

Formation of Skills for Achieving Pragmatic and Social Cooperation in Young Leaders

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Abstract:

The relevance of the formation of leadership skills that make pragmatic and social cooperation possible is always topical and essential. The psychological consequences of the advancement of the fourth and fifth industrial revolutions are most often cited as important reasons for studying the development of leadership in a market economy. Attracting the young population for the purpose of expanding leadership practices through the development of its leaders based on the teaching of certain social programs is possible. The research literature views the formation of social skills, such as the features of pragmatic and social cooperation, as a priority in the context of the organization of leadership training for young managers. Therefore, this study is aimed at the issue of the formation of pragmatic and social skills for the implementation of cooperation for intention and for sharing among a group of students in secondary vocational education. The relevance of the study is dictated by the economic interests of society, which is constantly searching for competitive leaders. The overestimation of social leadership has increased considerably over the past few years. The absence or insufficient formation of leadership skills is the main reason for this growth. This has led to the profile of a leader who can efficiently implement pragmatic and social cooperation. It is important for the formation of the profession of a leader, especially when young leaders are involved in decision-making, as leadership training is conducted through the use of psychological and pedagogical technologies, as well as on the basis of scientific fundamentals, considering the existing teaching programs.

Keywords: leadership, young leaders, pragmatic skills, social cooperation, individual leadership.

1. Introduction

The education of young leaders is an educational task based on the individual responsibility of every society. A new approach is to use the history of company leaders to teach entrepreneurial personality. This priority, the preparation for the pragmatic skills of economic management with communicational competence in the spirit of social cooperation, determines the content of the present key competence "learning to learn" and is considered a basic skill. Aspiration to the pragmatic skills of business management and social cooperation. The focus points were considered from the perspective of the internal and external formation of skills. The dominant socio-cultural approach is the skill formation of the well-functioning individual, in the social environment organized by social agreements and appropriately applying the possibilities of the labor market. Development of pragmatic and communicational competence resolves a variety of general social calls. A conventional definition describes the pragmatic abilities used in labor force management as responsibility for factual task solving to impress the owner and social environment as "is-questions and acts".

In the current world of increasing diversity and fast pace, young leaders find themselves faced with the challenge of transforming attitudes and behaviors in pragmatic and social cooperation, especially when it concerns those who are under their guidance. A brief glance at existing leadership theories that underpin the evolution of a leader indicates that the process is multifaceted, yet developing the ability to interact with another in a compassionate, considerate, and respectful manner is pervasive across the theories. It underscores the connectedness between 'self' and 'other,' and an awareness of the social-psychological influences that hold sway over the attitudes and behaviors of individuals in workplace settings. Consequently, the inability to navigate these complicated social webs could result in the inability to actually foster any positive change that the leader is appointed to bring. [1]

The underlying research question of this study can be formulated as follows: Can pragmatic social cooperation suitable for competitive, profitable environments be learned, and how can these competencies be gained? To answer these questions, this study aims to review training methods in the literature on effectiveness in adult vocational training with a focus on leadership. This will be grounded in a discussion on forms of cooperation and competitive networking, underpinned by the forms of millennial cooperators identified in research.

Background and Rationale. The need for the skills necessary for pragmatic and social cooperation in leadership competencies is a response to the present age. While the conception of leadership has evolved over the last 150 years, researchers typically identify five distinct generations of leadership theory. Leadership theory began to take form in the early 20th century with the emergence of the trait approach. The development of leadership theory proceeded with shifts from situational or behavioral approaches toward contingency theories. These historic approaches to leadership informed contemporary theory and practice, resulting in an increased focus on transformational, charismatic, and visionary leadership. This trend is consistent across sectors, including industrial, military, and traditional business organizations. The external environment of these organizations is changing rapidly: "Relentless pressures from competition, new technologies, and globalization are creating demands for change across the world, and organizational leaders need to be adaptable, innovative, and rapid in their responses." [2, 3, 4, 5]

Consequently, theory and practice co-evolved, giving rise to such novelties as networked leaders, distributed leadership, new leadership, and leadership for change. These forms of leadership suggest that the nature of leadership might be shifting. So far, the example of distributed leadership, particularly its core idea of shared leadership roles that emerge from collective team dynamics, seems consistent with societal trends in democratic practices and knowledge-intensive teamwork.

