a private. Um, so going back many years ago I think that being involved all along the way to understand, umm, the roles that I can take or that I had seen over time. You know I sort of grew up with the Army and learned leadership that way. Just being involved has really helped me prepare for that course and my role . . . . Yes. I mean if there was a time that I didn’t it would . . . You know if I wasn’t being asked to fill a role there was a few instances where they already had someone in place to do that – I didn’t always step in if there wasn’t a need. However, I always volunteered my services in some way with the unit. I might not have had that leadership role, but I have always been involved. Um, I’ve usually been a point of contact to help organize and things like that.

Julie referred to prior life experience as the life she has lived with her husband over 28 years living, moving, and working with the U.S. Army:

I guess the only experience I would have would be that I’ve been with my husband since he joined the military umpteen million years ago and being involved all along the way. Um, everything military that I’ve been involved in and you know going to all the courses and doing all the things I could do to be as involved as I could be. So I guess, that’s pretty much my only experience. . . . I mean I can’t think of anything specific because he’s been in the Army for over 28 years now, so just that many years of experience I suppose. . . . Lots of family
support groups, community meetings, anything I could do to be involved or support the unit and their families I would do it.

Although the participants reported being very supportive, this supportiveness might have come from a pre-existing commitment and relationship that they established with their families long before they attended the CTSDP-BDE program. However, these responses clearly indicate a long lasting ability to cope with change, which directly supports the quantitative findings from SQ2 in this study.

Lastly, during the qualitative interviews, several participants noted their developmental life experiences as influential in their preparation for their command team roles. Their experiences came from being involved in higher education and work-related opportunities. For example, Amy, a working professional and command team spouse, spoke about her career-related experiences and working with people as influential to her preparation for the role: “Um, I would say prior life experience . . . running projects, dealing with group dynamics, that type of experience and then you know, just probably educational background – you know psychology and stuff.” Trish, a college student and current CSM command team spouse, spoke about taking classes and how that had also helped her to prepare: “Well, um ethics classes that I’ve taken – I think that might be the only besides life experiences in general that may have helped. It would be my ethics and moral reasoning classes that I’ve taken in the past.”

Overall, the participants reported varying prior-life experiences outside of the CTSDP-BDE as being instrumental in their preparation for their command team spousal roles. Interestingly, spousal education also came up throughout the conversations, regarding prior-life experience, thus, prompting the next theme in this study.
Theme 3: Prior Spousal Education

- **Finding:** All 10 (100%) of the command team spouses indicated they had spousal educational opportunities prior to attending the CTSDP-BDE, which remained beneficial in their development and understanding of the command team role.

The overriding finding that all of the participants received U.S. Army spousal educational opportunities prior to attending the CTSDP-BDE course reflects both a willingness to learn and an interest in supporting themselves, their families, and military communities. This finding is key for the U.S. Army because it clearly demonstrates how spousal education is influential to military spouses as informal leaders. Additionally, with this finding, the researcher further suggests that the command team spouses who attend these programs (including the CTSDP-BDE) are actively involved and often volunteer in military communities. Although several command team spouses mentioned attending specific programs in general (e.g., the CTSDP battalion level PCC course), an overwhelming majority (9 of 10) of them spoke of their experiences in U.S. Army Community Service (ACS) programs as a precursor to attending the PCC program. Many spouses in this research mentioned that they were “repeat” customers in many of the programs offered and that the information they received was instrumental in their decision to participate as volunteers within their units and military communities. For example, Cindy relayed her educational experiences over the course of her husband’s U.S. Army career:

Um, but I mean I did go to one at battalion command – the PCC [Pre-Command Course] at Leavenworth together. There was another course for company command. Um, I was a pretty new ***** wife then and I think I had been married to *** for about 3 years at that point so and it was in a tour that wasn’t in Special Operations so his company command was my first initial experience in
**** ****. You know, do you remember the battle field, battle minds? . . . Okay, there was 2 versions of battle minds and AFTB [Army Family Team Building] that I did when I passed out of the military and was a stay at home mom and I was wanted to know what other spouses were being taught about the Army. I felt like I had a good network with that. Let’s see, I did 1, 2, 3 and 3 again recently. Um, online – not in the classroom. 2 days is too long to be in the classroom. . . . I mean I don’t know who does the classroom, but I don’t have time to be in the classroom from 8–4 every day for three days.

Tonya also expressed her willingness to attend programs and educational opportunities over the years and how one these programs has helped her in relation to SE and LA:

Yeah, whenever there is an opportunity I try to do those kinds of things. I mean at Fort Riley we had a couple of symposiums or something like that that were maybe on leadership and I went to the battalion level course that you guys had a few years ago, which I really enjoyed that one because it was my first take on it. This course was a refresher, but at a higher level. So those were the two that I focused on. There were a few leadership courses that were offered and I would attend if I could. . . . Yeah, well ACS [Army Community Services] has those FRG [family readiness group] leadership courses or something like that. I’ve been to a number of those, which lasted like an hour or something. I even stepped into a couple of full day programs that were more or less symposiums. Two or three of those kind of things that um, I don’t know they weren’t necessarily specific to a level of command, but it was more like a leadership kind of feel to it...You could make it what you wanted it to be and they even dealt with protocol, because you know once your husband gets to a certain rank you are invited to more social events, you know and dressing and things like that.

Volunteerism and overall involvement from military spouses is a staple in strong military communities. How and why spouses continue to donate their time and energy is often overlooked as a source of capital among U.S. Army leaders. However, several command team spouse participants spoke about their involvement volunteering in military communities and how past educational experiences played a role in promoting altruistic behavior, SM, and willingness to work in teams (CT) as informal leaders. For instance, Nina spoke about her attendance and interest in courses related to volunteerism and how to recognize volunteers in her community:
Yea, I’ve been through the Army Community Services – all 3 levels AFTB programs – Army Family Team Building. Um, I’ve attended the FRG [family readiness group] classes. The uh, Key callers and treasurer – all of those courses. Um, trying to think what else have I done. . . . I sat through various volunteer programs so you know – knowing how to work with our volunteers and have our um, our unit basics – including working with volunteers, recognizing them, appreciating them, and rewarding them.

Vicky mentioned her experiences attending courses as a good way to get others around her involved:

Yeah. Now, of course, now I’m getting dated, but I did all the AFTB [Army Family Team Building] courses. At Fort Hood, I did just about everything. The resources class, the FRG [family readiness group] leader class, the CARE team training multiple times. Um, I am a huge proponent of learning something new every time you experience it. Plus, it was a good way to get my FRG [family readiness group] leaders to go to something like that because I would go with them.

Amy mentioned her experiences in educational programs as a new military spouse several years ago and how that influenced her behavior:

Um, the first thing I ever went through was AFTB [Army Family Team Building course]. That was overseas and by a lovely military spouse that took me under her wing and pushed me in that direction. That would be information I sought independently because I was at a loss, you know? I needed the information because I wasn’t understanding the culture at that time.

Interestingly, Trish’s interview provided much needed insight into the differences between officer and enlisted ranks among spouses. Contrary to popular understanding that enlisted and officer spouses are “equals,” the fact remains that many educational opportunities (aside from Army Community Service programs) do not exist for enlisted spouses until the active duty member reaches the rank of E-7. When asked about her experiences as a CSM spouse Trish spoke about opportunities to attend programs after her husband made the rank of first sergeant:

Well, I did do the prior command stuff. My husband was a first sergeant for many, many years and um, the other one was – I think I took a few classes with ACS [Army Community Services]. Mostly it was through the Pre-Command
Course, but I did the AFTB [Army Family Team Building] classes and preparation for being an FRG [family readiness group] leader.

Although many spouses attend U.S. Army Community Service programs to help themselves and others in their military communities, some take the next step and become course facilitators. Lisa spoke of her experiences as an U.S. AFTB instructor, being actively involved (AI) and how that relates to the role of being a command team spouse:

I’ve been an AFTB [Army Family Team Building] instructor since about 2002. So some of the courses there provided a background I guess a little bit – communication, group dynamics, those types of things, but – they gave me some comfort in speaking in front of people. I honestly don’t think that attending those courses offers a great deal of preparation to be thrust into a highly visible role…. I needed more legal, more regulatory, more functional experience or being given access to somebody who had had that experience before. Too often, we go into the position of the battalion or brigade we don’t have the background for the rules and the regulations that we are required to follow. Even being a member of an FRG [family readiness group] or the FRG leader, – that will give you some experience in that you know stuff is out there, but if you’ve got a spouse who has not previously been involved in any way, um just simply taking AFTB isn’t going to fully prepare them to be immersed in the role. Does that make sense?

In addition to attending U.S. Army Community Service programs over half of the participants (7 of 10) spoke of their experiences specific to the battalion PCC. Most reported attending the PCC course as a precursor to other experiences and some remembered specific events and content areas covered in the program that further supported personal and social abilities and beliefs as found in SQ1 of this study. Julie spoke of her experience attending the battalion PCC without her spouse:

Uh, well I did do the PCC [Pre-Command Course] for battalion command and that was a Leavenworth. That was also a great program. It was more – the one thing I really like about that one was in their program you had more opportunity to get with your spouse and discuss things learned. I supposed on that level it’s really important to have that team building process. Unfortunately when I went through PCC I didn’t have my spouse there with me. You know – childcare issues I couldn’t leave my kids for a whole week. Um, so I did that PCC on my own. Um, so the only difference was the nice part of that one was being with the spouses and getting more you know more information with them and
understanding what was geared towards the green suiter. Yeah, so it was still a
good experience even though my spouse wasn’t there.

In her experiences at battalion, PCC Trish related a specific memory of protocol
training she had received during the program:

Well, we did the class and spoke about the different levels and different things I
remember talking about that before. You know we just felt completely different at
the different levels. I think it was the two brigade commander spouses that came
in and talked about protocol things. You know the spouses at the lower levels
don’t really understand that stuff anymore. Yes, you know the invitation might
say semiformal and they interpret it one way while the majority interpret it
differently. You know the word “Ball” means ball gown, but you know you get to
the battalion level and they are not called Balls anymore they are called Socials so
you wear a cocktail dress.

When asked about her experiences, Cindy spoke about her opportunity to
volunteer as a past mentor-panel member for the battalion PCC program and her opinions
regarding curriculum changes:

Maybe I’m a little more out of touch now, but it used to be about coaching,
teaching, and mentoring, which to me is the goal and three words of our time you
know, being a brigade-level spouse. You are coaching, teaching, and mentoring.
And so, um, I don’t think it’s really like that anymore. I think that they interpret
that as being more at the battalion level now. It’s kind of our – I want to say a
little bit of a lost art. You kind of know what you are doing at the battalion level,
but it’s expected to be that way at the brigade level. You just kind of know what
you are doing as a senior spouse – that’s the expectation. It’s either age, maturity,
or you know your husband’s rank. You are supposed to know stuff.

Overall, the participants viewed prior educational opportunities in the U.S. Army
as primary experiences preparing them for informal leadership roles in U.S. Army
communities, especially at lower levels of command. Additionally, the findings in this
research surrounding continued participation in spousal education over the course of
many years suggest that military spouses who attend programs early on in their military
life continue to be active and to attend programs repeatedly over their spouse’s active
duty military career.
Theme 4: CTSDP-BDE Curriculum

In Theme 4, two separate, yet equally important findings regarding the CTSDP-BDE curriculum emerged. The need for relevant curriculum and educational programs specific to the command team spouse role was noted throughout researcher observation field notes and participant interviews. Therefore, extensive real-world experiences and anecdotal responses from participants provide a richer, deeper understanding into what aspects (positive or negative) of the CTSDP-BDE remained influential to their OE as command team spouses. Consequently, these findings remain instrumental in answering the primary qualitative interview question:

- What aspects of the CTSDP-BDE formal educational program do participants perceive influence life effectiveness and their informal leadership roles?
- Finding One: The majority of the command team spouses (9 of 10 or 90%) suggested that CTSDP-BDE curriculum was beneficial and resulted in positive real-world outcomes in their informal leader roles.

In light of previous themes and findings in this study, this particular finding was somewhat expected. Many of the participants during the weeklong course typically demonstrated what appeared to be transformational changes; therefore, it is not surprising that the overwhelming majority of the command team spouses related positive outcomes because of attending the course. Consequently, the responses in this section directly support the quantitative findings surrounding personal and social abilities and beliefs in SQ1 of this study. For example, Cindy referred to content on perceptions and working with others and how that was beneficial to her, which demonstrates a clear indication of OT, SE, SC, and CT. Cindy said,
Oh yeah. I have referred to that information – I don’t know how many times. A lot. The personalities and how to talk to different groups of people. I’ve had a few speaking engagement since I came back from the course and when you look at your crowd now, your audience – I have a different view now of who I am speaking to. When I think about the personalities that we had in the course I’m looking at most people out there are not thinking or working the same way that I’m working. So the idea was that when I speak I try to make it a common purpose to fit all. When we both believe I can get you going in that right direction and you want to go in that direction to the extent that I’ve made a common purpose for us and as a speaker and a listener. You know, that part has really worked for me. I kind of already knew who I was, but listening to the other groups of people – the other members of our team in the program and talking about what kind of people there are and what they respond to or what turns them off, to be very frank, was enlightening.

Liz spoke extensively about a specific situation where the CTSDP-BDE topics on perceptions, conflict resolution, and working with difficult people helped her in her role as an informal leader, thus reinforcing SE, SM, and CT. Liz said,

Yes. When I got back I was put on it’s called the —— board, which is kind of ——— spouse club and they call it the Community Wives Club, but we actually have several men so we are going to change it to the Community Spouses Club, which has about 200 members or so. We do a lot of scholarships and outreach programs and stuff. I became the Parliamentarian for that board and um, I will tell you right now we are finally up to full membership on the board and um we have about 20–25 board members and advisors. The advisor and the honorary president is a 4 star spouse and the other wives are GO [General Officer] wives. Then we have very different members for 20–25 members on the board. Not counted in our full membership. A lot of your courses if I remember – there are a lot of different personalities as you can well imagine on this board. Um, just yesterday – no Tuesday I had a board meeting at 11am. The board finally met and there was a snafu in some personality of the group. As Parliamentarian I am responsible for keeping the board moving and it was getting to the point where it was out of hand. One of your trainings on how to handle that without personal feelings, you know really helped. . . .Yes, conflict resolution class, whatever and personal feelings and perceptions. I remember how to not say anything – take a deep breath and . . . you know conflict resolution. You know that’s when it came into play. I wish that I could be more articulate, but we did a pretty good job and moved along and finally wrapped the meeting up, which should have been one hour and ended up being two. . . . This time I actually told them – I mean I was honest – I mean I’m the Parliamentarian – I’m the person you are going to love to hate, but they’ve got to be the one on the board who will move things along, set down some rules. I said, you know – it’s not really up for debate. We brought in a timer and I pulled out my book you know, Robert’s Rules of Order – told them how it works and if you have a motion there’s a discussion or dispute. Someone
proposes, it you can have an argument or discussion, then you get a motion. One person gets to discuss it. You actually get two times to discuss it then you cycle through with the motion and you know it keeps it from getting out of hand.

Although some relayed personal experiences, others spoke specifically about content areas and mentioned the names of facilitators who had covered specific areas in the program. For clarification, three facilitators from the program were named for their contributions to the program. Jane covered the content area on transitions; Donita covered leadership concepts and perceptions; and Charlie covered conflict resolution, working with difficult people, and community involvement. The following comments are from the participants who perceived these content areas as most helpful. Trish spoke specifically about Charlie’s content during the course and how it encouraged her to be “patient,” thus, reinforcing measures of IL and EL, and SM:

Yes, definitely patience (laughing). Yes definitely learning patience. I think I learned the most probably from Charlie’s segment when he spoke about how different people perceive things differently so I definitely think that the class that Charlie taught on the different ways that people think and perceive things was the most helpful. It made me think about things and the way the military works. I would say Charlie was a big help. Basically, that class of Charlie’s I learned that sometimes it’s best to get it out and say it instead of holding it in. I think that maybe some people don’t mean to say things in a certain way, but letting them know how I perceived it has been helpful.

Lisa also mentioned how facilitator expertise in the CTSDP-BDE put her at ease and reinforced her SC and SF regarding her future role:

Um, Charlie’s things gave a better grasp a better comfort of how groups work. Um, Jane’s day was beneficial because she walked in and was the first person and said "been there done that" and then that immediately put people at ease with okay, we’re not dealing with somebody that has never had the job. Because too often we go into these trainings and we’re being given information from people who have never held the job. . . . So, even though Charlie has never had the job he gave a lot of information on – we know we’re going to be working with people and most of us are afraid to work with people when we don’t know what we’re talking about. Then a large number of people come into the brigade level having the experience with already the battalion level.
Liz specifically mentioned the topic of conflict resolution in her experiences and how it helped her to find her voice (SC, SF, SE, CT, and LA) as a parliamentarian and board member:

It came in really handy. I mean your conflict resolution class really kind of came in because I mean the first of September when I started I went back and looked through some of the class notes and Robert’s rules of order too because September I was really kind of lost as an Easter egg in that board meeting because I had never really done that before. It was this last week that I really found my voice.

Vicky spoke about the topic of conflict resolution from the CTSDP-BDE program and how understanding the “tools” for handling conflict is beneficial in an informal leadership role:

Overall – I will tell you for example – Conflict Resolution. I’ve had to deal with a lot of conflicts over the past 20 years. Um, and a lot of things you do intuitively or through common sense, but I like the fact that going over actual tools for use – you know, thought about how to deal with it ahead of time and deal with conflict. It’s kind of like, easier to say that okay, this is a mess. Then it would be like, what did I learn about this at PCC [Pre-Command Course]?

