

Integrating The Five Practices of the Exemplary Leadership Model into Entrepreneurship Education

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Entrepreneurship educators can assess their students by focusing on leadership self-efficacy dimensions that align with desirable entrepreneurship behaviors. To support this claim, we used the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (S-LPI) to survey a group of 46 undergraduate students in Mexico and 49 undergraduate students in Spain that were involved in entrepreneurship education programs. Independent samples t-tests show statistically significant differences between the two groups. We also compared the whole sample in terms of gender and found no differences. We propose that educators integrate Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model into the design and assessment of their curricular and co-curricular entrepreneurship development programs. Specifically, the model serves educators from different countries, in this case Mexico and Spain, by identifying the leadership behaviors that their students enact. By integrating the five practices of exemplary leadership model, educators can account for variables like nation of origin and gender, and identify differences between groups.

INTRODUCTION

Educators who work with undergraduate students realize that they need to change their approach to address economic and social changes that affect their students. Garcia, Carbajal, and Munguía (2018) argued in favor of promoting the development of entrepreneurial competencies among undergraduate students to prepare them for the world of work, and Hazeldine and Miles (2007) noted that educational leaders were starting to measure these types of competencies in business students. Moreover, research on student perception of entrepreneurship abilities conducted by Sánchez Rodríguez, Hernández Herrera, and Jiménez García (2016) showed that educational institutions need to continue to work on their efforts to develop entrepreneurship competencies, especially by introducing different curricular and co-curricular activities as well as faculty engagement to identify appropriate assessment strategies. In addition, faculty now recognize the value of integrating teaching innovations and research in a manner consistent with Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) (Lueddeke, 2008). Through this study, we hope to contribute to these efforts.

Kouzes and Posner's student leadership model incorporates five behavior categories that leaders engage in when they are at their personal best (Posner, 2012). This transformational leadership approach uses the student leadership practices inventory (S-LPI) to assess students in terms of these five dimensions: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. We used the S-LPI to collect self-reported data from 46 undergraduate students in Mexico and a group of 49 undergraduate students in Spain. Both groups were involved in entrepreneurship education programs. We defined the independent variables in accordance with each of the five dimensions in the model. The dependent variable was nation of origin. We then compared the whole sample of 95 students in terms of gender to rule it out as a variable.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Economic and social contexts for undergraduate students in Mexico and Spain

Undergraduate students in Mexico and Spain face an uncertain future while they get ready to graduate and join other professionals who are struggling to fulfill their hopes of becoming successful in the labor market or as new business owners. Both countries are different in many respects. Mexico is positioned 123 out of 176 countries in the Corruption Perception Index while Spain occupies a much better position at 58 (Transparency International, 2018). In the year 2020, the unemployment rate will be 13.6% in Spain, much higher than the more manageable 3.8% expected in Mexico (International Labour Organization, 2018). However, in Mexico, the unemployment rate is higher for individuals with tertiary education than for the general population. In 2016, the unemployment rate for professionals in Mexico was 4.4%, compared to 3.8% for people without tertiary education (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2018). Moreover, wages for college-educated people in Mexico are declining earlier in life than with previous generations (Campos-Vazquez, Lopez-Calva, Lustig, 2016).

In the year 2020, both countries will experience modest growth. Gross Domestic Product will grow by 1.9% in Spain and 3% in Mexico (International Monetary Fund, 2018). To exacerbate the problem, the gender gap in both countries contributes to the persistence of long-standing social concerns, and economic stagnation (Hernandez Bark, Escartín, & Dick, 2014; Cuadrado, García-Ael, & Molero, 2015; Cavada, Bobek, Skoko, & Maček, 2018). Clearly, the social and economic environments in these countries are challenging and worth exploring as they relate to the expectations of the next generation of professionals. This study builds on the assumption that educators can help train their students to face this type of challenge (Sánchez Rodríguez et al., 2016; Garcia et al., 2018; Ramírez-Pérez, Smith, Franco-López, Román-Maqueira, & Morote, 2015). Educators can implement curricular and co-curricular programs designed to develop the competencies their students need to perform in the current and future economic environment in their respective countries. Although it has not happened on a large-enough scale, educators are finding out that

developing their leadership skills helps students perform better in their professional lives (López, Cáceres, & Agreda, 2017).