However, there is limited research on the skills required for socially and pragmatically cooperating leaders, as well as on how these skills can be developed and transmitted. There is even less research on whether these skills can be developed before leaders gain experience in challenging roles. The development of these skills in young leaders is important because continuity and social development go hand in hand. Leaders need to be competent to address emerging challenges from fields such as environmental sustainability, healthcare, and advanced technologies.

2. Materials and Methods

Theoretical Framework. The establishment of the current theoretical framework relates to pragmatic skills, since this study assumes that successful leadership entails a complex activity that is to a great extent based on pragmatic skills and is developed in the course of social cooperation, mainly in networks, less so in formal structures and hierarchies. This paper sees the formation of such opportunities and, as a result, enhances the interconnections among successful social cooperators for leadership formation. The formation and effectiveness of dealings and organization will, consequently, also be determined by pragmatic skills. Cooperation success can be provided by reducing transaction costs and creating substantive solutions to the fundamental human needs and problems arising from social cooperation. [6, 7]

In network cooperation, those who are able to contribute to the realization of these premises will have the best opportunities to improve their social position and attractiveness. This becomes even more important in domains characterized by high uncertainty and irreversibility of the advantages of mutual cooperation, as is the case in domains of knowledge creation. Within the variety of studies dedicated to leadership, leadership skills, and personal trait theories, many points to the character of connections among these different theories. Also, many successive studies attempt to integrate developing leadership and these theories with practices oriented towards organizations. This essay takes both these theoretical and practical overlaps seriously in its study aim. It focuses on the capabilities fundamental for pragmatic leadership and checks to see their potential for near-industrial applicability with a sample of potential young leaders.

Pragmatic Skills in Leadership. This sentence introduces pragmatic skills in great detail. Pragmatic skills are indispensable for effective social cooperation. They are a system of abilities and habits that allow for the carrying out of effective and socially acceptable linguistic and non-linguistic activities. Pragmatic skills are commonly defined by the sustained competence to choose the most appropriate actions in specific social situations. Knowledge of the pragmatic skills of leaders is in a developmental stage in general. Leadership studies are mainly focused on defining the skills and proposed competencies rather than differentiating them within the pragmatic and social categories. Depending on the perspective, research on skill theories in support of leadership can be classified into five approaches to competence. Competencies can be either mechanical, automatic, social-operational, or cognition-oriented. Pragmatic skills are crucial assets for young leaders. Leadership in the real world is not as simple as leadership simulations or workshop cases. Situations occur in real social contexts that cannot be predicted. The greater the number of liaisons and communication occurring between leaders and between the leader and external agents, the greater the need for good pragmatic skills. Pragmatic skills support the adaptation of efficient communicative behaviors in different social interactions and the minimization of communicative conflict. They include interpersonal competencies that underlie a social background related to self and other awareness and the ways to motivate, cooperate, and influence the exchange value of the network. Pragmatic competencies also include intrapersonal competencies like the awareness of personal limitations and the ability and willingness to take personal responsibility. All pragmatic skills are indispensable assets of a good leader, including several competencies such as affective ability, effective and efficient oral communication, altruism, the ability to identify room for improving the normally good synergy, and the continual development of transferable skills. It is desirable for developing young

leaders, not only from an educational practices standpoint, to assess the degree of awareness about these ranks of skills and to identify the lack of understanding. [6]

3. Reviews and Discussion

Importance of Social Cooperation in Leadership. Social cooperation is essential for efficient management and leadership success. Developing more socio-cooperative individuals who are socially interactive and receptive to collaboration can greatly benefit organizations. Social cooperative efforts among organizational leaders improve participative environments and contribute to effective decision-making. Nevertheless, leaders are lost when they struggle to align social responses. An environment that fosters and enhances social cooperative activities should be a goal for leaders looking to improve their practices. For instance, in reviewing several contemporary case studies, there is increased supervisor-subordinate trust worthy of an improvement rating on satisfaction scores from employees. [8]

Social cooperation is a resource in a team's stability and growth. It reduces transactional stressors with communication and shareable workload. Clearly, creating environments that are conducive to socio-cooperativeness provides favorable benefits. However, not all worldviews support this level of proximal social cooperation. It is argued that setting common goal orientation will not create social cooperativeness because conflict is inherent in goal descriptions. Management is expected to see conflict as a normal part of the work environment and one possible team focus, while concurrently working on the cooperative attraction for pro-social tasks. They propose that management is expected to have the ability for conflict resolution within the dynamic of creating subgroups, sharing goals, and working independently without a common orientation in all subgroups.