Amy spoke specifically about information covered from all three facilitators and how the information covered in class is “used all the time,” thus reinforcing SC, SF, SM, SE, CT, and CH:

I think that what was beneficial curriculum wise that you guys had was dealing with different personalities and handling transition. Because we use that stuff all the time, especially as you move up higher along the ladder so to speak. Not everybody plays as nice as you so you need to be aware of how to deal with that sort of thing. You know, not everybody is as welcoming or as helpful as they could be – so sometimes you find people that are delightful and helpful and other times their not. . . . I think the information and resources that were provided there – dealing with people, how to use your resources, different roles people play – were helpful in kind of, you know, gathering your information and to be able to put together a viable format or platform to work from.

During qualitative interviews, two participants mentioned topics relating to media and social media training in the CTSDP-BDE. For example, Vicky spoke about media
training and how that has helped her, especially with OT, SE, and QS in her role as a command team spouse. Vicky said,

You know, we talked about that and scenarios of how things can work out well. So, I like training with scenarios and examples. Um, I liked the personality profiling. I liked it because now I can look at the battalion command spouses in our brigade and see a lot of what I learned and I like the fact that it made me examine my own strengths and weaknesses because quite often we don’t stop and really think about that. Um, I also liked – I tell you one of the direct things that helped me. One-to-one it was the interview training. Being the person who actually did the mock interview was probably one of the best half hours of training I’ve ever had in my entire life.

Cindy also spoke about the media training because it helped her with role definition as a command team spouse:

For me it was the media portion that definitely helped make things definitive for me as far as what my role was as a spouse and not as a member of the military, which I am not. I can’t speak for them so I don’t really remember there being anything – or something missed that we didn’t talk about. You guys were really agile.

Conversely, Lisa spoke of how the topic of media was irrelevant in her role as a command team spouse:

I didn’t see any reason at all for the media piece. I really didn’t. Because we aren’t ambushed anymore. It may change in the future, but at one time we had the greater potential for ambushes by the media, however the societal impressions on military support are different now than they were 12 to 15 years ago and to ambush somebody is to attack them in a way that our society right now won’t support so when the media representative wants an interview their going to tread lightly, go through the proper channels. Somebody will be selected to do it. You know media isn’t just welcome to come in to a deployment or redeployment ceremony and snap people. They are given guidelines when they come in and if they tread on those too harshly they are not invited back.

However, Lisa spoke about how important the social media training was to her role, thus, promoting OT and CT as an informal leader:

Social media is 125% prevalent. We no longer have a group of people – our younger generation - they are not used to going from building to building they are used to information being pushed at them. I signed up for an e-mail list and I get all these junk e-mails, but some of them are going to be relevant to me so I’m
going to open it up. So social media I think is important in how we use it, um, what our FRG [family readiness group] and unit Facebook pages should look like. I have absolutely no control over the unit Facebook page. We have people at the unit who monitor what goes on and the comments, what have you. I can say this needs to be up there, so what are some interactive or what do you think is missing pieces and how can you approach getting it up there should be covered.

Lastly, Julie provided unique examples of how the course information helped her personally because she is in a mostly “civilian” brigade situation where there are no military installations close by. Specific to Julie’s situation is the fact that more and more brigades are like the one her husband commands in which civilian employees far outnumber military service members and experiences are not typically military related.

Julie said,

To be honest I haven’t really – well actually, we did talk about a lot about networking. I would say while it’s not been specific to our brigade command, but transitioning into the community, that has been helpful. As you know I’m basically a civilian so there literally is no military here. However, getting involved in my community and the neighborhood that stuff is invaluable. Actually I would say you know, learning a little bit about myself help me put myself out there in the right way I guess. Because you know, we learned a lot about that. Because you always learn more about yourself in those types of classes and there are things that I learned about myself, you know, assets that helped. Basically, talking about networking skills and tying it to that – oh my gosh because you know I’ve tried to get involved more with my neighborhood and the community. In a new neighborhood, you are learning all the different things around here and it’s a lot of work trying to connect to the right people to get you help and that sort of thing.

Overall, the majority of the participants reported positive experiences related to the CTSDP-BDE. However, as in any program evaluation research, both positive and negative viewpoints are exposed, which leads to the second finding in this theme.

- **Finding Two:** All 10 (100%) of the command team spouses indicated that changes could be made to make the CTSDP-BDE program better.

A major finding in this research emerged when the participants were asked what changes (if any) they would make to the CTSDP-BDE program to make it better. In this
study, all of the participants expressed opinions regarding changes or additional curriculum to “enhance the experience” (Amy) for future participants. These responses relay a critical finding because the nature of changing military environments demands changes in preparatory education and training for command team spouses. Furthermore, responses in this theme insinuate an increase in participant LOC in comparison to the lack of statistical significance from ROPELOC surveys. For example, Tina spoke about incorporating content on how to handle “critical response issues” situations and how to work with families in crisis and difficult situations:

Actually, um, you know it’s interesting because you do a lot with – how would I say this – you deal a lot with not just deployments and maybe soldiers being hurt down field, which we – I mean the Army obviously takes a lot, but it’s the other side of that. What I was not necessarily prepared for going through the program was you know – some call it critical response issues. You know, how do we deal with it. Case in point – when you have a family that is in crisis because their 11 year-old daughter has inappropriate pictures of her on the internet and they are being sent around the on-post school. You know, again having those kind of discussions about how to deal with it officially is one thing, but from a human standpoint you know the different programs out there that would be able to maybe assist with that and some things that maybe command team spouses could keep in mind when having to deal with those sort of issues, you know?

What Tina describes is relevant to what some command team spouses might experience in their roles. Perhaps Tina’s realization or increase in LOC developed because of having lived through the experience of being a command team spouse. Her experience and the development of her role as a command team spouse raised additional questions regarding LOC for future research.

A common concern among several participants during the qualitative interviews revolved around role confusion within a command team spousal role. As with any informal leadership role, a clear definition of what is expected is rare and, typically, no sort of job description is available. For example, Nina spoke about role definition in a
brigade-level command environment with more civilian employees than military service members. Her concerns mirrored the observed conversations during the CTSDP-BDE, in which role confusion remained a common concern among the command team spouses from month to month. Nina said:

Well, for me I’m in a different situation. I’m not necessarily in a typical brigade – it’s a garrison command. So, having a couple of ladies there that had Garrison experience – that helped to educate me a little bit, but really – um, even at the brigade level I think I could have walked right in and did it, but here as a Garrison, um I’m finding it really difficult at times to figure out what our role really is. Outside of you know, maintaining that compassion about soldiers and unfortunately, we do not have but one soldier up under us at this time. We are in a situation where there are mostly civilians and few soldiers or military families. . . . Right. So, I’m still working hard to make this as successful as possible. You know, based on my experiences and how we’ve led before. So, we still do the FRG [family readiness group] kind of mentality, we just haven’t had any FRG meetings or things like that. Fortunately, we fall up under the (inaudible) as they do FRG kind of things, but mostly it’s to work with the military again. On that aspect, anyway – because the majority of their folks are military. Though to me it seems like some of the civilians get left out in those situations. . . . I think there needs to be – we need to take a look at how we incorporate the civilians into our military way of doing things. I don’t know if that makes sense or not, but that’s what I think.

Although role definition is a valid concern, it should be noted that the explicit differences between the types of brigades (e.g., training, ROTC, garrison, special operations) would potentially make it impossible to develop a one-size-fits all resource for spouses. Therefore, further clarification of the role definition would be difficult to incorporate into the CTSDP-BDE curriculum.

Three participants spoke specifically about curriculum that would help them support both the unit and their spouses in a command environment. As informal leaders, they felt that these issues were highly important and should be discussed. According to Julie, it would have been helpful to have an overview of the different types of brigade commands to better support her spouse in his role:
Well, it would have been nice to, you know, basically, have an overview of the different types of brigade commands, but that’s just so difficult to do because there are so many different types. It’s just one of those things you can’t quite cover. . . . Everything I was there for was informative and I learned a lot.

Trish also mentioned wanting more information on how specifically to support her husband in a command role:

Um, I think that with the Army changing so much – every position is changing. So in order to be helpful you could maybe include the way the Army is changing promotions and the timelines of our soldiers. More information for the spouses to understand what they are going through. It’s a change for the soldiers and the spouses both. We are so used to it being one way and now they will be changing it all at battalion and brigade level. They are going through a lot of stress with all of the changes so it would be nice to know how to help.

Tonya spoke about how to support geographically dispersed units in her husband’s brigade. His unit is geographically dispersed over 10 different states like many other brigades in the U.S. Army. Tonya said,

Yeah, I guess I’m still in that unknown area where I don’t know what I don’t know. The main thing we touched on is that – you know – how do you support those units that are in remote locations away from the main unit. How do you keep them involved in ways that would support the soldiers and families. Is that even a need? . . . Yeah, I was surprised by that in our class as there were a number of people that had similar brigades in remote locations with units all over the place. So, I was kind of surprised by that.

Contradictory to earlier findings in previous themes surrounding the topics of leadership and perceptions of others, Lisa suggested incorporating more U.S. Army specific information. Lisa believed that much of what was covered throughout the week was somewhat “understood,” at least for her. According to Lisa:

By the time you are there (brigade level) hopefully you have been around a little bit. So we really don’t need so much of what Donita provided. I didn’t anyway. Um, I would rather of had somebody come in and give me – here some regulatory changes and here are some things that we’re telling your spouses that they are going to have to be aware of because we don’t work – the units don’t work for us, we work for the unit and if we don’t have a working knowledge of how the unit is supposed to be functioning then we can’t do our jobs. . . . Um, somebody could come in with a very brief reminder about ACS [Army Community Services].
Somebody could come in with a brief, um, on what JAG [Judge Advocate General] can provide for us and not that we need to go to JAG, but each unit has a JAG representative and for me my chief of staff – and I use mine because it’s my husband’s unit they don’t work for me, but I work for them so I’m approaching it as if these are people I work for. My chief of staff he or she is going to be the person I go to when I want to know can I do this?

As mentioned in previous themes, the inclusion of officer and enlisted spouses in the course is essential to a successful command team and reinforces notions of CT and LA. However, according to Tonya perceptual differences between the ranks continue to exist even today and were prevalent during the weeklong CTSDP-BDE program. According to Tonya, more could be done to enhance inclusion among the ranks in the program:

Um, I felt like during the course of the week there were some times – um, that I felt like why am I here? What is this process about? So there was a few parts of it that I did not think pertained to me or even pertained to spouses when I think – because my husband is a command sergeant major. For example, when the General and Command Sergeants Major of the Army was there the officers went into one direction and we went into the cafeteria. We felt really separated from the conversation because the officer spouses had their husbands with them and we did not. I felt it was directed more towards the green suiters even though they mentioned that they weren’t going to do that. You know what I mean?. . . Sometimes we mixed the suit side of the house and I’ve never pretended to wear my husband’s rank nor get that involved in some of those issues because I don’t have to deal with those issues. You know? I’m not going to um, remember what some of those acronyms are because I don’t have to deal with it every day. So anyway, um, some of it I felt like – and then there were those spouses who truly enjoy that, but for me it didn’t really do anything for me. So, there were only a couple of those things.

Several participants suggested incorporating more traditional information such as protocol and how to recognize volunteers into the curriculum during qualitative interviews, which is indicative of the changing nature of the U.S. Army as it draws down forces and returns to prewar operations. For example, Liz mentioned protocol for brigade-level spouses because she said it was “important to understand appropriate protocol for younger spouses today.” Liz’s statement supports the researcher observations
from the course in which multiple conversations took place that emphasized the importance of traditions in military culture. Liz said,

I cannot remember if we went over protocol, but you know I’m not sure you could even cover that because um, each installation has it’s own protocol. I think Mrs. ——— General’s wife that spoke with us. She tried to cover protocol, but I don’t think she was given enough time. I think a lot of wives tend to dismiss the importance of it, but I think they are going to find they shouldn’t. I’m actually facing that now. Also ——— deals with that a lot from our group. Yes, ——— deals with it a lot and those other wives are probably seeing it. I think it’s not given enough weight. We could probably give it a little more weight in the course. You know it doesn’t necessarily have to be Mrs. ——— , but a lot of people don’t think it’s pertinent and I think it’s still a good thing to learn about. I do see where others may be ambivalent and that they may not understand who does what in the unit.

Vicky relayed how important it is to incorporate information on how to support and recognize volunteers in military communities, which is an important part of the informal leadership role she assumed as a command team spouse. Vicky said,

Um, another thing would be information about volunteer awards, because I know different posts have different things and names, but I think a lot of times that although we appreciate our volunteers we kind of have to be reminded that we need to make sure they know they are appreciated and then have a list of things at like the Army level – volunteer awards that are available and we can put them up for, you know? I mean also what’s the latest techniques? Like are we still using VMIS [Volunteer Management Information System] to track volunteer hours – you know stuff I’m tracking down right now… So, more information on volunteer awards if possible and if not at least at the Army level.

According to a historical review of the CTSDK program literature prior to 2001, these topics were significant to their preparation for the command team spousal role. Although controversial, these topics reinforce military culture, which emphasizes core values, customs, and traditions; hierarchy and chain-of-command; and cohesion and esprit de corps perpetuated over time (Cafforio, 2003). After 12 years at war, many military spouses are unaware of the various traditions upon which the U.S. Army was built. Therefore, incorporating updated versions of protocol into the CTSDK program could be an instrumental way of informing command team spouses.
Theme 5: Education and Preparation for Command Team Spouses

Participants in qualitative interviews represented both senior leadership and experienced military spouses in the U.S. Army. Therefore, this study provided a unique opportunity for much needed participant feedback regarding spousal education. During the interviews, participants were asked to share their opinions regarding spousal educational opportunities offered by the U.S. Army over the course of their active duty spouse’s careers. Initially, most of the participants were hesitant to answer and proceeded with somewhat cautious responses. Generally, everyone interviewed reported cautious yet positive opinions regarding spousal education and preparation for command team roles. Conversely, the participants also rationalized answers with their opinions regarding why the U.S. Army was not doing more to educate spouses at lower levels. Thus, in Theme 5, two separate yet contradictory findings emerged during analysis. Compared to previous themes and nuances heard by the researcher in language and cues from the participants during the interviews, this finding was somewhat expected. Overall, the findings in this theme provided a unique insight and feedback regarding current program operations and possible changes in spousal education for future command team spouses at all levels in the U.S. Army.

- **Finding one:** The majority of command team spouses (7 of 10 or 70%) expressed positive opinions regarding how the U.S. Army educates and prepares command team spouses for command roles.

In reviewing the quantitative data that demonstrated an increase in personal and social abilities and beliefs, researcher observations, and previous themes found from qualitative interviews in this research, this finding was somewhat expected. As mentioned before, lengthy pauses and individual cues from participants that could not be
conveyed through transcription occurred in conversation; however, the participants were somewhat hesitant to answer this question and carefully thought about their responses before replying. This might be indicative of their increased abilities as informal leaders or it might be because of attending the CTSDP-BDE course wherein topics on perceptions, communication, and media encourage participants to “stay in your lane” when asked questions regarding “BIG Army.” According to some participants, the U.S. Army does what it can to get the information out, despite the challenges of how to engage spouses today. For example, Tonya said,

I think they are good. I’m really thrilled with where we are in educating people and I think we are getting closer to having everybody on the same page. Um, so a lot of times because we are civilians it’s optional whether or not we attend these courses so I think if we could get more people to attend more regularly then we could probably could do more with it. You know, when you get people at the beginning then you are going to be more effective. If you get them in the middle of a command or situation then they might be a little lost. So I think we are good, I don’t know that I would suggest changing anything. Even if I had gotten the same ACS [Army Community Services] leadership courses over again I always learn something new every time I go. So, I think the big problem is how to try to get more people, because knowledge if power. Even if you are not going to assume a leadership role I always say – if you know what is available to you – even if you are not going to be an FRG [family readiness group] leader – if you know what’s available you could at least help someone else out.

Liz suggested that the U.S. Army’s programs are much better today than in the past and how easily the language (e.g., “command teams”) can be changed through the “rumor mill.” Liz said,

I think that compared to when I came in . . . . I married —— when he was in company command – they have grown leaps and bounds for preparing spouses for command. We are with our spouses and encouraged to be in a team command. They have gone from Family Support to he is the “commander” to now we are in a “command team.” Now they seem to be going away from “command teams.” I don’t know if you’ve noticed that. . . . Yes. I have heard that now they want to go from saying they are command teams to he’s the commander. Now that is just something I’ve heard being tossed around and that’s okay because I still think education is so much more about – they are more into educating spouses. I think they are just very particular about how you say things now-a-days.
Vicky mentioned that she believes that the U.S. Army provides more than enough information, but that it can be difficult to reach everyone in an organization as big as the U.S. Army:

I think that the Army provides us with all of the tools we need. It’s just a matter of people having different personalities and what they will take advantage of. I’ve always felt that – at least at Fort Hood where we spent a lot of time – that any agency or program you need existed there. As long as you know where to find it you just can’t complain. So, I always saw myself as and I told all my spouses at every level that I may not know the answer to your question, but I do know how to find it. So I think that’s true for FRG [family readiness group] leaders as well for the most part. There are training courses that you can take that will help you feel less anxious and not be thrown in the deep end. If you are going to step up and say hey I’m taking this new position, then you are probably going to step up and take the course that is offered. I don’t mean to sound harsh on that, but some people decide – oh I don’t want to ask, you know whether they are too shy or don’t have the time. You can’t expect to know this stuff automatically. I think training always helps.