Since the need to develop entrepreneurial competencies is a concern for educators in different countries (García et al., 2018), effective assessment procedures should consider the effects of culture (Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque, & House, 2006). Mundia (2012) described how educational institutions could enhance the value of the educational experience of their students. He proposed that students develop leadership and entrepreneurial competencies during their studies. Under this proposed framework, the role of teachers would be to assess this type of learning outcome through appropriate measures and develop educational experiences based on assessment results (Mundia, 2012). This is especially true for faculty members working with students from different cultures or in different countries. Javidan et al. (2006) noted that leadership dimensions are perceived and valued differently across cultures. This makes the tasks of teaching leadership and leading in different countries more challenging, especially considering that student leadership development is affected by contextual factors like perceptions of self, family, friends, and school (Čarter, Lang, & Szabo, 2013).

Consistent with the SoTL model proposed by Ernest Boyer approximately 30 years ago (Boyer, Moser, Ream, & Braxon, 2016), assessing student groups could inform both teaching and scholarship. For example, a more entrepreneurial program may create opportunities for teachers to apply new approaches and activities in class, stimulate creative research projects to complement the scholarly work of faculty members, and strengthen relationships with industry. This study seeks to incorporate both educational and research benefits.

Entrepreneurship and leadership education

Entrepreneurial leadership development is a priority supported by educational institutions in different parts of the world (Villasana, Alcaraz-Rodríguez, & Alvarez, 2016). For example, Bagheri and Lope Pihie (2013) noted that students involved in entrepreneurship education develop intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies that serve them well as they complete their undergraduate education. They noted that schools and programs also benefit by finding work-relevant learning outcomes and experiences that are implicit in leadership training. However, entrepreneurship intention largely depends on cultural influences (Pinillos Costa, 2011), and perception of appropriateness of educational experience varies by demographics like nation of origin or gender. Gallo-way, Kapasi, and Sang (2015) argued that effective entrepreneurship implies the adoption of modern leadership approaches that embrace equality, and questions the traditionally accepted entrepreneurship conceptualizations that place too much emphasis on business creation. This argument is consistent with the broad scope for entrepreneurship education described by Anderson and Covin (2014), who argued that entrepreneurs or managers display their dispositions based on their tendency to innovate, act proactively, and take risks. These behaviors are consistent with individuals starting new businesses, but this is also true of those working in established corporations in different roles. In fact, Shafique and Kalyar (2018) noted that employers seeking to develop entrepreneurial corporate cultures should hire applicants who exhibit transformational leadership qualities.

Therefore, it is incorrect to describe entrepreneurship education simply as a means to address unemployment among individ-

uals not able to find a job (Briales, 2017). The outcomes involved in entrepreneurship and leadership education are much broader, which suggest the need for well-prepared faculty in charge of helping their students develop the competencies they will need to lead productive lives. This study builds on the claim that educators responsible for designing and implementing curricular or co-curricular programs designed to help their students engage in productive career paths need more information than is currently available (Cabrera, Vries, & Anderson, 2008). A good way to help achieve this is by closing the research gap between entrepreneurship orientation and transformational leadership (Muchiri & McMurray, 2015), which educators can start doing by integrating leadership theory into the curriculum (Moore & Lewis, 2012). For the purposes of this study, transformational leadership is consistent with the Kouzes and Posner's model, which describes the leader-follower relationship as one where participants elevate one another to higher levels of performance (Posner, 2012).