Social cooperation contributes to empowerment and enhanced group productivity. While senior teams practice social coordination, the obstacle may be that subordinates do not follow the social and productive cultural example. Social cooperative leaders who delegate tasks and share in group values can provide a greater product. For instance, there is a strong negative relationship between an external locus of control and citizenship behavior. Leadership effectiveness is indexed by composite performance metrics, which includes a factor for the perception of trust. Perceptions of a cooperative manager predict direct reports' turnover intentions. In short, these studies and others like them support that social cooperation will lead to positive delineation of leadership as a function of retention, turnover, task performance, goal commitment, and other performance outcome measures.

Benefits and Challenges. Teams that are more cohesive have been shown to be better able to undertake complex tasks, be more innovative, respond more effectively to organizational change, and be able to more effectively reach their goals. Information moves more freely between employees in a cohesive team, allowing stronger cooperative norms to be established and increasing knowledge sharing. An employee's desire to cooperate socially is linked to their morale and trust and is therefore likely to lead to a stronger interpersonal commitment to team success. Enhanced social cooperation benefits the team, in that social network-related factors such as absorptive capacity or relational capital have been shown to predict a greater achievement of targets.

One of the primary obstacles to achieving higher levels of social cooperation is resistance and skepticism. This can be manifested in many different ways, from openly expressed resistance to the notion that improved cooperation is a core goal of leadership to skepticism as to whether people can really be trusted to cooperate. To develop leadership that can encourage social cooperation, it is important to identify and address some of the underlying assumptions and evidence that seem to be leading to such resistance and skepticism. Any organization that has a significant level of work being done around the world has to recognize that people can have very different attitudes towards

cooperation. Organizational and national cultural behaviors can also impede the establishment of effective cooperative behaviors.

Developmental Stages of Leadership Skills. Acquisition, expansion, and stabilization of individual human talents in the sense of leadership and wealth are reversible and vary largely depending on the life phases. The social, emotional, and cognitive abilities of children, adolescents, and adults are versatile, which is why the possibilities and opportunities for promoting them are different. Therefore, educational processes must be designed in accordance with developmental stages. The phases of development (infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, old age) are characterized by physical and psychological changes. The acquisition of social, emotional, and cognitive development and sustainability in the stages of life itself should be proportionate to the requirements and opportunities presented by the social environment. The development stages are therefore interpreted as genetically secured evolutionary sequences that are transmitted across culture and generations. The acquirement of social skills or leadership capabilities at an early age of life has long-term consequences. Preventive support advantages at primary stages may positively indicate the developmental status of the individual later. This is why early detection and early intervention are gaining importance. The paradigm has shifted from the preparation of an individual for later to the promotion of an individual's basic skills that are beneficial to the next age group as he or she prepares for his subsequent career. Knowledge of developmental processes and their advantages is essential for the successful delivery of personalized teaching content in a timely manner. If individual children are able to achieve their maximum potential, societies profit overall. However, since the preparation and evaluation of educational strategies are properly matched using developmental calendars, this information is frequently overlooked.