Amy stated her support for what the U.S. Army is currently doing to educate those who want to be educated, while she also highlighted specific challenges to reaching new or inexperienced spouses. Amy said,

I think there is a certain amount of accountability and I don’t think that I can speak for a lot of people. You have to have desire to learn and you have to have a desire to share in those programs. I think the Army offers a lot of good opportunities AFTB [Army Family Team Building] online and a lot of good forums – chat forums online. There’s – I mean, you know pretty much the installation trainings, you know service – IMCOM [Installation Management Command of the U.S. Army] – anybody, they all have Facebook and Web pages that you can get a lot of information from. Um, so I don’t think the information is the problem. In some instances there is almost too much information, like where do you go? You know? It’s almost overwhelming, you know? Um, to find what you need. I don’t think we have a good person-to-person mentor type of program where you have a battle buddy type of experience. I think we are getting into such an electronic age that I think the people element is, um, getting less and less. The Army was built on people and I think we really need that component. Still develop some really great spouses, you know? And also I think that a lot of people are not living so much on post anymore, you know unless they are in an area where there’s really heavy services. I think you are finding a lot more people that are bridging out beyond the gate now, you know? That impacts –I think some of the opportunities for mentorship and things of that nature.
Trish spoke about the CTSDP-BDE PCC course and how enlisted service member spouses should be more involved. Trish’s response regarding opportunities for enlisted versus officer spouses was ongoing throughout the interview, which emphasized how important it is for the U.S. Army to provide more opportunities for enlisted spouses at varying levels. Trish said,

I think that the PCC [Pre-Command Course] is a great course for spouses. I think that I would advise anyone going into the brigade course to come and take it and more enlisted spouses should take it as well. The reason fewer enlisted spouses are coming to those courses is because when we get to that battalion and brigade level we’ve had so many bad experiences we don’t want anything to do with the Army anymore. However, I think that if we had a good start like that course it would probably benefit us more. I think that the PCC course is a wonderful course and everyone should take that class. I mean you get so much out of 5 days and everyone should take it.

Lisa provided a “realistic perspective” regarding how the U.S. Army prepares spouses for informal leadership and command team roles, but questioned whether educational opportunities were offered at the company level. Lisa said,

I think they are doing the best they can with what they’ve got. I say that because every unit is so different and you can’t personalize mass trainings. All you can do is give what you can give. There has been more of an emphasis on almost train the trainer. The brigade-level spouse helps with the battalion level spouse in letting them know what they need and the battalion level does that at the company level. But you know, we are going to have more gaps in knowledge because we are switching back to garrison mentality. So, I think that the Army is doing the best they can with what they have got and I’m not saying that what they are doing isn’t effective I’m just not sure how applicable their being because I don’t see what’s being taught to the company level.

Lastly, Tina spoke about how the U.S. Army was doing a “great job” and suggested ways that it could realistically grow by recommending format changes and more online opportunities for spouses with scheduling concerns. Tina said,

Um, you know I think that from a standpoint of what is realistic I think they are doing a great job. It’s, you know, one of those things – I think that a lot of the information and training is more on the company level because that’s where the FRG [family readiness group] is very hands on and I didn’t go through a lot of
formalized training at that point so I’m not sure what’s available to them, if anything. But, you know going through the battalion level course and then the brigade level I was very impressed with both. I was actually at the battalion level when it was under the other format and I like the new format better. I have to say. Um, so I think they are doing the best they can within the scope of what is realistic, but again emphasizing if there were online training that could help spouses I would definitely recommend those.

Overall, the participants found that spousal educational opportunities in the U.S. Army were exceptional. However, concerns for improvement and recommendations for programs benefitting future command team spouses coincided with these positive remarks, which leads to the second finding within Theme 5 of this study.

- **Finding Two:** The majority of the command team spouses (7 of 10 or 70%) indicated that the U.S. Army could be doing more to enhance the opportunities and quality of education for command team spouses at different levels of command.

A significant finding from this research is the understanding that, although the U.S. Army is doing a good job overall in preparing spouses for command team roles at the battalion and brigade levels, more could be done to enhance opportunities for spouses at the company level. Four of the 10 spouses suggested that more could be done to prepare spouses at the “junior levels of leadership” (Lisa). Cindy said,

I think that at the company command level, which is basically where the rubber meets the road there is not good training for spouses. . . . I think that the company command spouses are like you know at a loss.

Likewise, Lisa spoke specifically about training at the company level in the Medical Corp when it came to running FRGs:

Well, too often we’re expecting our Company spouses to run the FRGs [family readiness group] and if you are a Company commander and you have a spouse that wants to be involved you are automatically given the option to be the FRG leader. Okay, that makes the FRG the company commander spouses program. In a way that’s good because it is the Company commander’s program if your FRG is
at the Company level. Where we get into issues is you don’t want it to be Mrs. Colonel’s program, so at the colonel – battalion/brigade level – they need the information, but they need to be mentoring more than involved. Because the hospitals are set up so very differently than any other line unit we sort of skip a level. We’ve got Company level FRGs [family readiness groups], but we have no battalion level leadership…It goes from company to brigade in the medical field.

Julie mentioned that the U.S. Army is doing a good job with education and preparation for command roles; however, scheduling issues, time constraints, and child care remain ongoing concerns for spouses who seek to take advantage of training or educational program opportunities. Julie said,

I think we are doing as much as we can do and I think it’s really good. The issues that I had were you know basically scheduling because of my kids. I really wanted to do the programs, but I couldn’t always leave my kids for that long a period of time. As far as this one, if we hadn’t been local I don’t think I would have been able to attend. My kids come first. If there is anything they could do better it would be to be more flexible with schedules and offer other options for people like something online, you know? …I think when they do get everything together it’s really good, but you know they need to be more flexible with scheduling and when they do get us together in a class environment they need to offer more time for spouses to talk so we can prepare for the role.

Amy spoke about the overwhelming amount of information available and how it all seemed to “overlap.” Interestingly, Amy’s insight highlights the questions regarding organizational structures within the U.S. Army and the problems that it has in disseminating and controlling information. Amy suggested having one major authority over spousal educational programs because, at times, it can be “too much information.” Amy said,

Yeah, there’s almost too much information out there. I mean we had information that I never even knew existed. I really want to get to the meat and potatoes, so I kind of know the basics and navigate the information, but it’s just so overwhelming. Besides, who is the authority over it all? I don’t know who that is. . . . There’s all these different web pages – Facebook, Army, etc. There should be a centralized marketing arm of people handling the different subsets.
On another note, Trish spoke about her experiences at the company level from an enlisted service member spouse perspective and how, in hindsight, she would have liked to have received education or training opportunities to better prepare her “years ago.” She also provided insight into how the U.S. Army could provide more educational opportunities to spouses by offering a minicourse or online courses. Trish said,

There wasn’t anything when I was at that level. You know when my husband made E8 I was a first sergeant’s wife and that was that. You got no guidance – nothing. So, I think it should be done before this level. You know I remember speaking with someone during that class and saying that if this was offered when my husband was a First Sergeant or even sooner these things would have been even more helpful. I remember thinking I’ve already been through this. I’ve been dealing with these issues already and been through these steps. Now that it’s already happened it is hindsight. I could have been more prepared than I was before. If I had had this when he was at a lower level, I may have handled things a little bit different instead of saying – you know what, I’m done with this. So I wish it was offered at a lower level, but I understand that funding and everything it might not be done. Maybe some type of mini course or online course – I think that would be great.

Again, Trish’s interview regarding opportunities for junior level enlisted spouses suggests that the U.S. Army is neglecting a large untapped resource within its organization. Therefore, future programs and leadership opportunities for all ranks should be provided to promote and foster a culture of AI over one’s military career.

Although some participants focused primarily on the junior levels of education and training opportunities, others focused specifically on the CTSDP program at the battalion level. According to Nina, specific things from the brigade-level program could possibly be incorporated at the battalion level to enhance the experience of those attending. Nina said,

To be honest I’m going to say I’ve found that battalion PCC (Pre-Command) Course to me was more like a counseling session. . . . They spend more time doing group work, um versus receiving education and experience. You know having experienced people outside of Mrs. Casey and the Sergeant Major of the Army’s wife at that time – I can’t think of her name. You know, outside of them
coming in and talking to us everything you know, seemed like I was in group counseling. . . . versus education. The only thing I can say is that I took out of that when I went through in 07’ – excuse me 06’ was the – um, you know how they have the command teams set goals? . . . Yeah, the charter. That was the only thing I found useful. . . . I think having more forums, you know – I like the didactic piece and the brigade piece, but at the battalion level I think it was used a little bit more beneficial if we could take some of that from the brigade course and give it to the battalion folks. I know that you all talked about certain things being incorporated at the battalion level, but I think having more experiential interaction with prior folks who have been through that. So, people could have the questions and the answers, you know what I’m saying? That’s what I think. . . . Yes, panel discussions. . . . The mentors in the class – panel discussions – I think that’s more needed. That way you covered the bases with everybody’s learning style. Because there are some folks – they get it, but there’s another piece to it they need to ask somebody.

Lastly, Liz spoke about her experiences as a new company commander spouse and the differences between today’s expectations and what she went through in the past.

Congruent with responses from other participants in this study, Liz suggested the need for continued education to carry on military traditions, which she stated is what “we need to keep in the Army.” Interestingly, Liz also addressed the issue of funding for spousal education and the possible ROI, which in a period of downsizing within the U.S. Army is an ongoing concern. Liz said,

I would say the only thing about the education now-a-days, which is leaps and bounds better, is the thing I brought up with you. I noticed they are going away from some of the traditions we need to keep in the Army. They are not educating the junior leadership – I’m not just talking about your captain and lieutenant wives I’m talking about your NCO [non-commissioned officer] wives. Their losing the traditions of teaching those captain, lieutenant, master sergeant and staff sergeant spouses to be mentors to the younger spouses coming in. . . . I will tell you will find that just a little bit of money will go a long way, because it’s symptomatic. When I was a battalion spouse, no when — was a company commander, the battalion spouse took me in and handed me the Army wives handbook. They had already folded the pages, highlighted things, etc. When I became a battalion spouse, I will tell you that those company commander spouses had no idea. Now there were no expectations of them, but when we were company commander spouses you didn’t have to be FRG [family readiness group] leader or whatever, but there was ongoing mentorship to others. The company commander spouses had no idea. Nothing was carried on or followed through on. What happened was there was a lack of family support and we had to
start a whole program not to have something in place to make them contribute, but to help make them feel like they were part of something. You know, it builds relationships. It doesn’t take a lot you see, it just takes a little education.

Liz’s response addressed many of the research questions in this study and the greater question of ROI from a program such as CTSDP-BDE. As Liz stated, “A little bit of money will go a long way, because it’s symptomatic.” This in itself is a powerful response because spousal involvement through informal leadership roles and volunteering provides invaluable returns for the U.S. Army as an organization. It should be noted that, without spousal involvement, the organization could and would potentially crumble. Therefore, maintaining educational programs for future spouses is imperative to the success of the U.S. Army.

**Qualitative Summary**

Qualitative data in this study was analyzed using a constant comparative method. Overall, five themes (personal effect, life experience, prior spousal education, CTSDP-BDE curriculum, and education and preparation) and seven subsequent findings were found because of thematic analysis. Results were verified through outside peer reviewers during the process and results are reported in this chapter with supporting details and illustrative quotations from participants for explanation. As in keeping with the nonexperimental, embedded concurrent design, the qualitative findings are supportive of the quantitative findings and connections for both were explained throughout the chapter.

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided quantitative and qualitative results of this mixed-methods study. The quantitative section described ROPELOC survey results for CTSDP study participants for March 2013 – September 2013. Initially, a brief description of the survey response rate and descriptive data of demographic information (May 2013 – September
2013) results were reported. Then, analysis and results from the nonparametric Wilcoxon test were outlined and reported by both the individual ROPELOC scales and overall subquestions. Lastly, the quantitative analysis results from Chi-Square and Fisher Exact tests were reported, which were used to determine the impact of the demographic variables on the participant responses in SQ 1–4.

The qualitative themes and findings in this chapter emerged through a constant comparative analysis, involving researcher observations, interviews, historical data collection, transcription, member checking, independent coding, peer review, and researcher reflection. Five emergent themes (personal effect, prior life experiences, prior spousal education, CTSDP-BDE curriculum, and education and preparation of command team spouses) and seven major findings were reported with the participant responses used for supporting detail to support, explain, and provide deeper insight to the quantitative findings. Overall, several questions emerged during the analysis and connection of the quantitative and qualitative findings. Several findings were found to be incongruent and questions surrounding the data emerged in the process. Further discussion of these questions and findings is found in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter includes a summary of the study, including a brief review of the purpose, research design, and overall findings. Following the summary is a discussion and interpretation of the findings from Chapter 4. The final sections of this chapter include contributions and implications to the literature, implications for practice, recommendations, recommendations for future research, and a final reflection from the researcher.

Study Summary

In this study, the effects of a formal education and LDP (i.e., CTSDP-BDE) given to spouses of senior military service members (command team spouses) in preparation for brigade-level command team roles and environments were explored. A nonexperimental, embedded, concurrent, mixed-methods approach was employed to answer the following research question:

- Can formal educational programs influence life effectiveness for adult participants who assume informal leadership roles?

The findings from the quantitative survey in this study indicate that the CTSDP-BDE course does influence life effectiveness as defined by the scales in the ROPELOC for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles. Rich, descriptive examples and emergent themes (personal effect, prior life experiences, prior spousal education, CTSDP-BDE curriculum, and education and preparation for command team spouses) from qualitative data support findings from the quantitative analysis and providing a deeper insight into the relationship of the CTSDP-BDE and spousal education in the U.S. Army today.
Discussion of Findings

In this study, an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data was conducted separately (a) to answer the hypothesis and subquestions regarding participant change (according to the ROPELOC instrument) as a result of attending the CTSDP-BDE program, and (b) to answer the explanatory questions regarding the specifics of the CTDSP-BDE program and potential outcomes for CTSDP-BDE participants in their informal leadership roles as command team spouses. The findings provided insight into which aspects of the program influenced outcomes for command team spouses and provided supportive or refuting evidence regarding the quantitative results in this study. Although not expected, a considerable overlap occurred between the quantitative and qualitative findings that emerged. Thus, the following section provides discussion and further interpretation of the following sections: Life Effectiveness, Organizational Skills, Active Involvement (AI), Locus of Control, and Spousal Education.

Life Effectiveness

Both quantitative and qualitative findings in this study indicate that the CTSDP-BDE positively increased individual aspects of life effectiveness for the participants. According to Sibthorp and Arthur-Banning (2004) and Culhane (2004), life effectiveness is measured at the individual level as an increase in both personal and professional skill components. During the qualitative interviews, several participants noted an increase in communication skills because of attending the CTSDP-BDE program; thus, suggesting a personal increase in life effectiveness. According to these participants, the CTSDP-BDE provided an opportunity to hone their communication skills and to learn new techniques for communicating with others, which directly influenced working relationships between
themselves and their command team counterparts (officer or enlisted spouse) in the brigade environment.

Having communication skills and understanding perceptual differences is an important component of life effectiveness for command team spouses. These skills help command team spouses to build connections and strengthen bonds, which can help them to reinforce strong relationships in military communities in which social support networks are the norm (Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003). The development of strong communication skills supports the development of social capital in which command team spouses can potentially build bridges within communities and influence the U.S. Army as an organization by building and establishing networks that support families within military communities. Massello (2003) suggested that increased communication skills and better working relationships among command team members could decrease the effects of stress in a command environment, which is imperative to building strong support networks within any unit. Therefore, communication skills can potentially provide significant impact on one’s life effectiveness and overall well-being as a command team spouse.

**Active Involvement**

Active involvement in this study was found to have contradicting quantitative and qualitative findings. In SQ3, the quantitative results indicate that the CTSDP-BDE program did not elicit a statistically significant increase in participant Active Involvement (AI) z=270, p<.05. As mentioned in Chapter 4, this finding makes sense because the topics covered in the CTSDP-BDE program do not necessarily suggest or promote the participants as being actively involved. However, the qualitative data from the interviews contradict this finding because all of the command team spousal participants reported
having high levels of AI. In fact, the multiple responses across all of the themes provide different reasons for AI over the course of the participants’ active duty spouses’ careers, including prior educational opportunities, mentorship, and expectations.

**Prior education.** Qualitative findings in this study revealed that all of the command team spouse participants took advantage of certain educational and training opportunities provided by the U.S. Army on an individually determined basis and attended several programs throughout their tenure as military spouses. This finding is key for the U.S. Army because it clearly indicates how spousal educational opportunities are influential to military spouses who assume informal leadership roles and, in many cases, continue to volunteer after leaving their role as a command team spouse.