Culture, assessment, and self-efficacy

A recent study on subjective well-being compared data used to measure levels of vital satisfaction, happiness, and positive and negative emotions between Mexican and Spanish undergraduate students (Carballeira, González, & Marrero, 2015). The Mexican students scored higher across the board than their Spanish counterparts, a result the researchers attributed to the effects of recent difficult economic conditions in Spain and unreasonably high expectations of young people in the country (Carballeira, González, & Marrero, 2015). Miguez, Gil, and Lafuente (2010) anticipated hard economic times in Spain after the start of the global financial crisis in 2008. They warned that a grim outlook on employment in Spain would make it especially challenging for its citizens to overcome the lasting effects of the global recession. In truth, it seems that both societies have reason to strive for change. However, it is important that educators realize macroeconomic conditions could influence assessment results, and learning needs of students.

While educators cannot control changes in the external environment, they can promote entrepreneurship education that leads to increased leadership self-efficacy among students (Bagheri & Lope Pihie, 2013). Increased self-efficacy can be very important for future leaders who need to believe that they can change the *status quo*. The current economic crisis in Spain may move the country toward a more entrepreneurial and equitable society, or it may cause it to return to the familiar, male-centered economic context (Hernandez Bark, Escartín, & Dick, 2014). To prevent the country from going in a backward direction, educators can help prepare the next generation of professionals to address the problems that challenge society, and promote development in the process (Jabbarov, 2018). Moreover, researchers have noted that leadership and economic development are linked (Clark, 1990; Williams, 1990). Therefore, institutions of higher education should play an active role in developing leaders who can serve as agents of change to improve economic conditions and democracy (Cantón, 2016). Promoting entrepreneurship on its own may not be enough to address the problems facing Mexico and Spain. A combination of entrepreneurship and leadership development may be a more reasonable approach. This suggests a need to place greater importance on developing leadership efficacy, which may constitute an effective strategy to improve overall conditions of the population (Ives, 2011; Mizrahitokatli & Guney, 2016).

Like entrepreneurship, the concept of leadership, and therefore leadership programs, are sensitive to cultural differences (Pittaway, Rivera, & Murphy, 2005). This raises the question of the role of faculty members from different parts of the world in identifying the appropriate leadership model for their students, given their cultural background. Addressing this question can help educators plan their work more efficiently and help promote a prosperous society by developing the next generation of leaders capable of changing the negative aspects associated with their countries (Pruett, 2012). Educators can find answers in the work of Posner (2012) who used the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model to assess student leadership in several parts of the world. Students who model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart at target levels may be well on their way to becoming transformational leaders who can elevate others and themselves to achieve higher levels of performance (Posner, 2012).

Three of the five practices are consistent with the entrepreneurial dispositions described by Anderson and Covin (2014), who argued that entrepreneurs are associated with innovativeness (enable others to act), proactiveness (inspire a shared vision), and risk-taking (challenge the process). The five practices of exemplary leadership are also consistent with empowerment and organizational commitment, as described by Manríquez, Ramírez, and Guerra (2010). Galloway et al. (2015) suggested that the next generation of entrepreneurs should embrace equity and performance-based standards through the application of modern leadership models. This, however, requires training and education. For their part, educators need to develop effective assessment strategies to be effective in the implementation of contemporary educational models (Ullauri Moreno, Vallejo Peñafiel, Cadena Figueroa, & Vinuesa Jara, 2018). In fact, simply measuring leadership efficacy may go a long way in creating awareness among participants and lead to greater levels of performance (Posner, 2012).

Entrepreneurial leadership and culture

Javidian et al. (2006) studied 61 societies in terms of cultural and leadership dimensions. The six leadership dimensions in their study were charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protected. The authors of the study, called project GLOBE, concluded that culture can influence perceptions of effective leadership. This claim was challenged by Graen (2006), who criticized the GLOBE study for ignoring leadership dimensions associated with transformational leadership and leader-member exchange (LMX) theories. His reasoning was that the GLOBE project based its conclusions on biased and culturally insensitive premises, and called on the authors of the study to develop further research to address these concerns.

Furthermore, Munley (2011) noted that leadership studies conducted across cultures were at risk of promoting generalizations about entire societies based on the responses of particular individuals, perhaps giving way to cultural stereotypes. On this matter, Hidalgo Campos, Manzur Mobarec, Olavarrieta Soto, and César Farías Nazel (2007) argued that more research on cultural distance among Latin American countries was needed to narrow the knowledge gap initially addresses by researchers in the Globe project.

