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Head or Heart? And other Challenges and Issues in Leadership Education

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Introduction and Background

This presentation explores the challenges and issues currently facing leadership educators. Many fields of inquiry and practice recognize the critical role of leaders and leadership, and as such have invested a great deal of time and resources into developing leaders. In this context of leadership development, educators strive to structure learning experiences with a causal effect of some tangible skill, knowledge acquisition, or disposition, i.e., a "leader" should be the end result. Leadership as a field of knowledge and practice offers a number of particular challenges to educators.

This presentation will be a facilitated discussion led by three experienced leadership educators. The presenters will first provide a framework of the current state of leadership education. They will then propose a number of challenges and issues based on the latter work and their own experience. Finally, the presenters will prompt and guide a conversation with participants to expand and elaborate on current issues in leadership education. Ultimately, the presenters hope to provide a coherent framework for both scholars and practitioners to further advance this important field.

Leadership educators have made great strides in curriculum and pedagogy, applying a broad variety of techniques and learning theories. As with any field of inquiry, new advances bring forth new challenges. For example, leadership educators have sought to emulate other applied fields such as teaching and nursing by introducing curricular experiences that strive to recreate the real thing. But, in creating, applying, and working through these recreations, new questions emerge such as how to recreate the more implicit facets of culture and context. This is but one of many issues leadership educators must effectively work through.

This section briefly explains a number of the key challenges that provide the framework for further discussion. As the explanations clearly illustrate, the issues range from the very abstract and theoretical to the very practical and applied.

Philosophical Issues

1. **Indirect Causality** – Assessing the impact of leadership education activities is often limited in both validity and reliability. It is not clear whether specific outcomes can be directly attributed to participation in leadership education, emerge through experience and/or necessity, or are acquired through some other source or means. Some individuals succeed as leaders, and some don't. Some of those who do succeed have leadership training, and some don't. Of course, many who do have leadership training do not succeed as leaders – in fact, many don't even aspire to leadership positions. Why are there such apparent limitations to the causal effects of leadership training?

2. **Latent Causality** - Leadership educators understand that leadership learning does not immediately manifest, and often requires some contextual or experiential dimension, such as the individual assuming a leadership position or finding herself in a position requiring she assume a leadership role. So, the resulting assumption is that leadership educators build capacity or capability to lead - the implicit and underlying lessons that one hopes will bear fruit

when the circumstances require. But the fact of the matter, as many scholars would agree, is that leaders must experience "the crucible" of the leadership challenge. And, in doing so, the interaction effects of prior learning and present experience offer a difficult, albeit not unique, challenge to leadership scholars and educators.

3. **Term inconsistency** - Education, training, development, guidance, facilitation – what are leadership educators doing? Quite often each of these terms follows from a philosophical perspective of teaching and/or learning, and each have significant implications for how leadership education is applied, the expected outcomes, and the extent of responsibility that falls to the educator.

Pedagogical Issues

4. **Development versus Developmental** – When educating young children, teachers take a developmental approach, matching their content and pedagogy with the developmental level of their students. Development happens, and teachers guide that emergence. On the other hand, when educating an adult to perform a specific task, for example driving a car, teachers take a novice-expert approach, i.e., here is how you do it, step by step. Development is the verb that teachers drive. So, which approach is most applicable to leadership? What is the developmental continuum for leaders?

5. **Lack of involvement in community/issues**: One of the key things many leadership educators have faced is the challenge of helping students along the path to being leaders in their communities because they seem to have no connection to their community. There seems to be a trend of young people engaging in "community service" activities when in high school because it looks good on their college applications or because their high schools require/encourage it, but once they get to college and beyond, they no longer make connections with their communities nor do they have issues they are engaged with. As a result, talking with them about how to be leaders in their communities does not go very far because they can't think of any ways in which they are or want to be involved.

6. **Connecting the dots: Activity and Insight** - All too often, we only provide the "in the class" portion of leadership education and training within the context of our programs. Sure, there may be one or two exercises that allow participants to practice what has been learned, but more often than not, participants are not given the chance to practice "on the road" where it is messy, confusing and where oftentimes there are no clear cut "if A then B" solutions. On the opposite end are those programs that "develop leaders" through activities. In this case, participants have not received the "in class" driver education – they simply learn behind the wheel (good habits, bad habits and everything in between), without understanding why it is so. For example, scouting represents an incredible opportunity for people to develop and learn, much of the learning based on experiences. However, if no one is there to help connect the dots and help participants reflect on what is happening, myriad opportunities for leadership learning and growth are missed.