Participants saw spousal educational opportunities as primary experiences that prepared them for informal leadership roles in U.S. Army communities, especially at lower levels of command. However, when it came to the brigade-level environment some of the participants found that what was offered needed to be taken to the next level. For example, Lisa spoke of her experiences over the years as both a participant in spousal educational programs and as an AFTB instructor, which is an unpaid volunteer position. When discussing AFTB and the connection to a command team role, Lisa said,

*I honestly don’t think that attending those courses offers a great deal of preparation to be thrust into a highly visible role . . . . Too often we go into the position of the battalion or brigade and we don’t have the background for the rules and the regulations that we are required to follow.*

Lisa’s response, as well as other participants’ responses reported in Chapter 4, provides new insight into the structure and development of U.S. Army spousal educational programs prior to the CTSDP program at the battalion and brigade level, which historically claimed to be “progressive in nature” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a.
What Lisa and other participants indicated through their responses was that opportunities for spousal educational programs are influential; however, the programs are no longer progressive in nature and should be changed so that the spouses can properly be prepared for command team roles.

In addition to the organizational structures of spousal education, a key finding for the continued involvement of the military spouses emerged from this research. Interestingly, all of the participants in the qualitative interviews shared the commonality of having attended multiple spousal educational opportunities over the years. This finding, in connection to the previous findings surrounding AI, suggests that military spouses who attend programs early on continue to be active and attend programs repeatedly over their tenure as military spouses. Additionally, this finding clearly indicates that military spouses are repeat customers in spousal educational opportunities, which further supports Reitze’s (2003) view on social role theory suggesting that “earlier levels of role involvement influence later levels” (p. 424) and “engagement in one role encourages engagement in other roles” (p. 424). Essentially, spousal education at earlier levels appears to lay a strong foundation for participation by military spouses within military communities, consequently promoting AI, the building of capital, and the overall perpetuation of military tradition and culture.

**Mentorship.** In qualitative interviews participants spoke about significant past relationships that greatly influenced their preparation as command team spouses. Some of the participants noted significant mentors upon whom they modeled their own behaviors and actions in a command team role. Still, other participants identified peers and instructors from spousal educational programs who had influenced them in becoming informal leaders. Most importantly, all of the participants, at one point or another during
interviews, noted how important the mentor–mentee relationship is to military spouses and how, combined with attending the CTSDP-BDE program, it increased their abilities of learning to cope with different situations. This commonality highlights the fact that there are potentially multiple ways to educate a command team spouse. As noted in historical research, military spousal education often involves a “learn by doing” or experiential method, which is indicative of how many mentor–mentee relationships work (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013a, p. 24). The notion of meeting the learner where they are and catering to their learning style is a common theme found throughout the field of adult education (Knowles, 1980). Furthermore, it is in keeping with the program mission of the CTSDP-BDE. However, concerns for involvement among lower enlisted ranks, scheduling difficulties, and childcare issues remain significant barriers to spouses wanting to participant in spousal education, but being unable to do so. Therefore, in addition to progressive formal educational opportunities the U.S. Army should consider implementing a formal mentorship program to meet the needs of military spouses today.

**Expectations.** In qualitative interviews several participants alluded to feeling certain expectations as command team spouses. For example, in Theme 1, Cindy said, “I don’t think anyone ever told me that, but it was implied that, as a spouse, we should really stick around because the Army needs you.” In her full response, Cindy suggested that she had experienced certain expectations from others in past command roles and environments; however, she was thankful that facilitators and general speakers in the CTSDP-BDE respected her and her family’s personal decision-making process by not making her feel that she was required to participate in everything. According to Cindy,

I think the other thing I heard – out of everybody’s mouth if they even talked about it was that you have to make a very personal decision and your family
makes a personal decision and it’s not going to be the same for everybody . . . . It’s the mindset that we are a team and that this is our life.

Cindy’s response regarding expectations supports Harrell (2001b) who suggested that U.S. Army spouses participate in informal leadership roles because of unspoken expectations by others in the military environment. Whether realistic or not, the perception that an active military spouse is seen as an extension of the service member can influence the command climate and culture. Therefore, expectations can be both detrimental (Harrell, 2001b) and the potentially one aspect that promotes the AI of command team spouses.

**Locus of Control**

In this study, the CTSDP-BDE program did not yield a statistically significant increase in participant measure of locus of control $z=372, p<.05$ during quantitative analysis. The results from this finding were surprising, considering that several topics in the CTSDP-BDE curriculum potentially influence one’s LOC. Although questions emerged regarding sample size, participant age, personality differences, and individual differences between the IL and EL scale, qualitative results clearly spoke of personal accounts of how the program affected interview participants’ IL and EL. For example, an anonymous participant said,

> The question of if I succeed in life will be because of my own efforts. . . . When you believe you are the only one that makes a difference or you think you can do everything alone, you succeed at nothing.

This person’s comment suggested that he or she takes responsibility for his or her own actions and success, which could be an indicator of IL and EL outcomes. It does not explain how or why the individual scores increased in this study.
The existing literature surrounding LOC indicates that personality and age can effect one’s IL and EL in life (Rotter, 1966, 1975; De Man & Devisse, 1987; Ng et al, 2006). Therefore, age within this sample population might potentially be an indicator in the lack of quantitative significance. However, the researcher’s experiences and course observations in this study provide insight into an alternative answer to this question. One’s IL and EL in a given situation is not only affected by adult development and experiences, but also by the culture in which one resides. The military has often been called a greedy institution because it often governs the life of the service member as well as the military family members within its organization (Segal, 1986a; Cafforio, 2003). Over time, military spouses master the ability to cope with change (CH), which is supported by findings in this research. However, qualitative findings suggest that the ability to cope with change comes only after having experienced the same event regularly over years of practice and perhaps only at the expense of letting go of one’s IL and EL in a given situation. Therefore, with the differing quantitative and qualitative findings in this study, it appears that participant IL and EL diminished within the CTSDP-BDE military educational environment and was sustained at an individual level during follow-up interviews 6 months later when the participants expressed a greater sense of control in their situations. Alternatively, the CTSDP-BDE may have potentially influenced the participants’ abilities to identify measures that would ease the transition, helping the reclamation of IL and EL among the participants in this study.

Spousal Education

The participants in this study were military spouses who participated in multiple command team roles prior to the brigade level. Their responses provided a unique insight regarding future changes and educational opportunities for future command team spouses.
at all levels of command. Although inference from the quantitative results specifically concerns the CTSDP-BDE program, the emergent qualitative data provides much needed feedback regarding spousal educational curriculum and organizational issues within the U.S. Army.

**Curriculum.** Several participants suggested topics that should or could be incorporated to the CTSDP-BDE for future command team spouses. Some believed that traditional information such as protocol and how to recognize volunteers for their contributions should be incorporated into the curriculum. After a comparative review of CTSDP curriculum prior to 2001 and existing literature surrounding the role of military spouses (Harrell, 2001b), these topics were instrumental in the preparation for command team spouses. These ideas reinforce key aspects of military culture, which emphasizes (a) core values, customs, and traditions; (b) hierarchy and chain-of-command; and (c) cohesion and esprit de corps perpetuated over time (Cafforio, 2003). Incorporating updated versions of protocol and how to recognize volunteers into the CTSDP-BDE curriculum could be an instrumental way of informing command team spouses, who often mentor and pay it forward through personal narratives and storytelling (Thomson, 2011).

Amongst all of the suggestions and participant responses regarding curriculum changes, critical response issues were viewed as being current and applicable to the command team role. Command team spouses often find themselves working with families in crisis or difficult situations. Tina spoke about her experience working with a family in crisis when their 11-year-old daughter had inappropriate pictures taken of her and spread through the on-post school. She spoke about how to respond to this family in crisis from a human and motherly viewpoint. What would one say to that family?
Understanding how to act, how to advise them, or how to address these critical response issues comes with the territory of being a command team spouse in many units.

**Organizational issues.** Some participants expressed concern over spousal educational programs with relation to family scheduling and childcare arrangements. These issues are major factors relating to AI because they affect a large majority of spouses looking to participate in educational opportunities. Currently, the CTSDP program requires the command team spouse to attend a 5-day, face-to-face course at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. However, U.S. Army Community Service programs such as the AFTB series are offered face-to-face at different installations and online. Given this, perhaps online course offerings for CTSDP at both the battalion and brigade levels might not only mitigate scheduling and childcare issues, but could also potentially increase the participation of future command team spouses.

A major finding in this study concerns the apparent lack of preparation for command team spouses at junior levels. According to Cindy, spouses at the company command level are at a loss for educational programs to prepare them for a command team role because a serious lack of available training exists. Additionally, Liz suggested in her response that educating junior leadership is vital to carrying on military traditions. Liz stated,

> They’re losing the traditions of teaching those captain, lieutenant, master sergeant and staff sergeant spouses to be mentors to the younger spouses coming in. . . . I will tell you will find that just a little bit of money will go a long way, because it’s symptomatic.

For junior military spouses, the development of expectations and perceptions from prior experiences is common in military culture and can often promote a cultural divide among military spouses, family members, and even civilians in surrounding and supporting
communities if they are not cultivated properly through education and mentoring from others. According to Kim and Kim (2009), cultural differences and divides can influence, directly and indirectly, one’s quality of life. Education and preparation for command team spouses at every level is essential to promoting military traditions, quality of life, and valuable life skills that lead to success in military families and communities.

Lastly, a concern expressed in this research by participants relates to the amount of information available from varying resources in the U.S. Army. Participants in this study reported how the U.S. Army provides a large amount information for military spouses and families. Conversely, participants also indicated that they experienced information overload and became confused at times. When talking about available information and resources, Amy stated, “I really want to get to the meat and potatoes, so I kind of know the basics and navigate the information, but it’s just so overwhelming. Besides, who is the authority over it all?” Amy raised a very good point in her response. As an organization, the U.S. Army should consider one governing authority over spousal education and information available, which could streamline resources and mitigate potential confusion.

**Contributions and Implications to the Literature**

The findings in this study reveal a complex picture of how the CTSDP-BDE influences command team spouses and their roles as informal leaders in military communities. To bring clarity to this picture, further discussion of how this study expands the breadth of academic knowledge and literature is warranted. In the following section, the guiding literature found in Chapter 2 will again be examined and further explain how findings in this study contribute, support, or refute previous research respecting the field of adult education. Contributions have been made to the theoretical
underpinnings (SCT, theory of life effectiveness, SRT) used in this study and scholarly connections to the existing literature are discussed regarding the findings in this study. As a refresher and guide, Figure 9: Concept Map of the Literature Review, is provided to connect the following four sections: Command Team Spouse Role, Command Team Spouse Education, Program Evaluation Using the ROPELOC, and Spousal Influence.

**Figure 9 Concept Map of Literature Review**

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**Command Team Spouse Role**

The historical and recent accounts of military spouses suggest that a major paradigm shift has occurred over the last several decades in the way spouses view their role and how the military perceives spousal contributions to the organization (Edwards, 2008; Harrell 2001b; Massello, 2003; Papanek, 1973; Rosen & Durand, 2000; Rosetto, 2009; Segal, 1986a, 1986b; Thomson, 2011). In highlighting these changes, literature surrounding the evolving nature of spousal roles emerged during this study. According to Harrell (2001b), the subservient role of a spouse to her active duty husband was mothballed (p. 55) in the late 20th century. The role of spouses today suggests that their
involvement has resulted from a combination of informal expectations within military communities and a found sense of duty to their country (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013d). In this study, the qualitative responses from Theme 1 (personal effect) both support and refute Harrell’s (2001b) research surrounding informal expectations of military spouses in a command environment. Harrell (2001b) suggested that U.S. military spouses participate in informal leadership roles because of unspoken expectations by others in the military environment. Whether realistic or not, the perception of an active military spouse is seen as an extension of the service member and can influence command climate and culture. In her interview, Cindy suggested that she had experienced certain expectations from others in past command roles and environments, and that she was thankful that facilitators and general speakers in the CTSDP-BDE respected her and her family’s personal decision-making process by not making her feel that it was necessary that she participate in everything. According to Cindy, “It’s the mindset that we are a team and that this is our life.”

Social role theory provides a clear framework for understanding how change occurs over time and how programs such as the CTSDP-BDE can influence and perpetuate the acculturation of one’s military spousal development. In research surrounding social role theory, both Reitzes (2003) and Smith and Taylor (2010) suggested that individuals who embrace their roles and become actively engaged in activities surrounding those roles can have positive effects on their adult psychological well-being. Generally, the findings from this study support current social role theory research by demonstrating that one’s beliefs and perceptions about one’s abilities are constructed by a set of culturally acceptable norms and expectations that people
internalize as they become socialized (Eagly, 1987; Reitzes, 2003, Smith & Taylor, 2010).

Although social role theory provides insight into a complex understanding of military spousal development, it also offers possible insight into why command team spouses assume informal leadership roles in their communities. Reitzes (2003) identified seven factors influencing role engagement across social roles, including “earlier levels of involvement influence later levels, . . . engagement in one role encourages engagement in other roles, [and] . . . the greater the identification with a role, the greater the role participation” (p. 424). The findings from this research directly support factors in Reitzes (2003) study by demonstrating how prior spousal education and significant life experiences with mentors influence command team spousal involvement and consequently, their informal leadership roles over time. The participants in this study reported an overall increase in the perception of their abilities as informal leaders and during the qualitative interviews, provided further insight into how they believe the CTSDP-BDE directly influenced this outcome. Furthermore, the majority of the participants specifically mentioned that the CTSDP-BDE curriculum (e.g., perceptional differences, conflict resolution, and effective communication with others) influenced their situations. The perceived increase in participant abilities because of attending the CTSDP-BDE program supports existing literature surrounding the characteristics of effective informal leadership, in which one understands the importance of listening to others as a basis for helping followers to reach goals or accomplish tasks (Bass, 1990; Covey, 1989; Knox, 2000, Thomson, 2011). Overall, this finding may well expand the knowledge on the existing informal leadership research by connecting the theoretical principles from social role theory to known traits of effective informal leadership.
Command Team Spouse Education

Along with the changing military spousal role over the last half of the 20th century, education and training for command team spouses has also evolved. Historically, education for military spouses has remained experiential in nature. Today’s CTSDP-BDE program provides educational opportunities grounded in adult educational principles that can offer participants an alternative to past course offerings in the CTS program. The CTSDP-BDE program is grounded in theoretical principles of andragogy in which the climate is positive, curriculum is applicable, and methodologies are appropriate (Knowles, 1980). The findings from this research suggest that the participants perceived the CTSDP-BDE program positively, specifically noting the class environment, personal experience, teaching styles of the various facilitators, and curriculum that they believed was influential in their role. Additionally, the findings from the qualitative interviews also suggested that participation in the CTSDP-BDE resulted in a transformative experience for some participants. For example, in Theme 4, several participants discussed certain aspects of the CTSDP-BDE curriculum where they faced difficult situations in their informal leadership roles and how they realized the information they had learned from the program had equipped them with the knowledge to handle the situation effectively. Liz stated that she suddenly “found a voice” because of what she learned in the program, which provided an overall positive outcome for her as a command team spouse. According to Baumgartner (2003) and Mezirow (2000), when assumptions are challenged and reflective discourse of the process occurs, personal change (and transformative learning) is promoted. Therefore, the personal change that Liz and other participants reported in the qualitative interviews clearly supports the notion that transformative experiences occurred.
In addition to highlighting the transformative experience that adult participants expressed in this study, findings in this research provide further insight to the field of adult education by expanding the breadth of knowledge surrounding what Fenwick (2008) terms as workplace learning (p. 19), in which the combination of both informal learning and formal presentations occur. The CTSDP-BDE offers learning similar to what Fenwick (2008) describes, however, the combination of informal learning and formal presentations for outcomes is not competency based in nature as typically noted with workplace learning. The role of a command team spouse is purely voluntary and lacks the typical structure of a workplace. However, participant responses clearly indicate that some command team spouses consider their role to be a job, albeit an unpaid position. Thus, findings in this research potentially expand the definition of workplace learning to include workplace education for voluntary and informal leadership roles in an organization.

Although the individual participant outcomes varied, SCT provided a framework for understanding how spousal education in the CTSDP-BDE, the military environment, and personality differences affect command team spouse development over time. According to Bandura’s (1986) triadic reciprocal determinism approach, personality, environmental influences, and behavior are factors that mutually influence one another. Although participants in this study did not report explicit connections to these three factors, the findings in this study also suggest and reinforce the notion that “people and situations influence one another”, which is supportive of the existing interactionist perspective of SCT (Cervone et al., 2006, p. 173). Furthermore, participants in the CTSDP-BDE program are encouraged to be agentic, which is also indicative of SCT principles (Cervone et al., 2006, p. 173).
Although SCT provides insight into the CTSDP-BDE program, the varying perspectives do not account for the cultural aspect of the military environment. However, if one combines SCT, SRT, and Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory of development, one can further understand the role that military culture plays in the learning process and role development for CTSDP-BDE participants. According to Vygotsky, social interaction precedes development, which is in keeping with military spousal role development over time as findings from this study in Theme 1 (prior experiences) and Theme 3 (prior spousal education) support. Generally, this study provides connections for future investigators to demonstrate a socially mediated process of development for military spouses and expounds on the existing literature surrounding SCT and sociocultural theory of development.

**Program Evaluation Using the ROPELOC**

With changing environments and continued budget cuts throughout the U.S. Army, a need for an extensive evaluation of outcomes in the CTSDP-BDE was somewhat evident (U.S. Department of the Army 2013d). The U.S. Army as an organization devotes significant resources in time and money to the CTSDP-BDE program; therefore, demonstrating return on investment (ROI) for the CTSDP-BDE is potentially important for continued future funding of the program. Throughout evaluation literature over the last 20 years, most evaluation methods typically have included some form of Kirkpatrick’s model (Figure 5). However, in recent years, theoretical or mixed-methods approaches to evaluation research have become a way to accommodate the complexities of programs and to meet the unique needs of each individual participant (Chatterji, 2008; Carbone, 2009; Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Thus, the methodologies used in this study support the use of mixed-methods for evaluation research because the findings showed
that the research had successfully measured change in life effectiveness and program influence regarding participant behavior and outcomes in their informal leadership roles.