Entrepreneurial leadership, employment, and gender

Young professionals with some work experience are more likely to keep their jobs or find another one when they decide to make a change if they have an undergraduate degree, which suggests the need for government officials to take steps in making sure dropout rates stay low (Acosta-Ballesteros, del Pilar Osorno-del Rosal, & Rodríguez-Rodríguez, 2014). Beyond finding ways to keep students from leaving school prematurely, entrepreneurship educators can help them develop the skills they need to succeed in the workplace, and prepare to start a business, if they chose to do so (Albornoz Pardo, 2013). However, in practice, entrepreneurship and self-employment are two terms that people use interchangeably and serve as popular solutions to address the problem of unemployment and economic underperformance. Cueto, Mayor, and Suárez (2015) conducted a study in Spain to examine the motivation behind self-employment. They found that self-employment increased or decreased based on the general unemployment rate. With high unemployment, individuals were more likely to participate in entrepreneurial ventures leading to self-employment. Cueto et al.'s (2015) study supports the traditional approach for describing entrepreneurship, which implies an alternative to finding a job. Under this perspective, entrepreneurship takes place more out of the need to find a job than from professional goals.

Adding to the discussion, Garrido Medina (2012) challenged the assumption that formal education is the path to secure employment. He compared unemployment and education levels in Spain in the mid-1980s and the years immediately after the economic crisis in the first decade of the new millennium, and concluded that more access to education does not alleviate unemployment. Garrido Medina (2012) noted that the solution to economic downturn, or at least high unemployment rates, rests on business performance rather than on educational institutions. Consistently, Cortés (2013) supported this argument by noting that the relatively accessible education system in Spain has not made much difference in the unemployment crisis of its citizens. This raises questions regarding the role of college education, and by implication entrepreneurship education, in helping students develop the skills they need to succeed as employees or business owners.

The Spanish government has tried to address the questions that concern the economic situation of the country and its education system, but with little success. Research conducted by Verger and Curran (2014) suggests that reforms enacted in the Spanish education system constitute a clear attempt to conform to international educational policies promoted by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), but important matters like equity continue to be unaddressed due to internal pressures from the education industry and political ineffectiveness. For their part, Universities in Mexico made important efforts to promote student involvement in business creation programs, but changes in curriculum development paradigms, faculty training, and support programs are still needed (Hernández Herrera & Sánchez Rodríguez, 2017). Moreover, some of the efforts made to create new academic programs in response to the changing economic realities of the country have been misguided, resulting in graduates from new academic programs facing unemployment and dissatisfaction with their educational choice (Cabrera, Vries, & Anderson, 2008). The initiatives undertaken by government offi-

cial and education industry representatives in these countries may have fallen short of their goals; which is why it is important for highly trained educators to continue working toward the goal of developing well-prepared students who can lead a more equitable society (Yavuz, 2016).

Another reason for concern is that efforts made in the implementation of educational initiatives designed to address current societal challenges have done little to improve gender equity. Gender typing in Spain continues to take place (Hernandez Bark et al., 2014; Cuadrado et al., 2015). This can affect managerial approaches, for instance, female business owners tend to delegate less than male business owners, placing more of the burden of running their companies on themselves (Junquera, 2011). Consistently, in Mexico, female entrepreneurs are more vulnerable to criticism, leading to higher risk aversion, due to long-standing gender typing (Cavada et al., 2018). This makes it harder for economies to prosper, which makes the need for more research evident.

Villasana et al. (2016) analyzed four attributes associated with entrepreneurship self-efficacy between male and female undergraduate students in several Latin American Universities and one in Europe (Spain). They concluded that male students exhibit higher levels of self-efficacy in risk management, creativity, and problem management than their female counterparts. In contrast, in Mexico, while women continue to occupy a disproportionately low share of top management positions in the country, there is no conclusive evidence that men exhibit higher levels of leadership self-efficacy (Díaz, 2018). Therefore, the gender gap in leadership roles, and acceptance in entrepreneurial roles, are attributed to factors other than competency or leadership efficacy. Given the fact that it is likely to find conflicting views on male and female leadership and entrepreneurship, perhaps it is best to focus on one particular approach that yields consistent results, namely, the transformational leadership approach.