Childhood and Early Adolescence. Numerous research pieces highlight the fact that the leadership abilities of every individual are the result of their childhood experiences, developmental learning, and socialization processes. The educational environment and developmental period of an individual are critical factors in their skill formation potential. Given this, it is thought that young people have a greater skill formation potential during the formative years. Therefore, these years, which consist of childhood and early adolescence (from 7 to 14-15 years of age), should be handled separately, especially in the case of leadership skill formation. The childhood years correspond to the beginning of this period at the time of migration to primary school. This period can be divided into two in terms of school completion and new political and ethical positions. Leadership abilities can be gained and cultivated in individuals with the effect of primary school friends and will be transferred to the following years. [9]

Teamwork that has been internalized is thought to positively affect potential leaders in two ways. First, such individuals will be more successful in coordination and decision-making over time. Second, it will be assumed that these individuals have respect for their friends and are respected by others, so that within their ethical understanding, those who believe that they can give a voice to the team members and bring a new horizon will also make communication. At the end of their leadership-seeking work with such an understanding, they will have made a great impact on them during their childhood and on their leadership abilities throughout their lives. It is important for these students to have examples to shape the future. The impact of leaders on young people was another factor in becoming a leader in that educational environment. This development environment will affect the future leaders of the organization. Leadership is inspired action for cooperation. It is a program that can be accepted easily in childhood. To direct children with such a spirit is to provide a conscious development. At best, the leadership skills learned during this period are nurtured in the upper period. When programs are held for children, direct training is given. Following this camp, questions asked to children turned out to be influential on the success of the camp. It is important to provide leadership capabilities for children and to be able to complete this

capacity and benefit from this skill in future developments. In fact, success obtained during this period is considered significant, as it is also predicted that children can rise in cultivation with the existence of this skill.

Educational Strategies for Skill Formation. The systems of personal skills formation are shaped by theoretical and practical educational approaches to understanding the specificity of skill acquisition. Skill is defined as a conscious cognition aimed at being based on autonomous, comprehensive, and situationally adequate practical and emotional tools for solving complex system-determined tasks, which often require a choice. Skills formation can only occur in an interactive, subject-object, active, and socially relevant learning environment. The direct object of educational activities in the conditions of this pedagogical task is the individual who has the opportunity to develop a subject of goods.

The aim of this problem is to justify a series of options and educational strategies for achieving this age-specific pervasive educational outcome, showing future leaders' personal pragmatic features in the implementation of pre-project analysis, development, and implementation of activities. The task of the research is an attempt to justify the need for educational strategies, implying an educational process with the aim of changing the personal features of young people so that they become more demanding in choosing what they pursue for leadership in all areas of their lives. Educational approaches and the implementation of a strategy based on these educational approaches should be adequately covered for the purpose and objectives of this problem. The selected educational strategy can enhance a wide range of pedagogical methods inherent to the chosen educational approach, contribute to, optimize, and transform the interaction of students in the field of the pedagogical direction of the project, the subject of this strategy.

4. Results

Experiential Learning. Experiential learning is a critical strategy for young leader skill formation. Known by various synonyms, experiential learning has been the subject of investigation for over a century and remains an active field in its own right. Kolb's experiential learning cycle is one of the most cited examples of experiential learning theory, which states that concrete experience leads to observation and reflection, leading to the formation of abstract concepts, which is then actively tested. Reflective observation can test new and existing ideas, leading back to new abstract concepts. Critically, Kolb emphasizes the role of experience in the formation of ideas and knowledge, which in turn suggests that actual experience with a concept is critical to memorability and deeper learning and understanding.

Experiential learning is commonly referenced in the context of business or management literature as the preferred mechanism for instructing students in business with practical marketable skills. This idea is rampant in the literature as an argument for why more practical, "real-world" experiences need to be included in academic curricula, particularly in SoTL literature. In one example of the effectiveness of experiential learning, two biology courses that teach systems biology at different levels are studied. An introductory course allows students to reinvestigate a research question the professor and students were not able to answer. The findings show that students obtained a greater understanding of how science works in real life, collaboration between different majors, and the overlapping skills among the students. Engaging in solving real-world problems and exploring scientific content in a "real-world" environment promotes the development of important skills. Working on questions and problems that are not cut-and-dried—cases and problems that require data assessment, data interpretation, and data-appropriate argumentation—boosts students' critical thinking and scientific reasoning skills. Assignments should require students to solve challenges. Problems should be complex and require skill in the discipline under study in many cases, but students should also have to integrate information and findings from a number of sources and disciplines to solve the problem. [10]