In this study, the ROPELOC remained important in the success of measuring participant outcomes over time in the CTSDP-BDE program. Although previous research demonstrates that the ROPELOC instrument effectively measured outcomes related to life effectiveness in adolescent, adventure, experiential learning programs (Culhane, 2004; Ellis et al., 2009; Imholt, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Luo, 2011; Merrell, 2009; Ulkins, 2007); university students (Sariolghalam, & Noruzi, 2010); nursing facilities (Weitz, 2010); self-concept awareness educational seminars (Liggins, 2012); and rural women leaders (Sylvia et al., 2010), this study remains the only identifiable research, which is relevant to the evaluation of adult learners in a LDP.

**Spousal Influence**

The effects of military culture and accounts of military spousal influence and dedication to both their soldier and community is widely documented in the literature (Alt & Stone, 1991; Cafforio, 2003; Harrell, 2001a; 2001b; Moelker & Van Der Kloet, 2003; Papanek, 1973; Shea, 1966). However, only two identifiable studies to date have explored how the U.S. Army influences spousal roles (Harrell, 2001b) and conversely, how the spouse potentially influences the U.S. Army as an organization in return (Edwards, 2008). Edwards (2008) provided a masculine perspective of how the military spouse could influence the U.S. Army as an organization through the active duty soldier. For example, if the military spouse has a bad day she or he could then possibly take it out on the active duty soldier, therefore, providing undue stress and concern that would take the soldier’s mind away from their job. Edwards’ research takes an active duty soldier’s perspective of spousal influence. Generally, the findings in this study suggest that
command team spouses are concerned and supportive of their active duty soldier’s role and that they suggest a willingness to be actively involved as long as it helps the soldier’s career. The findings in this study do not necessarily refute Edwards research. However, findings in this study do provide an alternative perspective of spousal influence to the U.S. Army as an organization through command team roles and ultimately volunteerism in military communities. Harrell (2001b) provided substantiated evidence that military spouses make up a large percentage of the volunteer efforts throughout military communities. Additionally, Harrell (2001b) suggested that military culture directly influences military spousal roles and involvement, which in turn promotes volunteerism. Although the findings in this study do not provide quantitative data supporting volunteerism, they do provide demographic information on volunteerism and qualitative reports of military spouse volunteers that offer a deeper insight into how volunteerism is promoted and perpetuated over time through a command team spousal perspective.

Overall, spousal volunteerism in the U.S. Army is a key economic resource that should not be overlooked.

Throughout this study, the prevalence of military culture and its effects on command team spouses is evident. Military culture can be pervasive, but as mentioned before it also provides structure and safety in a communitarian perspective (Cafforio, 2003). The findings of this research indicate that command team spouses become acculturated over time as they progress with their active duty spouses through the various levels of command and U.S. Army units, and through spousal educational opportunities. Thus, it seems that the acculturation of one’s experiences over time in the military can provide building blocks for various forms of cultural, human, and social capital that
otherwise influences and effects overall well-being, quality of life, and life effectiveness (Flora et al., 2004; Little, 2003).

The findings of this study provide a preliminary insight into how formal education provided by the U.S. Army can influence command team spouses in their informal leadership roles. The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 provided an extended connection to these findings, which in turn has helped further to explain how spouses influence the U.S. Army as an organization. Although this research attempted to explore the in-depth connection of spousal influence to brigade environment, further research is needed to obtain conclusive findings. Overall, cultural, human, and social capital, provide key noneconomic forms of capital that remain the foundational backbone of the U.S. armed forces today. As such, it would seem that the cultural investment the military makes in educating command team spouses at every level can be a long-term investment for continued success within the organization.

**Implications for Practice**

This study focused on understanding more about the CTSDP-BDE program at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas and its relationship to informal leadership development. Implications for practice are based upon findings and key recommendations for changes from this study. However, an important question still remains concerning whether the results of this study can apply to other spousal educational programs or other informal LDPs. In addition, the results include a relatively small number of participants compared to the more than 500 graduated command team spouses since its inception in April 2010. Nevertheless, it does provide a starting point for examining the effects of spousal educational programs with military spouses and suggestions for future practice.
Several findings regarding the CTSDP-BDE emerged as a result of this study and have enabled the researcher to provide key recommendations for change to the program so that the SCP can further develop its CTSDP course in the future. Command team spouse participants in this study provided suggestions on how to improve U.S. Army spousal education in general. For example, the interview participants suggested that the outcomes of the CTSDP-BDE program were helpful in their roles as command team spouses. They also suggested that they could have used much of this information in early command environments at the battalion or company levels. The findings from this study might be used to alter or adapt the curriculum for the CTSDP-BDE program to meet the suggested needs of command team spouses at the brigade level in the future. Likewise, the current curriculum surrounding conflict resolution or crucial conversations could be altered to include critical response issues because one participant mentioned that it was invaluable to her role as a command team spouse.

Educators who provide services to military spouses and their families are obligated, at least ethically, to understand the culture and challenges command team spouses face in a command environment. The information in the literature review and findings in this study demonstrates why such programs as the CTSDP-BDE are significant for future preparation of command team spouses as informal leaders as their roles can have far-reaching implications for the U.S. Army. The results from demographic questions in this study show that a majority of survey participants (65%) first identified themselves as military volunteers and that several of the interview participants mentioned their volunteer experiences and mentor–mentee experiences, which have had implications towards social and human capital building in military communities. Therefore, findings from this study could supplement academic training for
professionals who coordinate, develop, and thus educate command team spouses in the U.S. Army and possibly other military branches.

Additionally, a historical review in the literature suggested that STEP was founded on the idea of developing progressive curriculum at every level of command. Interestingly, no evidence from the examination of the CTSDP-BDE or participant interviews suggested that a progressive curriculum is in place. One reason for this might be that the programs have been contracted separately to varying institutions and companies over the years, which is a consequence of the Army’s increasing decision to contract out goods and services. Regardless of the continuing nature of contracts or U.S. Army based programs, this finding alone provides preliminary evidence that future changes are needed in STEP. Overall, both the SCP and the U.S. Army could perhaps use the findings from this study to modify existing spousal programs or to develop future spousal programs at the company level.

Lastly, wider implications for practice from this study could be considered in any community organization that values informal leadership, volunteerism, or spousal involvement. For example, first responder (medical, police, fire fighters, etc.) communities, religious organizations, political organizations, etc., may benefit from understanding spousal education and the structure and influence of programs such as the CTSDP-BDE. Findings from this study suggest that the CTSDP-BDE positively effects command team spouses in their roles as both informal leaders and volunteers. Therefore, broader implications from this study could potentially influence the development of similar programs in various community organizations.
Recommendations

Using the results of the study, this section provides recommendations for the SCP and the U.S. Army regarding the CTSDP and spousal educational programs in general. Educating for uncertainty in command team spousal roles is difficult and requires constant examination of procedures, policies, processes, curriculum, and philosophy of senior U.S. Army leaders. Additionally, routinely evaluating these programs and examining their effects in actual life-related situations is vital to understanding the value of such programs for the U.S. Army. An effective strategy to do so in the future should be flexible and allow for programmatic changes when necessary so that program recipients can meet the current requirements and objectives of the program. However, before such strategies can be developed, several recommendations from this researcher’s study should be considered because the results suggest that several changes to the CTSDP-BDE program are needed.

Given the findings in this study several areas for improvement in the current CTSDP-BDE program were identified. There are six recommendations for program improvement that the SCP and the U.S. Army should consider:

1. Provide progressive curriculum at all levels with one mediating branch to provide oversight should be developed. The current STEP training purpose states that it is supposed to consist of curriculum that is progressive at all levels. However, curriculum and course materials collected from the AFTB, battalion level PCC (CTSDP), and CTSDP-BDE suggests that much of the same material is being covered in each program. Providing progressive spousal educational curriculum by levels (platoon, company, battalion, etc.) instead of by rank for both officer and enlisted spouses may potentially reinforce a culture of active involvement
(AI) and help to mitigate ongoing perceptual issues of inequality among spouses that continue to persist even today.

2. Provide online education for spouses that are unable to attend face-to-face CTSDP-BDE programs. The need for online education is increasing, particularly when considering the generational differences in the U.S. Army today.

3. Develop a formal U.S. Army-sponsored mentorship program for command team spouses. Although many mentor–mentee relationships are established during previous command environments, an increasing number of spouses do not have opportunities to connect because of distant geographic locations or extenuating circumstances. A formal mentorship program for all junior command team spouses or new command team spouses might offer the opportunity to learn and to gain knowledge from senior officer spouses and from enlisted spouses who have experienced complex informal leadership situations.

4. Clarify the use of training and education in program materials. The interchangeable use of training and education in SCP policy materials is confusing. If the program and, therefore, spousal roles are not formed around competency, the program should be solely referred to as “educational,” not training.

5. Add curriculum for protocol, military traditions, recognizing volunteers, and critical response issues to the CTSDP-BDE program.

6. Develop educational programs that begin at the junior (company) levels of command. Educational opportunities at junior levels will afford the STEP an opportunity to reach command team spouses at every level with helpful progressive curriculum. Educating junior level spouses in the U.S. Army is a
long-term investment that promotes the continuation of military culture and traditions. Additionally, such programs reflect the importance of military spouses and families as important sources of human capital.

It should be noted that the participants in this study indicated the CTSDP-BDE program enhanced their informal leadership confidence and abilities. They also stated that they would recommend this course to future command team spouses. Clearly, it seems that this research demonstrates that formal educational programs for command team spousal development is an important component of the command team’s success within brigade environments, on and off the battlefield. The success of the U.S. Army command environment in the years ahead warrants ongoing investment in future command team spouses at every level.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

The findings of this study indicate that further research examining the relationship between spousal education and command team spouses is warranted. Future studies should expand the inquiry into the roles of command team spouses in the U.S. Army at every level of command. Additionally, an extended review of how the command team spouse further influences the U.S. Army as an organization is needed because several findings in this study remain inconclusive. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the nuances of command team spousal roles to provide foundational literature for future research surrounding spousal educational programs. Additionally, little is known regarding the effects of spousal education and spousal roles on male command team spouses. Although demographic reports from the DOD suggest a rise in male military spouses, participation by male spouses in formal U.S. Army educational programs is
lacking. Therefore, further study into the role and dynamic of male command team spouses is relevant.

Additionally, the findings and the interpretation surrounding LOC in this study are inconclusive and raise several questions for future research. Perhaps LOC is situational regarding age? Would a younger, less jaded (so to speak) spouse report higher levels of IL and EL on the quantitative survey after the CTSDP-BDE course? Perhaps years of military deployments, commands, and geographic moves beyond one’s control condition military spouses to feel less IL and EL in a given situation? The quantitative data in this study suggests that spouses are good at coping with change, but perhaps this comes at the cost of knowing that it is not within one’s control? The connection here should be studied more fully among both military spouses and their children. It raises several interesting questions not only about the spouses who were studied, but also about the children who were not.

Researchers who might seek to replicate and enhance findings in this research should rely on direct measures. Major differences between certain scales and corresponding CTSDP-BDE curriculum were discovered. For example, TE should be analyzed individually as an organizational skill or eliminated altogether in future research. In addition to replicating this study, the researcher also recommends that future researchers use specific methods such as narrative inquiry, social network analysis, and longitudinal studies.

**Narrative-Based Inquiry**

According to Thomson (2011), humans are truly *homo narratus*, meaning “they live and learn through storytelling” (p. 162). Command team spouses have many stories to share—for themselves and for others. Research that uses narrative inquiry or story
methodology for command team spousal education would provide much needed insight to the changing nature of the role that military spouses provide in military communities. According to Rossiter (2007), storytelling is a learning tool available to everyone; therefore, no advanced degree or specialized educational requirement is necessary to learn to tell stories. As future generations of command team spouses rise through the ranks stories might be one of the instrumental ways that we can help prepare these future informal leaders.

Social Network Analysis

In this study, command team spouse participants reported that experiential learning occurred in their roles through relationships with other military spouses at varying locations and times. A new approach to understanding these relationships and the importance of command team spouse networking through programs such as the CTSDP-BDE would be to conduct further study of participants using social network analysis. According to Cheliotis (2010), social network analysis is focused on uncovering the patterning of people’s interaction and is based on the notion that these patterns are important features of the lives of the individuals who display them. Network analysts believe that the way in which an individual lives depends in large part on the way that that individual is tied into the larger web of social connections (Cheliotis, 2010). Moreover, many people believe that the success or failure of societies and organizations depends on the patterning of their internal structure (Cheliotis, 2010). Thus, it is recommended that the U.S. Army should consider developing a formal mentoring program for military spouses to help identify the patterns and structures of command team spousal roles. Such a program could potentially use social network analysis to highlight the importance military spouse networks in the Army.
Longitudinal Studies

Through the process of the study, the researcher discovered that this research design could and perhaps should be used in large-scale research of the CTSDP program. One of the researcher’s primary goals in this study was to develop a research design that the U.S. Army’s SCP could replicate across a variety of spousal training programs. The overall design used in this study potentially requires a large sample to provide statistical significance in future studies; nevertheless, the researcher has provided a baseline of data for future researchers who can conduct future longitudinal studies on the CTSDP-BDE program and SCP. With only small groups of participants completing the CTSDP-BDE program each month, the future research would benefit from an ongoing, longitudinal approach or a much larger sample for an expanded cross-sectional approach.

Final Reflection

A final reflection comes from the unique perspective of being a military spouse who has attended many spousal educational programs and who has had the unique experience of observing, interacting with participants, and researching the topic of spousal education over the course of several years. Generally, the researcher’s personal belief is that this study answers a small, but very important question:

▪ Is spousal education important and does it make a difference?

The researcher believes that it does, that it is important, and that it makes an incredible difference in the lives of those who choose to participate.

A larger question derived from this research is whether a problem exists with spousal education in the U.S. Army and the other branches of the U.S. Armed Forces. With the results from this study, the researcher suggests that much of the CTSDP-BDE program is significant for command team spouses who assume informal leadership roles,
with results inferring that the system does in fact work. However, the exploratory questions used in this study revealed that the overall perception of the participants indicates that the U.S. Army could in fact do a better job at not only educating spouses at different levels, but also perhaps streamlining the process to make it more applicable. Therefore, to answer the larger question at hand, the researcher believes that a comprehensive study on the varying educational programs at different levels of command should be conducted.

An important observation in this study was that the SCP as an institution suffers from organizational challenges (budget cuts, staffing challenges, etc.) within the larger organization of the U.S. Army. The SCP falls subject to a major organizational pitfall when it tries to maintain program continuity. Although several civilians work within the SCP, the STEP specifically suffers from a high turnover rate of staffing and coordinators, which ultimately results in problems with continuity. In the past, a civilian employee had coordinated these efforts; however, recent changes in staffing and U.S. Army organizational structures required an active duty soldier to assume the role of STEP coordinator over the CTSDP program. Regardless of the staffing issues, the researcher recommends that the SCP develop a strategic plan with clear-cut guidelines regarding STEP, which would potentially streamline existing educational opportunities for spouses and promote continuity. In this way, different staffing agents or contractors could continue with the plan as it was set forth and implemented.

Overall, the results from this study proved significant; however, one final reflection regarding spousal education in general remains. Through the process of this study, the researcher discovered a general lack of global research on military spouses. By comparison, the U.S. military leads the way in its view and education of military spouses.
and family members. Although other cultures and foreign military services might acknowledge the importance of spousal support, the readiness to educate spouses as informal leaders is still very much a western perspective. Put very simply, the U.S. Army exists to prevent conflict, to shape the environment in the pursuit of peace and stability, and to win the Nation’s wars when called upon. Therefore, the role that a command team plays in the U.S. Army organization is essential to maintaining our Nation’s security and stability. Consequently, educational programs such as the CTSDP-BDE are vital in preparing command team spouses to support the U.S. Army’s continued success in the future.
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Appendix A – ROPELOC Instrument

Command Team Spouse Development Program - Brigade Level Survey

Research Description:
You are invited to participate in a research study exploring the relationship between the Command Team Spouse Development Program - Brigade level and the informal leadership role that is often assumed by military spouses. Participation in this study is voluntary, confidential, and requires the completion of a 10 minute 45-item questionnaire both before and after the CTSDP-BDE course. Upon completion you may be asked to participate in a follow up interview at a later date.

Benefits and Results:
Participation in this study will provide you with the opportunity to be included in important research on military spouse training programs. This opportunity may provide insight for changes in curriculum or how similar training programs for command team spouses may be implemented at varying levels of command (other than Brigade). Results from this study will be submitted in partial fulfillment of the dissertation for Ashley Gleiman, doctoral student in the Kansas State University Adult Education program.

Participant Rights:
Participation in this study will be confidential and at no time will your name be identified or used in the publication of this study. All data will be coded and securely stored to be used for professional purposes only. If you agree to participate in follow up interviews you will be provided an opportunity to review the data for accuracy.