Results from a study designed to measure transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, and gender identity among 431 undergraduate students in Spain suggested that emotional intelligence and gender are associated with transformational leadership (Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero, & Berrios Martos, 2012). This supports the claim that the implementation of educational programs to develop transformational leadership, together with entrepreneurship training, may help promote gender equity and enable young professionals to adapt more readily to the current social and economic conditions.

The leader as entrepreneur

Minică (2017) argued that the ideal entrepreneur combines the calculating, objective personality of traditional managers with the soft qualities of leaders. This is consistent with the recommendation set forth by Nirmala and Kumar (2018) whose research suggested that institutions of higher education promote the development of quantitative reasoning, critical thinking, and self-motivation. Shivor, Shalyefu, and Kadhila (2018) added leadership competencies to this list. Therefore, entrepreneurship is not a synonym for self-employment or an alternative to finding a job. Entrepreneurship development includes a set of skills that help individuals succeed in a wider range of contexts, including corporate life, social roles, and market creation (Pache & Chowdhury, 2012). Educators can work under this approach because help-

ing their students develop skills or competencies falls within the scope of education.

Ward, Yates, and Joon Young (2015) argued in favor of leadership education programs at the undergraduate level with students from different academic disciplines. Well-managed, transformational leadership development programs can work in international contexts, which makes the approach appropriate for people from different places (Precey & Entrena, 2011). In addition, entrepreneurial leadership education can have important effects on students by placing greater emphasis on what motivates people to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Moreover, the gender gap tends to become narrow as leaders embrace transformational leadership models (Díaz, 2018). Therefore, transformational leadership dimensions constitute, at least, an approximation to the competencies entrepreneurs need to perform in the marketplace today.

HYPOTHESES

This brief review of the literature suggests that leadership and entrepreneurship education seek some of the same goals, which are helping students develop marketable skills in the labor market, and create change that helps address societal concerns. To address the stated problem in this study, and help educators identify variables that influence their entrepreneurship and leadership education approach, the following hypotheses will guide this research.

Hypothesis 1: There are statistically significant differences in S-LPI mean scores for participants from Spain and Mexico.

Hypothesis 2: There are statistically significant differences in S-LPI mean scores for female and male participants.

METHOD AND MATERIALS

Participants

This study used a convenience sample to obtain and analyze data, yielding findings that may be transferable to similar groups to the ones under study (Creswell, 2014). In total, 95 undergraduate students participated in the study. Forty-six were students enrolled in one Mexican university and 49 were enrolled one Spanish university. There were 41 total male respondents (17 from Mexico, 24 from Spain) and 54 female respondents (29 from Mexico, 25 from Spain). The Mexican students participated in a co-curricular program designed to promote social engagement. These students attended leadership and entrepreneurship conferences, engaged in civic and environmental awareness events, and held regular meetings on campus to share their views on current events. The Spanish students participated in an entrepreneurship course offered at their institution. They attended conferences on innovation and change, and were involved in developing entrepreneurship projects designed to address the gaps in the market that may lead to business development.

Procedure

One of the authors of this article approached the Mexican students on campus at one of their weekly meetings to invite them to participate in the study by signing the informed consent form and completing the S-LPI. The 46 out of 100 students who agreed to participate received a folder containing the informed

consent form and the S-LPI, with the appropriate instructions. The other two authors of this article traveled to Spain to guest lecture at one entrepreneurship course at the host university. The researchers approached the students through their program coordinator. Like the Mexican students, the Spanish students received the folder containing the informed consent form and the S-LPI with instructions. All of the Spanish students who were invited to participate in the study agreed to do so.