Mentorship and Role Modeling. Mentorship and Role Modeling. An industry mentor or research mentor can offer their mentee guidance or assistance to help them navigate their duties or roles in an executive and professional setting. These relationships might include answering questions and knowledge acquisition, goal setting, and exposing young individuals to different pragmatic norms. Not many members will have access to formal mentors, but those participants who do can expect to change and develop their strategies and identities in response to the support of individuals who have lived or who share similar experiences and career trajectories. The success or failure of a young manager might hinge on whether or not they meet and develop effective relationships with a leader or influential adult in their organization. Such individuals come to play a powerful role in the future leader's investment in a range of organizational activities that further embrace pragmatic and social cooperation with others. [11]

Therefore, mentorship might be an important mechanism through which young individuals engage in different pragmatic and social cooperative events and follow a mentor's lead with pragmatic partners, as well as being an important outlet for enabling practical support to engage in these events, acquire new skills, ask for advice, and take necessary risks associated with the effort to develop these leadership skills. Instead of promoting leaders or leadership, organizations may be best served by fostering relationships and extending the development of pragmatic skills and social cooperation beyond their traditional boundaries. A successful young leader can give them the time and energy to build leadership into a reality rather than a luxury. Moreover, if young people engage in these activities and discuss career trajectories with adult mentors in those activities, then they will have the chance to grow as leaders, the confidence to do so, and the desire to develop a network of colleagues, friends, and experts.

Cultural and Contextual Factors. The cultural expectations of leaders and leadership behaviors can significantly shape what leadership skills and behaviors are valued, and what might therefore be expected to develop and be used by young people in particular cultures and communities. Leadership is often seen as task-focused in the globalized West, while relationships are more emphasized in the East. Social norms and values that are particular to contexts will also act upon the formation of different leadership styles; for example, for an individualistic Western sex or generation. We might expect significant differences in the skills that develop and are valued within educational settings that focus on group work and collaborative learning as opposed to those that do not. The internationally mobile and socially hyperactive lives of many young people mean that there is a growing blending of different cultural attitudes in student groups. The need for culturally adaptive and pragmatic language use is probably growing, though we are also aware that "enlightened" native speaker attitudes are not as widespread within management practice as within academia.

Contexts that have been associated with developmentally produced leadership skills have predominantly been schools or employment settings. Historically, many of the skills that are associated with leadership have been developed or used in extracurricular capacities. Equally, there are many community, complementary, youth work, youth integration, and social movement environments that are outside both formal education and employment, where young people can and do develop those leadership skills that they find relevant and useful for the task at hand, i.e., not necessarily those articulated as leadership. Equally, journey skills, which are strongly associated with leadership, are frequently developed within informal settings. It can be expected that not all young people may choose to develop or be seen to develop journey skills in order to opt for leadership. All of this also pans out in the adult environment and in adult policy-targeted leadership. The various experiences and understandings of "leadership" are in stark contrast to any overly determined, top-down approach to leadership definitions that do not take into account young people's experiences. We can state with certainty that social science has come to embrace this

wealth of difference. A laudable move in educational settings has been to extend participation values in the determination of school policy, behavioral matters, and pedagogical practices. Given the world of variety already uncovered, the absolute necessity and the benefit of a leadership training approach that is genuinely inclusive takes some time to sink in. Such an approach has to be able to draft a flexible set of cultural and pedagogical competences and does not attempt to impose one hegemonic form of leadership, educational or otherwise.

Assessment and Evaluation of Skills. The assessment and evaluation of leadership skills in young leaders pose several challenges. Several tools and approaches for measuring skill acquisition and assessing leadership competence are available. Formative assessment and evaluative or summative assessments work as a basis for providing feedback. While formative assessment acts as a guide to the learning and skill acquisition process, the summative assessment measures a certain level of proficiency and provides a holistic view of skill competence. Assessing self and peers is a widely utilized approach that mainly fosters self-reflection and peer discussion. Assessing leadership learning is inherently subjective.