Contact Information:
If at any time you have questions or concerns regarding this research study please contact: Ashley Gleiman, agleiman@ksu.edu - Primary Researcher or Maria Clark, maria.l.clark.civ@mail.mil, CGSC Human Research Protections Administrator or Rick Scheidt and Jerry Jaax, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, Kansas State University ~ (785) 532-3224

This survey has been reviewed and approved by the Command and General Staff College (CGSC) Quality Assurance Office. Survey control number #13-04-069a-g

POST-Survey #13-09-01
PLEASE READ THESE INSTRUCTIONS FIRST

This is NOT a test - there are no right or wrong answers.

This is a chance for you to look at how you think and feel about yourself. It is important that you:
* are honest
* give your own views about yourself, without talking to others
* report how you feel NOW (not how you felt at another time in your life, or how you might feel tomorrow)

Your answers are confidential and will only be used for research or program development.

Use the eight point scale to indicate how true (like you) or how false (unlike you), each statement over the page is as a description of you. Please do not leave any statements blank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FALSE</th>
<th>NOT LIKE ME</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>TRUE</th>
<th>LIKE ME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This statement doesn’t describe me at all; it isn’t like me at all</td>
<td>More false than true</td>
<td>More true than false</td>
<td>This statement describes me very well; it is very much like me</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Use the eight point scale to indicate how true (like you) or how false (unlike you), each statement over the page is as a description of you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TRUE like me</th>
<th>FALSE not like me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>When I have spare time I always use it to paint.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I like cooperating in a team.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter what the situation is I can handle it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I can be a good leader.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My own efforts and actions are what will determine my future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to be actively involved in things.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am open to different thinking if there is a better idea.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In everything I do I try my best to get the details right.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luck, other people and events control most of my life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I am confident that I have the ability to succeed in anything I want to do.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Use the eight point scale to indicate how true (like you) or how false (unlike you), each statement over the page is as a description of you.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>What I do and how I do it will determine my success in life.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am open to new thoughts and ideas.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to get the best possible results when I do things.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I apply myself to something I am confident I will succeed.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My future is mostly in the hands of other people.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am competent and effective in social situations.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can stay calm and overcome anxiety in almost all situations.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am efficient and do not waste time.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, in all things in life, I am effective.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When things around me change I cope well.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use the eight point scale to indicate how true (like you) or how false (unlike you), each statement over the page is as a description of you.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am good at cooperating with team members.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can handle things no matter what happens.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I solve all mathematics problems easily.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am seen as a capable leader.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to get into things and make action.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can adapt my thinking and ideas.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I succeed in life it will be because of my efforts.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to get the very best results in everything I do.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident in my ability to be successful.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I communicate effectively in social situations.</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
<td>❌</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comments:

Survey End

Thank you for your participation!
Appendix B – Kansas State University Institutional Review Board Application for Approval Form and Approval Letter

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY:  IRB Protocol # _____________  Application Received: _____________
Routed: _____________  Training Complete: _____________

Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB)
Application for Approval Form
Last revised on January 2011

ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION:

• Title of Project: (if applicable, use the exact title listed in the grant/contract application)

• Type of Application:
  ☐ New/Renewal  ☐ Revision (to a pending new application)
  ☐ Modification (to an existing #______ approved application)

• Principal Investigator: (must be a KSU faculty member)
  Name: Dr. Jeff Zacharakis  Degree/Title: Associate Professor
  Department: Educational Leadership  Campus Phone: 785-532-5872
  Campus Address: Bluemont Hall 326  Kansas State University
  Manhattan, KS, 66502
  E-mail: jzachara@ksu.edu

• Contact Name/Email/Phone for Questions/Problems with Form:
  Dr. Jeff Zacharakis / jzachara@ksu.edu / 785-532-5872

• Does this project involve any collaborators not part of the faculty/staff at KSU? (projects with non-KSU collaborators may require additional coordination and approvals):
  ☒ No  ☐ Yes

• Project Classification (Is this project part of one of the following?):
  ☐ Thesis  ☐ Dissertation  ☐ Faculty Research  ☐ Other:
  Note: Class Projects should use the short form application for class projects.

• Please attach a copy of the Consent Form:
  ☐ Copy attached  ☐ Consent form not used

• Funding Source:
  ☐ Internal  ☐ External (identify source and attach a copy of the sponsor’s grant application or contract as submitted to the funding agency)
  ☐ Copy attached  ☐ Not applicable

• Based upon criteria found in 45 CFR 46 – and the overview of projects that may qualify for exemption explained at http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/checklists/decisioncharts.htm, I believe that my project using human subjects should be determined by the IRB to be exempt from IRB review:
  ☒ No  ☐ Yes  (If yes, please complete application including Section XII. C. ‘Exempt Projects’; remember that only the IRB has the authority to determine that a project is exempt from IRB review)

Last revised on January 2011
If you have questions, please call the University Research Compliance Office (URCO) at 532-3224, or comply@ksu.edu
Human Subjects Research Protocol Application Form

The KSU IRB is required by law to ensure that all research involving human subjects is adequately reviewed for specific information and is approved prior to inception of any proposed activity. Consequently, it is important that you answer all questions accurately. If you need help or have questions about how to complete this application, please call the Research Compliance Office at 332-3224, or e-mail us at comply@ksw.edu.

Please provide the requested information in the shaded text boxes. The shaded text boxes are designed to accommodate responses within the body of the application. As you type your answers, the text boxes will expand as needed. After completion, print the form and send the original and one photocopy to the Institutional Review Board, Room 203, Fairchild Hall.

Principal Investigator: Dr. Jeff Zacharakis
Project Title: Building Informal Leaders: A Mixed-Methods Study of an Army Leadership Development Program for Command Team Spouses
Date: January 20, 2013

MODIFICATION
Is this a modification of an approved protocol? ☐ Yes ☑ No If yes, please comply with the following:
If you are requesting a modification or a change to an IRB approved protocol, please provide a concise description of all of the changes that you are proposing in the following block. Additionally, please highlight or bold the proposed changes in the body of the protocol where appropriate, so that it is clearly discernible to the IRB reviewers what and where the proposed changes are. This will greatly help the committee and facilitate the review.

NON-TECHNICAL SYNOPSIS (brief narrative description of proposal easily understood by nonscientists):
The dissertation involves survey and interview collection of data pertaining to individual outcomes related to life effectiveness of participants in the Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level (CTSDP-BDE) with the School for Command Preparation at Fort Leavenworth, KS. The researcher hopes to determine whether or not military spouses attending the CTSDP-BDE develop skills in life effectiveness as they assume informal leadership roles in Brigade level commands. Life effectiveness is a theoretical concept referring to the extent to which individuals demonstrate a range of generic life skills and is broadly defined by Neill, Marsh, & Richards (1997) as important factors that help explain how effective a person will be in achieving his/her desires/wishes in life. Overall, life effectiveness is how a person believes or defines their own effectiveness in various tasks of life and is closely related to notions of "personal skills", "life fitness", "practical intelligence", "personal competence" and "self-efficacy" (Neill, 2006).

1. BACKGROUND (concise narrative review of the literature and basis for the study):
Leadership Development programs such as the CTSDP-BDE are often evaluated by certain outcomes (i.e., individual, organizational, or community). However, life effectiveness is not typically thought of as a primary or main outcome in leadership development programs as it falls into one of the complex and often unquantifiable domains (Russom & Reineck, 2004). While not a new concept, life effectiveness has primarily been linked to research involving adolescent experiential learning programs (Sibthorp & Arthur-Banning, 2004; Culhane, 2004; Uikins, 2007; Ellis, Marsh, & Craven, 2009; Merrell, 2009; Ihmolt, 2009; Luo, 2011; Johnson, 2012), university students (Saridgghalam, & Norault, 2010), and nursing facilities (Wells, 2010), but no identifiable research has been found connecting the concept of life effectiveness to military spouse learners in leadership development programs. In this study the researcher proposes that as part of the challenge in determining what makes a person effective in life at school, home, or work can be directly linked to topics discussed and outcomes achieved in the CTSDP-BDE program. Therefore, instruments such as the Review of Personal Effectiveness & Locus of Control (R.O.P.E.L.O.C.) can be useful in helping to investigate the effects of personal change related to leadership development programs (Richards, Ellis, & Neill, 2002). The Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level (CTSDP-BDE) is a week
II. PROJECT / STUDY DESCRIPTION (please provide a concise narrative description of the proposed activity in terms that will allow the IRB or other interested parties to clearly understand what it is that you propose to do that involves human subjects. This description must be in enough detail so that IRB members can make an informed decision about proposal).

This study of life effectiveness for command team military spouses assuming informal leadership roles after the CTSDP-BDE training program involves mixed methods (quantitative to qualitative) where quantitative data is gathered first followed up by in depth interviews. This research will be divided into two distinct phases: quantitative (emphasis of change) followed by qualitative (explanatory). In this design it is the intent of the researcher to first collect quantitative data using the Review of Personal Effectiveness with Locus of Control (R.O.P.E.L.O.C.) in a pretest/posttest design and conduct analysis. In Phase II the researcher will collect qualitative data using a purposeful/criterion based selection method of participants and conduct analysis in order to further explain or elaborate on the numerical data described in Phase I. Semi-structured interview questions for Phase II of the research will be further developed after a pilot study has been completed. The rationale for this design is that quantitative data and findings will provide a general understanding of participant outcomes and the qualitative data will refine the data from Phase I by providing in depth explanation of how life effectiveness took place in participant informal leadership roles.

III. OBJECTIVE (briefly state the objective of the research – what you hope to learn from the study):

It is the intent of the researcher to determine if training in the CTSDP-BDE program, provided to command team military spouses of Brigade level commanders and command sergeant majors, has a causal or positive outcome to life effectiveness in their informal leadership roles in Army communities. First, participants from the CTSDP-BDE program will be given a pretest/posttest using the ROPELOC instrument to determine if the perception of life effectiveness changed during the course of the program. Second, once this data is collected and analyzed the emerging themes will drive the types of questions in a semi-structured qualitative interview sessions with a smaller number of in-depth one on one personal interviewees selected using a purposeful/criterion based sampling method. It is the intent of the researcher to use the qualitative data to further explain emerging themes obtained from the quantitative data. Depending on the results, this research may lead to modification of the CTSDP-BDE.

IV. DESIGN AND PROCEDURES (succinctly outline formal plan for study):

A. Location of study: U.S. Army Schofield for Command Preparation, Fort Leavenworth, KS

B. Variables to be studied:
   1. Demographic information – age, education, employment, ethnicity, length of marriage, gender, military background and experience.
   2. ROPELOC – 14 variables: Stress management, self-efficacy, co-op teamwork, leadership ability, time efficiency, social effectiveness, open thinking, quality seeking, self confidence, active involvement, coping with change, internal locus of control and external locus of control, overall effectiveness.

C. Data collection methods: (surveys, instruments, etc – ROPELOC Instrument and Interviews PLEASE ATTACH)

D. List any factors that might lead to a subject dropping out or withdrawing from a study. These might include, but are not limited to emotional or physical stress, pain, inconvenience, etc.:

Inconvenience due to change in schedule or ability to attend CTSDP-BDE course. Lack of interest in follow through due to nature of topic or ability to meet criterion as specified for qualitative interviews. Fear of disclosing demographic and personal information or taking part in a research study that may be perceived as affecting spousal career goals.
E. List all biological samples taken: (if any)

F. Debriefing procedures for participants:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N/A</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The ROPELOC instrument will be conducted online in coordination with the School for Command Preparation and the Department of Quality Assurance, U.S. Army Command and General Staff College. Participants will be given a description of the research, reason for collecting data, use of data, safeguard of data (confidentiality), security of the data, and an online consent/acknowledgement form. Participants will be allowed to review their survey before submission and will be given access to the final report. Interviews, done by telephone or via Skype, will be digitally recorded and participants will sign a consent/acknowledgement form. Once the digital data is transcribed the participants will be provided a copy for member checking to ensure the accuracy of the transcript. When the dissertation is complete both the director of the School for Command Preparation and Quality Assurance Office at the Command and General Staff College will be provided an opportunity to review before final publication and will also be provided access to the study either online or via a dissertation database. <strong>NOTE: This research requires a separate IRB approval for the Command and General Staff College.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. RESEARCH SUBJECTS:
A. Source: Participants of the Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level at the School for Command Preparation, Fort Leavenworth, KS.
B. Number: Expectation of 45-55 for Quantitative and 10 for Qualitative
C. Characteristics: (list any unique qualifiers desirable for research subject participation), Demographics for participants typically military spouses between the ages of 35-55, prior command experience, both male/female, varying cultural backgrounds.
D. Recruitment procedures: (Explain how do you plan to recruit your subjects?) The School for Command Preparation will provide access to the participant population. Notification of research study will be through email contact by the School for Command Preparation. As participation is voluntary in the CTSDP-BDE program there will be no inducements offered for participation in this study.

VI. RISK – PROTECTION – BENEFITS: The answers for the three questions below are central to human subjects research. You must demonstrate a reasonable balance between anticipated risks to research participants, protection strategies, and anticipated benefits to participants or others.

A. Risks for Subjects: (Identify any reasonably foreseeable physical, psychological, or social risks for participants. State that there are “no known risks” if appropriate.) Risks are minimal; however, participants may fear a minimal loss of personal time, disclosing certain demographic information may lead to losing their anonymity, or the assumption that participating in qualitative interviews will in some way affect spouses command or influence how others perceive them.

B. Minimizing Risk: (Describe specific measures used to minimize or protect subjects from anticipated risks.)
Risk will be minimized through the following: 1. Collaboration with the CGSC Quality Assurance Office and School for Command Preparation in the development of the online instrument/demographic questionnaire. 2. Participants will be delinked from the data by means of a randomly generated PIN that they will use to enter the survey website. Results will be assigned a randomly generated numeric identification code. 3. Interview data will be collected, transcribed, and stored in such a way that only the researcher and interviewee have access to information. 4. Interview participants will be given a pseudonym for confidentiality. 5. The final dissertation will not include any reference to participants by name or location, nor will it include any reference by which the reader could determine the identity of the military spouse.

C. **Benefits:** (Describe any reasonably expected benefits for research participants, a class of participants, or to society as a whole.)

Individual participants will have the opportunity to consider whether or not the CTSDP-BDE program is beneficial for command team military spouses assuming informal leadership roles as well as participant in primary research regarding military spouse training programs. This opportunity may also provide insight for changes in curriculum or how similar training programs may be implemented at varying levels of command (other than Brigade) throughout the Army as an organization. The study will provide a foundational basis for command team military spouse training programs in general as there is no identifiable research available on the subject to date. Finally, the study will provide additional material to the fields of adult education, organizational behavior, leadership studies, and will add to the body of knowledge for program evaluation research.

In your opinion, does the research involve **more than minimal risk** to subjects? (“Minimal risk” means that “the risks of harm anticipated in the proposed research are not greater, considering probability and magnitude, than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.”)

☐ Yes  ☒ No

VII. **CONFIDENTIALITY:** Confidentiality is the formal treatment of information that an individual has disclosed to you in a relationship of trust and with the expectation that it will not be divulged to others without permission in ways that are inconsistent with the understanding of the original disclosure. Consequently, it is your responsibility to protect information that you gather from human research subjects in a way that is consistent with your agreement with the volunteer and with their expectations. If possible, it is best if research subjects’ identity and linkage to information or data remains unknown.

Explain how you are going to protect confidentiality of research subjects and/or data or records. Include plans for maintaining records after completion.

VIII. **INFORMED CONSENT:** Informed consent is a critical component of human subjects research – it is your responsibility to make sure that any potential subject knows exactly what the project that you are planning is about, and what his/her potential role is. (There may be projects where some forms of “deception” of the subject is necessary for the execution of the study, but it must be carefully justified to and approved by the IRB). A schematic for determining when a waiver or alteration of informed consent may be considered by the IRB is found at

http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/consentcks.html

Even if your proposed activity does qualify for a waiver of informed consent, you must still provide potential participants with basic information that informs them of their rights as subjects, i.e. explanation that the project is research and the purpose of the research, length of study, study procedures, debriefing issues to include anticipated benefits, study and administrative contact information, confidentiality strategy, and the fact that participation is entirely voluntary and can be terminated at any time without penalty, etc. Even if your potential subjects are completely anonymous, you are obliged to provide them (and the IRB) with basic information about your project. See informed consent example on the URCO website. It is a federal requirement to maintain informed consent forms for 3 years after the study completion.

Last revised on January 2011
Yes No Answer the following questions about the informed consent procedures.

☐ ☐ A. Are you using a written informed consent form? If "yes," include a copy with this application. If "no" see b.

☐ ☐ B. In accordance with guidance in 45 CFR 46, I am requesting a waiver or alteration of informed consent elements (See Section VII above). If "yes," provide a basis and/or justification for your request.

☐ ☐ C. Are you using the online Consent Form Template provided by the URCO? If "no," does your Informed Consent document have all the minimum required elements of informed consent found in the Consent Form Template? (Please explain)

Separate consent form is being used and attached for reference, but guidelines as described in URCO template were used.

☐ ☐ D. Are your research subjects anonymous? If they are anonymous, you will not have access to any information that will allow you to determine the identity of the research subjects in your study, or to link research data to a specific individual in any way. Anonymity is a powerful protection for potential research subjects. (An anonymous subject is one whose identity is unknown even to the researcher, or the data or information collected cannot be linked in any way to a specific person).

**Anonymous for Survey - known for interviews**

☐ ☐ E. Are subjects debriefed about the purposes, consequences, and benefits of the research? Debriefing refers to a mechanism for informing the research subjects of the results or conclusions, after the data is collected and analyzed, and the study is over. (If "no" explain why.) Attach copy of debriefing statement to be utilized.