Instrument

The S-LPI is used to conduct research under the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model. It is a 30-item, five-point, Likert-scale questionnaire divided into five transformational leadership dimensions (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart) with each dimension consisting of six items (Posner, 2012). Posner (2012) analyzed 77,387 S-LPI responses by students from different parts of the world. His analysis concluded that the instrument showed strong validity and reliability both inside and outside the United States. The S-LPI is used in a variety of educational settings involving undergraduate students (McKinney & Waite, 2016; Romsa, Romsa, Lim, & Wurdinger, 2017).

Data Analysis

The responses recorded in the 95 questionnaires were analyzed with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). To test the two hypotheses stated in the study, independent-samples t-tests were calculated to compare mean scores for Mexican and Spanish undergraduate students (H1), and male and female mean scores (H2). T-tests were used to conduct the analysis because of appropriateness with small samples like the one under analysis, and application in previous research conducted under the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model (Díaz, 2018).

RESULTS

The two independent variables in this study were the country of origin of the participants (Mexico and Spain), and gender, and the dependent variables were the five practices of exemplary leadership in Kouzes and Posner's model (Posner, 2012). Table 1 and Table 2 illustrate the results.

The results for the two hypotheses are as follows:

Table 1. S-LPI Mean Scores for Mexican and Spanish Undergraduate Students

Constructs	Mexico		Spain		t	p
	N	Mean(SD)	N	Mean(SD)		
Model the way	46	23.50(3.24)	49	21.06(3.38)	3.57	<.05
Inspire a shared vision	46	24.13(3.41)	49	20.59(3.88)	4.70	<.05
Challenge the process	46	23.80(3.32)	49	20.75(4.39)	3.79	<.05
Enable other to act	46	24.30(3.62)	49	22.14(4.65)	2.51	<.05
Encourage the heart	46	24.67(3.50)	49	21.75(3.63)	3.97	<.05

Table 2. S-LPI Mean Scores for Male and Female Undergraduate Students from Both Countries.

Constructs	Male		Female		t	p
	N	Mean(SD)	N	Mean(SD)		
Model the way	41	22.31(3.39)	54	22.18(3.64)	.180	>.05
Inspire a shared vision	41	22.85(4.24)	54	21.88(3.89)	1.150	>.05
Challenge the process	41	22.31(4.50)	54	22.16(3.86)	.173	>.05
Enable other to act	41	23.21(4.57)	54	23.16(4.12)	.059	>.05
Encourage the heart	41	23.04(3.58)	54	23.25(4.06)	-.263	>.05

- Hypothesis 1 was retained. The data show (Table 1) that there are statistically significant differences between Mexican and Spanish groups who completed the S-LPI.
- Hypothesis 2 was rejected. There are no statistically significant differences between male and female groups who completed the S-LPI.

DISCUSSION

The need to analyze leadership expectations of students from different cultures or nationalities, under the assumption that they are the future leaders of organizations, was articulated by Čarter, Lang, and Szabo (2013) when they expanded the scope of the GLOBE Project. They argued that student leaders from different cultural backgrounds might have different expectations regarding leader performance or personality. Consistently, Pittaway et al., (2005) noted that leadership was sensitive to culture. The results from this study suggest that Mexican and Spanish undergraduate students perceive leadership behavior differently. The transformational leadership dimensions measured through the S-LPI seem to align better with the behaviors of Mexican students than the behaviors of their Spanish counterparts. This, of course, comes from data taken from a purposive sample that may not be generalizable, but it serves to support S-LPI findings from previous works that compare results from students from different nationalities (Posner, 2012). This suggests the need for leadership educators in Mexico and Spain to take a personalized approach in the development of their leadership programs. This is a significant finding in terms of application for entrepreneurship and leadership educators.

The results in this study suggest that the Mexican and Spanish students rate themselves differently in terms of their behaviors aimed at modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. These behaviors are consistent with those of effective entrepreneurs, and they can be learned. It is possible that the differences in scores may be due to the different economic contexts of the two countries, personal expectations, or educational systems. Regardless, from this initial assessment, educators charged with training these students can create curricular or co-curricular programs designed to address one or more of these behaviors.