There are a number of challenges and considerations in designing a student assessment that measures skill development aligned with educational objectives. When developing leadership competencies, education seeks to develop skills that professionals can utilize in their field. The outcomes of skill development are therefore practical applications. Assessment should be an extension of that learning, not necessarily an adjunct that has little practical application. Steps should be taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the instrument and outcome. Because leadership is multifaceted, assessment instruments might need to focus on the elements relevant for a specific course or outcome and demonstrate that they are measuring the intended outcome only. Assessment should be task-based, as assessment tools developed with full reference to actual on-the-job performance produce the most valid results for that performance in education. Designing a reliability measurement for a longitudinal and transformational study of leadership education, with all its permeating curriculum, requires significant forethought and testing, but is nonetheless paramount to gaining acceptance of the measurement. Assessment should therefore target clearly defined learning outcomes that serve students in the practical application of upper-level skills. In addition, this form of assessment should allow students access for performance evaluation, especially if progress needs to be assessed and a development plan needs to be initiated. Moving beyond assessment of the tool or behavior to the assessment by the supervisor on the job would be ideal, making that connection not to the skill itself but to the actual use of that skill in the world, the ultimate measure of outcomes. This approach permits the application of assessments to be utilized for future leadership placements.

Case Studies and Best Practices. The four case studies that follow are very different from one another in terms of design, theme, and target group. What these cases have in common, however, is their effectiveness in the formation of leadership abilities, their emphasis on relevant stakeholders, their relevance in the context in which they are applied, and collected evidence of their results. In the first case, South African university graduates participated in an innovative intervention where they learned, using experiential and appreciative approaches, the Classroom Alive program, during which the participants became aware of their own agency, resilience, interest, and the impact they could make. The second case study describes how young, at-risk individuals in the U.S. special education system who completed an arts-based leadership development program showed a positive increase in a self-assessment instrument of leadership and coping with beliefs, competencies, and skills. In the third case, U.S. Master of Business Administration (MBA) students learned about leadership through the Literacy Class with a project-based approach, where the participants had the opportunity to apply relevant coursework to a community-based project, versus traditional leadership course instruction. The fourth case, which describes an innovative preventive leadership

development program involving e-social leadership, has been successful in preventing and reducing the use of illegal drugs and eliminating communication problems experienced by the participants, discovered through a comparative analysis. The different contexts in which these case studies are used suggest a range of program uses. [12, 13, 14, 15, 16]

The development and proliferation of effective leadership formation programs depend on what we can learn from actual experience. What were the effective techniques employed in the best case studies, and what were the results? This paper examined four effective case studies in particular, based on their emphasis on stakeholders, effectiveness, relevance, and a collection of evidence. Results indicated that participants emphasize actively participating in partnership with community-based organizations learning about leadership, rather than simply gaining leadership knowledge and a certificate after completing a traditional format of a course. Recommendations for business educators and potential program developers are discussed.

5. Conclusion

Conclusion In sum, we began this paper by noting that many definitions of leadership describe the practice of mobilizing people towards valued goals. We then used this idea to focus on two large areas of research more recently associated with leadership: one designed to help mobilize coherent action and the other designed to help leaders themselves solve collective action problems. Drawing on research in cognitive and social psychology, we discussed the large array of skills associated with each area and asserted that most claims about the biological or epigenetic origins of these skills are overblown. We also highlighted a large body of research concerning educational strategies that are associated with the development of these skills, although little of this research has focused directly on leadership.

The precise role of individual leaders in geopolitics is a topic for a different paper, and indeed some of the interventions used by educators will have far more noticeable effects in education or psychology than they will in the development of world leaders. Nevertheless, educators will be interested in issues like what mental and social skills are most important for social cooperation, how they develop over time, and under what conditions they can be best remediated. They are also influential in creating the environments in which leaders are raised. For these reasons, we have discussed research on the development of these skills and identified a number of promising directions for research of interest to both scientists and practitioners. We have intentionally described methodologies and findings at a high level and avoided the reporting of specific statistical results unless they were illustrative of a broader process. This should enable our practical recommendations to reach a larger audience. Moreover, our review also suggests potentially fruitful new directions for scholars to pursue. In particular, developmental scientists with an interest in social norms and values might be particularly positioned to explore the issues of practical cost, value, culture, and identity discussed here but in more depth.

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