*It is a requirement that you maintain all signed copies of informed consent documents for at least 3 years following the completion of your study. These documents must be available for examination and review by federal compliance officials.

IX. PROJECT INFORMATION: (If you answer yes to any of the questions below, you should explain them in one of the paragraphs above)

Yes No Does the project involve any of the following?

☐ ☐ a. Deception of subjects

☐ ☐ b. Shock or other forms of punishment

☐ ☐ c. Sexually explicit materials or questions about sexual orientation, sexual experience or sexual abuse

☐ ☐ d. Handling of money or other valuable commodities

☐ ☐ e. Extraction or use of blood, other bodily fluids, or tissues

☐ ☐ f. Questions about any kind of illegal or illicit activity

☐ ☐ g. Purposeful creation of anxiety

☐ ☐ h. Any procedure that might be viewed as invasion of privacy

☐ ☐ i. Physical exercise or stress

☐ ☐ j. Administration of substances (food, drugs, etc.) to subjects

☐ ☐ k. Any procedure that might place subjects at risk

☐ ☐ l. Any form of potential abuse; i.e., psychological, physical, sexual

☐ ☐ m. Is there potential for the data from this project to be published in a journal, presented at a conference, etc?

☐ ☐ n. Use of surveys or questionnaires for data collection

IF YES, PLEASE ATTACH!!

X. SUBJECT INFORMATION: (If you answer yes to any of the questions below, you should explain them in one of the paragraphs above)

Last revised on January 2011
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Does the research involve subjects from any of the following categories?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Under 18 years of age (these subjects require parental or guardian consent)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Over 65 years of age</td>
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<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Physically or mentally disabled</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Economically or educationally disadvantaged</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e. Unable to provide their own legal informed consent</td>
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<td>f. Pregnant females as target population</td>
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<td>g. Victims</td>
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<td>h. Subjects in institutions (e.g., prisons, nursing homes, halfway houses)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>i. Are research subjects in this activity students recruited from university classes or volunteer pools? If so, do you have a reasonable alternative(s) to participation as a research subject in your project, i.e., another activity such as writing or reading that would serve to protect students from unfair pressure or coercion to participate in this project? If you answered this question “Yes,” explain any alternatives or options for class credit for potential human subject volunteers in your study. (It is also important to remember that: Students must be free to choose not to participate in research that they have signed up for at any time without penalty. Communication of their decision can be conveyed in any manner, to include simply not showing up for the research.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>j. Are research subjects audio taped? If yes, how do you plan to protect the recorded information and mitigate any additional risks? Recorded information will be saved on password protected data file and only the researcher and collaborator will have access to the raw data.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>k. Are research subjects’ images being recorded (video taped, photographed)? If yes, how do you plan to protect the recorded information and mitigate any additional risks?</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**XI. CONFLICT OF INTEREST:** Concerns have been growing that financial interests in research may threaten the safety and rights of human research subjects. Financial interests are not in themselves prohibited and may well be appropriate and legitimate. Not all financial interests cause Conflict of Interest (COI) or harm to human subjects. However, to the extent that financial interests may affect the welfare of human subjects in research, IRB’s, institutions, and investigators must consider what actions regarding financial interests may be necessary to protect human subjects. Please answer the following questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Do you or the institution have any proprietary interest in a potential product of this research, including patents, trademarks, copyrights, or licensing agreements?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Do you have an equity interest in the research sponsor (publicly held or a non-publicly held company)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>c. Do you receive significant payments of other sorts, e.g., grants, equipment, retainers for consultation and/or honoraria from the sponsor of this research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Do you receive payment per participant or incentive payments?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e. If you answered yes on any of the above questions, please provide adequate explanatory information so the IRB can assess any potential COI indicated above.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kansas State University has a DOD contract with School for Command Preparation to administer the CTSIP-BDE program. Project collaborator - Ashley Gleiman - is partially employed by this contract.
XII. PROJECT COLLABORATORS:

A. KSU Collaborators – list anyone affiliated with KSU who is collecting or analyzing data: (list all collaborators on the project, including co-principal investigators, undergraduate and graduate students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Campus Phone</th>
<th>Campus Email</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ashley Gleiman</td>
<td>Educational Leadership</td>
<td>205-385-8763</td>
<td><a href="mailto:agleiman@ksu.edu">agleiman@ksu.edu</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Non-KSU Collaborators: (List all collaborators on your human subjects research project not affiliated with KSU in the spaces below. KSU has negotiated an Assurance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP), the federal office responsible for oversight of research involving human subjects. When research involving human subjects includes collaborators who are not employees or agents of KSU the activities of those unaffiliated individuals may be covered under the KSU Assurance only in accordance with a formal, written agreement of commitment to relevant human subject protection policies and IRB oversight. The Unaffiliated Investigators Agreement can be found and downloaded at [http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/forms/Unaffiliated%20Investigator%20Agreement.doc](http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/forms/Unaffiliated%20Investigator%20Agreement.doc)

The IRB must have a copy of the Unaffiliated Investigator Agreement on file for each non-KSU collaborator who is not covered by their own IRB and assurance with OHRP. Consequently, it is critical that you identify non-KSU collaborators, and initiate any coordination and/or approval process early, to minimize delays caused by administrative requirements.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Phone</th>
<th>Institutional Email</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Does your non-KSU collaborator’s organization have an Assurance with OHRP? (For Federalwide Assurance and Multiple Project Assurance (MPA) listings of other institutions, please reference the OHRP website under Assurance Information at [http://ohrp.nih.gov/search](http://ohrp.nih.gov/search)).

[ ] No
[ ] Yes If yes, Collaborator’s FWA or MPA #

Is your non-KSU collaborator’s IRB reviewing this proposal?

[ ] No
[ ] Yes If yes, IRB approval #

C. Exempt Projects: 45 CFR 46 identifies six categories of research involving human subjects that may be exempt from IRB review. The categories for exemption are listed here: [http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/checklists/decisioncharts.html](http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/checklists/decisioncharts.html). If you believe that your project qualifies for exemption, please indicate which exemption category applies (1-6). Please remember that only the IRB can make the final determination whether a project is exempt from IRB review, or not.

Exemption Category: ____________________________

XIII. CLINICAL TRIAL

[ ] Yes
[ ] No

(If so, please give product.)

Last revised on January 2011
Export Controls Training:
-The Provost has mandated that all KSU faculty/staff with a full-time appointment participate in the Export Control Program.
-If you are not in our database as having completed the Export Control training, this proposal will not be approved until your participation is verified.
-To complete the Export Control training, follow the instructions below:
  Click on:
  http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/ecp/index.htm

  1. After signing into K-State Online, you will be taken to the Export Control Homepage
  2. Read the directions and click on the video link to begin the program
  3. Make sure you enter your name / email when prompted so that participation is verified

If you click on the link and are not taken to K-State Online, this means that you have already completed the Export Control training and have been removed from the roster. If this is the case, no further action is required.

-Can’t recall if you have completed this training? Contact the URCO at 785-532-3224 or comply@ksu.edu and we will be happy to look it up for you.

Post Approval Monitoring: The URCO has a Post-Approval Monitoring (PAM) program to help assure that activities are performed in accordance with provisions or procedures approved by the IRB. Accordingly, the URCO staff will arrange a PAM visit as appropriate; to assess compliance with approved activities.

If you have questions, please call the University Research Compliance Office (URCO) at 532-3224, or comply@ksu.edu

Last revised on January 2011
INVESTIGATOR ASSURANCE FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

(Print this page separately because it requires a signature by the PI)

P.I. Name: Dr. Jeff Zacharakis


XIV. ASSURANCES: As the Principal Investigator on this protocol, I provide assurances for the following:

A. Research Involving Human Subjects: This project will be performed in the manner described in this proposal, and in accordance with the Federallywide Assurance FWA00000865 approved for Kansas State University available at http://ohrp.osopsh.dhhs.gov/policies.htm#FWA, applicable laws, regulations, and guidelines. Any proposed deviation or modification from the procedures detailed herein must be submitted to the IRB, and be approved by the Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB) prior to implementation.

B. Training: I assure that all personnel working with human subjects described in this protocol are technically competent for the role described for them, and have completed the required IRB training modules found on the URCO website at http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/training/index.htm. I understand that no proposals will receive final IRB approval until the URCO has documentation of completion of training by all appropriate personnel.

C. Extramural Funding: If funded by an extramural source, I assure that this application accurately reflects all procedures involving human subjects as described in the grant/contract proposal to the funding agency. I also assure that I will notify the IRB/URCO, the KSU PreAward Services, and the funding/contract entity if there are modifications or changes made to the protocol after the initial submission to the funding agency.

D. Study Duration: I understand that it is the responsibility of the Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB) to perform continuing reviews of human subjects research as necessary. I also understand that as continuing reviews are conducted, it is my responsibility to provide timely and accurate review or update information when requested, to include notification of the IRB/URCO when my study is changed or completed.

E. Conflict of Interest: I assure that I have accurately described (in this application) any potential Conflict of Interest that my collaborators, the University, or I may have in association with this proposed research activity.

F. Adverse Event Reporting: I assure that I will promptly report to the IRB/URCO any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others that involve the protocol as approved. Unanticipated or Adverse Event Form is located on the URCO website at: http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/forms/index.htm. In the case of a serious event, the Unanticipated or Adverse Events Form may follow a phone call or email contact with the URCO.

G. Accuracy: I assure that the information herein provided to the Committee for Human Subjects Research is to the best of my knowledge complete and accurate.

(Principal Investigator Signature) (date)

Last revised on January 2011

11
TO: Jeff Zacharakis
Educational Leadership
326 Bluemont

FROM: Rick Scheidt, Chair
Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: 02/11/2013


The Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects has reviewed your proposal and has granted full approval. This proposal is approved for one year from the date of this correspondence, pending “continuing review.”

APPROVAL DATE: 02/11/2013

EXPIRATION DATE: 02/11/2014

Several months prior to the expiration date listed, the IRB will solicit information from you for federally mandated “continuing review” of the research. Based on the review, the IRB may approve the activity for another year. If continuing IRB approval is not granted, or the IRB fails to perform the continuing review before the expiration date noted above, the project will expire and the activity involving human subjects must be terminated on that date. Consequently, it is critical that you are responsive to the IRB request for information for continuing review if you want your project to continue.

In giving its approval, the Committee has determined that:

☐ There is no more than minimal risk to the subjects.
☐ There is greater than minimal risk to the subjects.

This approval applies only to the proposal currently on file as written. Any change or modification affecting human subjects must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation. All approved proposals are subject to continuing review at least annually, which may include the examination of records connected with the project. Announced post-approval monitoring may be performed during the course of this approval period by URCO staff. Injuries, unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risk to subjects or to others must be reported immediately to the Chair of the IRB and / or the URCO.
MEMORANDUM FOR: Ashley Glieman, KSU Doctoral Candidate


1. This research is being conducted to meet doctoral graduate requirements for Kansas State University. Results of the research may have benefit for LD&E. Thus, the final research document is requested for the CGSC Dean of Academics and for the SCP Director.

2. Your research has been reviewed and approved by the KSU IRB. The LD&E/CGSC HPA concurs with its findings. CAC LD&E agrees to the Kansus State University IRB as the reviewing IRB. The DoD has specific and unique requirements for non-exempt research involving human subjects. An institutional agreement must be signed by the KSU IRB.

3. Your request to conduct structured interviews and/or focus group interviews of CGSS Faculty is:
   - □ Approved
   - □ Denied (see below)
   - ■ Approved with Conditions (see below)

   a. Your survey will administered using the Inquisite Survey System provided in the CGSC Quality Assurance Office (QAO). The Inquisite Survey System automatically codes participants for confidentiality. The researcher has no access to data connected with participant identifying information. Thus, waiver of documented informed consent is granted.

   b. The DoD Unique Requirements are agreed to by the researcher and the KSU IRB and returned to the HPA.

   c. The Researcher Responsibilities Agreement is signed by the researcher and returned to the HPA.

4. Should you have questions concerning the above, please contact Ms. Maria Clark, Human Protections Administrator (HPA), in the CGSC Quality Assurance Office, room 4521 Lewis & Clark.
5. You must submit a closure report upon completion of your research.

Dr. James S. Martin
IRB Chair
100 Stimson Ave. L&C, Rm 4507
Ft Leavenworth, KS 66207-2301
MEMORANDUM of AGREEMENT

SUBJECT: Non-DoD Supported or Non-DoD Conducted research involving human subjects Institutional Agreement

1. This is a DoD institutional agreement provided by the CAC LD&E in order to approve the conduct of non-exempt research involving human subjects. The CAC LD&E agrees to:

- Support
- Collaborate
- Conduct
- Engage

2. The research for this agreement will be conducted at:

- Command and General Staff College (CGSC) in the Command and General Staff School (CGSS) located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.
- CGSC in the School of Advanced Military Studies (SAMS)
- CGSC in the School of Command Prep (SCP)
- CGSC in the School for Advanced Leadership and Tactics (SALT)

3. The Department of Defense (DoD) has specific and unique requirements for research involving DoD Personnel as human subjects. DoD personnel include active duty Military and DoD civilian employees. This agreement verifies the receipt of the document titled DoD, Army Specific and Unique Requirements for Human Research Protections Combined Arms Center (CAC) Leader Development & Education (LD&E) and agreement that the non-DoD Institutional Review Board agrees to verify compliance with these requirements in the conduct of all human subjects research within the CAC LD&E schools and DoD Institutions covered by the CAC LD&E DoD Assurance.

This agreement also verifies all investigators agree to comply with these requirements during the research conduct and in securing all data or other information acquired from
the research participants. The Primary Investigator agrees to the researcher responsibilities provided by the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel & Readiness) and has supplied a copy of the signed Researcher Responsibilities to the non-DoD University or Organization.

Kansas State University
University or Non-DoD Organization requesting or reviewing research involving DoD personnel.

Primary Contact (Human Protections Administrator, IRB Chair, Exempt Determination Officer)

Address

Contact Information (Phone and/or Email)

Non-DoD University or Organization Approving Signature
Ashley Glieman
Primary Investigator (Primary Investigator is obligated to ensure all other researchers or other individuals performing research activities are aware of these requirements and comply)
agleiman@k-state.edu
Primary Investigator Contact Information

Maria L Clark, Human Protections Administrator
CAC LD&E Primary Contact (Human Protections Administrator, IRB Chair, Exempt Determination Officer)
Marla_l.clark.civ@mail.mil  913-684-7332
Contact Information (Phone and/or Email)
Combined Arms Center (CAC)
Leadership Development & Education (LD&E)
Command and General Staff College (CGSC)

Researcher Responsibilities

The Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness requires that all research investigators (principal investigators as well as associate investigators) engaged in research with one of its institutions explicitly acknowledge and accept responsibility for protecting the rights and welfare of human research subjects as stated therein.

1. I understand that the rights of the subjects take precedence over the needs of the research and I will protect the rights of human research subjects and will comply with the following: the Belmont Report, 32 CFR 219; 10 USC 980; DoDI 3216.02; where applicable 45 CFR 160 and 164; where applicable 45 CFR 46 (Subparts B, C, and D) under the authority of the DoD and other Federal, State and local laws as they may relate to proposed human subjects research.

2. I am aware of the Joint Ethics Regulation, DoDI 5500.7-R, specifically areas addressing investigators relationships with sponsoring companies including monies received for research protocols. I understand that financial and other conflicts of interest must be reported to the CAC LD&E Human Protections Administrator (HPA) and/or Institutional Review Board (IRB).

3. I understand that I must have either (a) a written exemption determination from my Exemption Determination Official (EDO) (b) an approval letter from a DoD IRB, or (c) written DoD concurrence with a nonfederal IRB review prior to initiating research.

4. I shall promptly report to the approving authority (EDO or IRB) proposed changes in a research activity and shall ensure that such changes in approved research, during the period for which approval has already been given, are not initiated without proper authority review and approval except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject.

5. I will ensure that all subjects, or their representatives, are fully informed of the nature of the research to include potential risks to subjects and I will obtain informed consent from each as required.

6. I will maintain study records for 3 years after the study is closed or for 6 years if the study is regulated by the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act.

7. I will respect the privacy of subjects. I shall protect confidential information given to me and advise subjects in advance of any limits upon my ability to ensure that the information will remain confidential.
8. I am aware and will complete the training required by the CAC LD&E HRPP prior to initiating research.

9. I will report immediately to the approving authority (exempt determination official (EDO) or IRB) any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others in research.

With my signature, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the responsibilities stated above and will comply with them. I understand that if I fail to comply with any of these responsibilities, all protocols for which I am an investigator may be suspended.

[Signature]

Investigator Signature Date

Print Ashley S Gleiman
(First Name) (Middle Initial) (Last Name)

Mailing Address

153 Johnson Drive

Fort Leavenworth KS 66027
(City) (State/Province) (Zip/Country)

Phone Number 305-305-8763

Email Address a.gleiman@ksu.edu
Appendix D – Kansas State University Informed Consent Statement

Date: September 4, 2013

Research Title: Building Informal Leaders: An Exploratory Study of An Army Leadership Development Program for Command Team Spouses

Co-Researcher: Ashley Gleiman
Principal Researcher: Dr. Jeffrey Zacharakis

Research Description
You are invited to participate in a research study that explores the relationship between the Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level and the informal leadership role that is often assumed by military spouses. Your participation in this study is voluntary and requires completion of a 5 to 10 minute 45-item questionnaire both before and after completing the CTSDP-BDE course. Upon completion you may also be asked to participate in a follow up interview by way of Skype or telephone (up to 3 months after completion of CTSDP-BDE) during which you will be asked questions about your opinions and experiences as they relate to the CTSDP-BDE program. These optional interviews will take approximately 15 - 20 minutes and will be conducted by the Co-Researcher Ashley Gleiman, who is a doctoral candidate in the Adult and Continuing Education Program at Kansas State University. With your permission, the interview will be audiotaped and transcribed, the purpose thereof being to capture and maintain an accurate record of the discussion. At no time either during the course of this study or in publication after will your name or any identifying information be used and any data collected will refer to you only by way of a pseudonym. There is no financial reimbursement for your participation in this study.