Previous research on culture involving participants from Mexico and the United States suggest that gender and other demographic variables may affect leadership perception (Rodríguez-Rubio & Kiser, 2013). However, the results from this study (Table 2) are consistent with research that suggest that gender does not moderate transformational leadership self-efficacy (Díaz, 2018). This implies that leadership educators can expect their male and female students to perform at similar levels under the transformational approach, which should help to narrow the gender gap in leadership. The findings presented here also contribute to the literature on entrepreneurship education. Minică (2017) suggested managerial and leadership skills were essential in the development of ideal entrepreneurs. With these findings, educators interested in pursuing well-rounded entrepreneurs may find the development of transformational leadership competencies (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart) to be relevant to male and female students. It is worth remembering that three of the S-LPI dimensions are consistent with three entrepreneurial

dispositions described by Anderson and Covin (2014). Educators are likely to find that these competencies may not be culture-neutral, and should find ways to contextualize them through their entrepreneurship development programs. They can address this knowledge gap in future studies that measure entrepreneurial leadership using other modern leadership models like leader-member exchange or servant leadership.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Concretely, the implications of this study rest on the suggestion that entrepreneurship educators integrate the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model in their curricular and co-curricular programs. The work published by Burbank, Odom, and Sandlin (2015) serves as a valuable resource for educators who hope to enhance their educational practices by conducting leadership assessments using Kouzes and Poser's model. By assessing student self-efficacy levels in terms of the model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart dimensions, educators can design and apply educational strategies in support of one or more of these behaviors. Previous research on student employability skills development stressed the need to incorporate so-called "soft skills" in the undergraduate and graduate curriculum (M. & Rajasekaran, 2018; Bhagra & Sharma, 2018). This study expands on this by focusing on one particular type of competency (leadership) that educators can develop through their curricular or co-curricular programs, and goes beyond the goal of self-employment.

Embedding the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership model into the curriculum implies, first, conducting an initial assessment using the S-LPI, and examining the results to identify which behaviors require support or enhancement. Second, faculty members can design learning exercises in support of specific dimensions. For example, educators can teach their students to challenge the process by having them participate in business case or pitch competitions where judges will expect them to propose new ways of addressing human needs that can be marketable. Third, educators can document their experiences with students and use the data to engage in entrepreneurship education conferences or publish their work in peer-reviewed journals. This will allow others to join the discussion and promote new and effective ways of training students to address some of the social and economic problems that continue to go unaddressed.

CONCLUSION

Undergraduate students in Mexico and Spain face a challenging labor market that resulted from poor economic performance, and persistent social inequality. To help them overcome these challenges, entrepreneurship educators need to teach the next generation of professionals to develop entrepreneurial skills that will prepare them to meet the needs of established organizations, and markets where there is room for new business development. These educators may also serve their purpose by helping close the gender gap in leadership and entrepreneurship, which has been an obstacle for economic development in the past, and its negative effects continue to be an issue. Educators might address the gender gap in leadership and entrepreneurship roles by having the next generation of professionals embrace transformational leadership as they enact their entrepreneurial roles in society. In short, entrepreneurship educators need to make greater efforts

to include leadership development in their entrepreneurship programs.

The main recommendation presented here is that entrepreneurship educators should integrate one transformational leadership model, the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, by using the S-LPI to assess leadership self-efficacy among their students, and develop educational strategies based on their results. As the results from this study suggest, place of origin influences levels of self-efficacy when it comes to leadership, so educators should consider personalizing their teaching-learning strategies accordingly. This study is not without limitations. Beyond the already noted use of a purposive sample, that prevents generalization of the results, Carter, Ro, Alcott, and Lattuca (2016) cautioned that self-selecting participants introduce bias into the research. In this case, the Mexican and Spanish cohorts participate in programs designed to promote the types of competencies assessed in this study, so it is likely that their results will be different from those of undergraduate students not involved in leadership of entrepreneurship development programs.

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