Risks and Benefits
Risk for participation in this study is minimal and carries the same amount that individuals will encounter during a usual classroom activity, with the exception of increased confidentiality. With this risk, individual participants will have the opportunity to consider whether or not the CTSDP-BDE program is beneficial for Command Team military spouses assuming informal leadership roles as well as participate in primary research regarding military spouse education programs. This opportunity may provide much needed insight for military spouse education throughout the Army as an organization. Finally, the study will provide additional material to the fields of adult education, organizational behavior, leadership studies, and will add to the body of knowledge for program evaluation research.

How the Results Will Be Used
This research study is to be submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Adult and Continuing Occupational Education, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS. The results of this study will be published as a dissertation. In addition, information may be used for educational purposes in professional presentation(s) and/or educational publication(s).
Data Storage to Protect Confidentiality

Under no circumstances whatsoever will you be identified by name in the course of this research study, or in any publication thereof. Every effort will be made that all information provided by you will be treated as strictly confidential. All data will be coded and securely stored and will be used for professional purposes only by the research team. If you decide to participate in the follow-up interviews you will be provided an opportunity to review the data for accuracy once it has been transcribed.

Contact Information for Problems/Questions:

If at any time I have any questions regarding the research or my participation I can contact the Co-Researcher, Ashley Gleiman (205) 305-8763 (cell) or (913) 684-2788 (work) or email agleiman@ksu.edu to answer my questions. I may also contact the Co-Researcher’s faculty advisor, Dr. Jeffrey Zacharakis, at (785) 532-5872 or by email jzacharak@ksu.edu.

If at any time I have comments or concerns regarding the conduct of the research or questions about my rights as a research subject, I should contact:

Maria Clark, CGSC Human Research Protections Administrator, maria.l.clark.civ@mail.mil

or

Rick Scheidt, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

or

Jerry Jaax, Associate Vice President for Research Compliance and University Veterinarian, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

Terms of Participation

I understand this project is research, and that my participation is completely voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits.

I verify that my signature below indicates that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described, and that my signature acknowledges that I have received a signed and dated copy of this consent form.

Participant Name: __________________________________________

Participant Signature: __________________________________________ Date: ________________
Appendix E – Command Team Spouse Development Program–Brigade Level Summary

Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level Summary
U.S. Army School for Command Preparation and Kansas State University

Purpose – This document serves as a general summary of the Command Team Spouse Development Program – Brigade Level. Participants agreeing to partake in qualitative interviews and research exploring the relationship between the CTSDP-BDE and the informal leadership role that is often assumed by military spouses should use this summary as a refresher.

Course Description
The CTSDP-BDE course is designed to provide participants with a personal and professional growth opportunity highlighting the self-awareness and leadership skills needed to effectively and positively contribute to the family, unit, and community environment and support unit and family readiness as they enter the Brigade level Command Team. Emphasis is on leadership and interpersonal relationship skills essential to their future roles. CTSDP-BDE affords both spouses of Brigade Commanders and Command Sergeants Major the opportunity to learn about Army programs and resources, exchange ideas with other Command Team spouses and mentors, and clarify role expectations.

Course Overview By Topic
• **Entering the Brigade Command Environment: Examining the Transition and Analyzing the Situation:** Participants identify key aspects of their personal transition into the Brigade Command Team role, with particular focus on the personal impact on life, current and potential stressors, and areas of strength one may draw upon. Participants complete the Transition Guide, analyze the outcomes through group discussion and identify possible avenues for support during their transition into a new role.

• **Attributes of Effective Leaders: A Study of People**
  - **Perceptual Influences** – Participants engage in group discussion and facilitator lecture to examine why “common sense” isn’t so common.
  - **Social Tendencies** – Participants complete or self assess using the DISC model (“D” – directors, dominator, task oriented; “I” - interactors, socializers; “S” – servicers, relators; “C” – calculators, cautious personalities) and engage in small group activity to analyze these social tendencies.
  - **Leaders and Followers** – Using group discussion and interactive exercises participants examine the “three needs of all people” (Power, Affiliation, and Achievement); Participants discuss the “bases of power” or types of power in leadership roles (Coercive, Reward, Legitimate, Expert, Referent power) and which types followers are typically resistant, compliant, or committed to in the leader/follower relationship. Participants then engage in facilitated discussion surrounding ways leaders can influence others by being credible, likeable in an unbiased manner, and being realistic.
  - **Communication** - Participants engage in group discussion and interactive group exercises surrounding communication and active listening in relationships. “Key to Leadership = Communication and the Key to Communication = Establishing a Climate of Trust!” Following group discussion participants engage in the “Stream of Life” activity involving two person teams (mentor and protégé) using active listening and communication as the mentor helps the protégé cross the “Stream of Life” using only their listening skills (eyes closed).

• **Skills for Community Leadership and Influence**
  - **Qualities of Successful Leaders** – Participants analyze the different leadership styles (autocratic - democratic), understand strengths and weaknesses of alternative styles, and through group discussion describe and rate their own personal leadership style.
o **Serving as Advisor, Coach, and Mentor** – Through group discussion participants identify the key characteristics, strengths and applications of advising, coaching, and mentoring roles. Participants also discuss characteristics and behaviors of exemplary Brigade spouses’ known to them using prior interviews and experiences.

o **Conflict Resolution** – Through facilitated discussion participants become familiar with basic conflict resolution concepts, principles, and styles. Participants self-assess their primary conflict resolution style and engage in group activity using “Circle of Conflict”. Through group discussion participants analyze the different conflict resolution styles of others and identify basic approaches to working with differences in individual and group situations.

o **Working with Difficult People/Crucial Conversations** – Using facilitated group discussion participants generate a list of difficult discussions and conflict situations experienced by Command Team Spouses. Through this discussion participants begin to understand the ‘roadmap’ for crucial conversations and identify ways to facilitate successful conversations about difficult topics from multiple perspectives.

o **Supporting Personal, Family, and Community Resilience** – Through lecture and facilitated group discussion participants identify the basic elements of personal, family, and marital resilience. Consequently, participants outline steps that they might individually take to enhance their own level of resilience and well being as advisors and support resources to their Command spouse, family, and unit.

**• Tips for the Road Discussion**

o Final discussion designed to integrate all lessons from the week to include specific topics of concern from the group. Involves a final brief presentation from each participant to the group as they might present themselves to the Brigade. This exercise emphasizes one’s guiding values and principles, mission and vision for their tenure as part of the Brigade Command Team, and key activities and involvement they wish to prioritize during their time in Brigade command.

**• Media Interaction and Social Media**

o Through lecture and discussion participants learn the positives and negatives of interacting with the media. Participants are encouraged to develop “sound bites” as a Command Team spouse that conveys vision of the Brigade. Participants also engage in facilitated discussion surrounding social media and engagement of younger generations using social media in the Army. Additionally, volunteers partake in practice media interviews to prepare them for possible future media engagements.

**• Hogan Assessment** – A personality assessment involving a “Potential Report”, which outlines an individual’s day-to-day leadership style, including behavioral descriptions, leadership competencies, and comprehensive development recommendations. Also includes a “Challenge Report” describing the individual’s leadership characteristics, way of interpreting the world, and how they treat subordinates while under stress and pressure. Involves a one-on-one coaching session for interpretation of results using positive and constructive feedback.

**• General Speakers**

o IMCOM
o Comprehensive Soldier Fitness
o Family Programs
o Senior Army Leadership
Appendix F – Coding Guide for Qualitative Peer Review, Coding Legend, and Nondisclosure Statement

Coding Guide for Qualitative Peer Review

CTSDP–BDE ~ Gleiman Dissertation Support

**Purpose.** The purpose of this coding guide is to describe a common process for the qualitative coding of semistructured interviews in this dissertation. The intent is to confirm a baseline group of code words already identified as labels and to encourage emergent coding by you as a peer reviewer. During this process please identify selected quotes or passages that you believe convey significant expressions and meaning by participants. The intention is to explore and answer the qualitative research question *What aspects of the CTSDP-BDE formal education program do participants perceive influence life effectiveness and their informal leadership roles?*

**Confidentiality.** Participants in this research have the assurance of anonymity by me as the researcher. This confidentiality pertains also to any peer review of interview transcripts. As an outside peer reviewer, I ask that you please sign the nondisclosure statement to confirm the confidentiality of any information you review and comments you provide to me. Return your signed and dated nondisclosure statement with your comments to a participant’s interview transcription.

**Process.** This peer review of a participant transcript is integral to assessing the trustworthiness of the research. Therefore, please feel free to make notes and/or question anything you see during the coding process. The act of coding in qualitative research can be complex, however I have tried to develop a priori list of codes using an *in vivo* approach, which uses real language in both the interview questions and participant narratives to develop themes. The enclosed codes in this template should be used as a
preliminary guide. However, as a peer reviewer you should use whatever style is most comfortable for you. Once you review the transcripts using the codes provided please add your own words or phrases as emergent code.

**Note.** If at any time you need further clarification of a term or word used in the transcription please do not hesitate to ask. The following are a list of words you may find in the interviews that you may be unfamiliar with as they are specific acronyms used in military language and terminology:

**ACS – Army Community Service:** an empowered community service in Army communities that provide comprehensive, coordinated, and responsive advocacy and prevention, information and referral, outreach, financial, employment, Soldier and Family Readiness, Exceptional Family Member and relocation assistance services that support the readiness and well-being of Soldiers and their Families, Civilian Employees, and Retirees. ACS provides training, information and support programs and has a wide array of resources available for Army communities.

**AFTB – Army Family Team Building course:** training for a way of life that prepares everyone in America’s Army to function at his or her personal highest level, in any situation, with minimal outside support. AFTB training improves personal and family well-being, preparedness and leadership skills, which helps America’s Army continue to adapt to a changing world. In addition to three levels of classes, AFTB offers volunteer opportunities. ACS Instructors and Master Trainers are volunteers who are trained to facilitate all AFTB and ACS classes.

**CARE Team:** In the event of a casualty, severe injury or disaster, a family may be offered the assistance of a selected team of trained volunteers—a CARE Team—who can offer emotional support and practical assistance in the first few days. In the event a
casualty occurs within our community, the Commander may activate a CARE Team based on the affected Family's needs and request for support. CARE Teams typically consist of three to four responsible, knowledgeable volunteers who have been screened, trained, and have signed a confidentiality agreement.

**Commander**: A senior commissioned rank / officer in many military around the world. In this study the term Commander is used interchangeably to describe the role at several levels (battalion/brigade).

**Command levels**: Army organizational structures are set up by levels of command. Although the numbers vary by the type and location of command a typical Army Squad has 9 to 10 soldiers, a Platoon 16 to 44 soldiers, Company 62 to 190 soldiers, battalion 300 to 1,000 soldiers, brigade 3,000 to 5,000 soldiers.

**Command team spouse**: Married or legal spouse of Active Duty, National Guard, or Reserve commanding officer or senior NCO within the Army organization. In this study, military spouse, senior spouse, and command team spouse are used interchangeably as any military spouse in a command situation has the potential to be both a senior spouse and a command team spouse (U.S. Department of the Army, 2009).

**CSM – Command sergeant major**: a senior noncommissioned rank or appointment in many militaries around the world. In this study a CSM refers to the command sergeant major rank or spouse within the brigade-level command team.

**FRG – Family readiness group**: is a command-sponsored organization of family members, volunteers, soldiers, and civilian employees associated with a particular unit. They are normally organized at company and battalion levels, and fall under the responsibility of the unit's commanding officer.
PCC – U.S. Army Pre-Command Course: a preparatory course provided to all soon-to-be battalion and brigade-level commanders and command sergeant majors and their spouses. This course is offered at the School for Command Preparation located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

If at any time you have questions please feel free to contact me. Thank you in advance for you willingness to be a peer reviewer. If at any time you have a similar need in the future for you research I am more than willing to repay the favor.

Many thanks,

Ashley Gleiman
Coding Legend – Gleiman Dissertation

1. Prior Life Experience
   PL1 Mentors
   PL2 Experiential Learning – prior “learn by doing” experiences in command or role
   PL3 Developmental – education, work/career, parenting, and family experiences

2. Prior Spouse Education
   PE1 Pre-Command Course – PCC, Battalion level
   PE2 Army Community Service Programs – AFTB, CARE team training, FRG

3. CTSDP-BDE Curriculum
   C1 Positives – provided real world experiences tied to curriculum
   C2 Negatives – expressed concerns or suggestions for new curriculum in the program

4. Perceptions/Opinions of Army preparation
   PO1 Positives – expressed positive/neutral opinion
   PO2 Negatives – expressed concerns/discontent or suggestions for improvement

5. Personal Life Effectiveness
   PLE1 Leadership changes
   PLE2 Life/Family changes
Nondisclosure Statement

This nondisclosure statement pertains to peer review or transcription of semi-structured oral interviews as part of doctoral research and a dissertation by the researcher (Ashley Gleiman). This research has been approved by U.S. Army CGSC and Kansas State University (KSU).

Each participant has been informed of the confidentiality of their participation. Any references in the dissertation will use pseudonyms to protect the confidentiality of each participant.

ASHLEY GLEIMAN
Doctoral Candidate, ABD
Kansas State University

Nondisclosure Agreement

I agree to maintain the confidentiality of all information and comments related to the audio recordings and/or transcripts of participant interviews conducted between the researcher, Ashley Gleiman, and the participant. I will not use or disclose any of the contents of interview materials to anyone other than Ashley Gleiman.

Signature: _____________________________
Printed Name: ___________________________
Date: _____________________________
## Appendix G – ROPELOC Variables and Coding Guide

Variable names for data entry of the ROPELOC. It is suggested data be entered using the following variable names. The structure of each variable name:
- first two characters = factor name abbreviation,
- 3rd character = number of the item within the factor,
- 4th and 5th characters = number of item within the instrument.

Should other descriptors be required such as time of administration etc they should be added to the variable name after these first 5 basic characters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01.</td>
<td>When I have spare time I always use it to paint.</td>
<td>CT101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.</td>
<td>I like cooperating in a team.</td>
<td>CT102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03.</td>
<td>No matter what the situation is I can handle it</td>
<td>SF103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04.</td>
<td>I can be a good leader.</td>
<td>LA104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05.</td>
<td>My own efforts and actions are what will determine my future.</td>
<td>IL105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06.</td>
<td>I prefer to be actively involved in things.</td>
<td>AI106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.</td>
<td>I am open to different thinking if there is a better idea.</td>
<td>OT107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08.</td>
<td>In everything I do I try my best to get the details right.</td>
<td>QS108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.</td>
<td>Luck, other people and events control most of my life.</td>
<td>EL109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I am confident that I have the ability to succeed in anything I want to do.</td>
<td>SC110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I am effective in social situations.</td>
<td>SE111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I am calm in stressful situations.</td>
<td>SM112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>My overall effectiveness in life is very high.</td>
<td>OE113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I plan and use my time efficiently.</td>
<td>TE114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I cope well with changing situations.</td>
<td>CH115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>I cooperate well when working in a team.</td>
<td>CT216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I prefer things that taste sweet instead of bitter.</td>
<td>CI217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>No matter what happens I can handle it.</td>
<td>SF218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I am capable of being a good leader.</td>
<td>LA219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I like being active and energetic.</td>
<td>AI220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>What I do and how I do it will determine my successes in life.</td>
<td>IL221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I am open to new thoughts and ideas.</td>
<td>OT222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I try to get the best possible results when I do things.</td>
<td>QS223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>When I apply myself to something I am confident I will succeed.</td>
<td>SC224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>My future is mostly in the hands of other people.</td>
<td>EL225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>I am competent and effective in social situations.</td>
<td>SE226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>I can stay calm and overcome anxiety in almost all situations.</td>
<td>SM227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>I am efficient and do not waste time.</td>
<td>TE228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Overall, in all things in life, I am effective.</td>
<td>OE229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>When things around me change I cope well.</td>
<td>CH230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I am good at cooperating with team members.</td>
<td>CT331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>I can handle things no matter what happens.</td>
<td>SF332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>I solve all mathematics problems easily.</td>
<td>CI333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>I am seen as a capable leader.</td>
<td>LA334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>I like to get into things and make action.</td>
<td>AI335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>I can adapt my thinking and ideas.</td>
<td>OT336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>If I succeed in life it will be because of my efforts.</td>
<td>IL337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>I try to get the very best results in everything I do.</td>
<td>QS338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>I am confident in my ability to be successful.</td>
<td>SC339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>I communicate effectively in social situations.</td>
<td>SE340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>My life is mostly controlled by external things.</td>
<td>EL341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>I am calm when things go wrong.</td>
<td>SM342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>I am efficient in the way I use my time.</td>
<td>TE343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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44. I cope well when things change.  CH344
45. Overall, in my life I am a very effective person.  OE345