Developmental Issues

7. **Superficial definitions of leadership**: Students seem to have very superficial definitions of leaders and leadership, which usually involve some sort of official position. When asked to define leadership, they use common examples of people who have positional leadership and seem to ignore people who demonstrate leadership in other ways. It seems that among young people the conceptualization of leadership has become more narrow.

8. **Lack of confidence:** Many students seem to be unsure of their "place in the world" and are focused on getting a job, making money, buying nice things, and supporting a family. They seem to lack confidence that they have what it takes to be an effective leader and a positive agent for change in the world or in their community.

9. **The Challenge of Time** - I came across a quote by Jay Conger a few years ago, and it has stuck with me. The quote says "Most would agree that to seriously train individuals in the arts of leadership takes enormous time and resources – perhaps more than societies or organizations possess, and certainly more than they are willing to expend." There are a lot of leadership "camps" and "sporadic" trainings in the market, but to seriously train someone in leadership, a "camp" (one-six day experience) simply will not do. It can only be a part of a larger process. Could a world class pianist be developed by attending a 3-6 day learning opportunity? I think not (even if you are working with Mozart). Developing leadership capacity is in some ways similar to developing other skills, competencies, or behaviors – it takes time, consistent practice, coaching, and reflection. Yet many organizations, divisions, and departments are not structured to facilitate this "deep work." As a result, individuals spend years in organizations with few opportunities to truly grow as an effective leader in a variety of contexts.

Curricular Issues
10. **Prevalence of "bad" leaders:** Unfortunately, there seem to be more examples of "bad" leaders (to use Barbara Kellerman's framework, "bad" leaders can range from incompetent leaders to evil leaders) than "good" leaders in our immediate experiences and in the news these days. Too often we don't discuss the implications of bad leadership and how it affects us as individuals and what we can/should do about it. Students often seem unwilling to think of leadership in these terms and, until pushed to do so, don't think of this other side of leadership.

11. **The Curse of the Numbered Maxims** – How many habits, traits, skills, laws, characteristics, rules, and maxims can one leader keep track of? Leadership educators are faced with an immense barrage of assertions regarding what effective leaders know, do, or are like. While an experienced leadership educator can sort and organize this amassed wisdom, facilitating emerging leaders to taking a mindful approach is far more challenging.

12. **What about Context?** - If leadership is a relationship between the leader, followers and the context, then how do you teach "context" to future leaders? Where do you even begin unpacking the infinite number of challenges anyone in a leadership role will face?

13. **Head or Heart?** - Transformational and Servant leaders speak from the heart to the heart. Yet, we know this, and those leaders strive for this, through mindful reasoning. Leadership relies on the qualitative relationships built between leader and follower; yet leaders need to strategically guide those relationships to some reasoned purpose. For leadership educators this duality between head and heart raises considerable curricular questions, i.e., what can be taught and when. Clearly both are necessary, but how are both taught?

Conclusion
14. **Competing with Snake Oil** - Thousands of organizations call what they do "leadership" training or development. The term leadership has taken on impressive and important, if not elusive, implications. It is desirable, attractive, and ultimately a money maker. However, any time an idea, particularly a highly complex and applied idea, takes on this reputation, the potential for mindless approaches and outright abuse multiplies. How does mindful, informed,

and research-based leadership education address this challenge? Should the field create clear guidelines and parameters of what leadership development/training should entail?

The aim of this session is to both expand the conversation and inform leadership educators regarding some of the most prevalent current challenges and issues. Leadership education is unique in that the concepts and applications are so broadly practiced and relevant – all fields and professions utilize leadership, or certainly could benefit from doing so. Theory and practice are very closely interconnected, and students demand this connection be explicitly addressed. By maintaining an awareness of the unique issues and challenges in this field, leadership educators can better meet the needs of their students and the organizations and communities they seek to lead.

Developing Volunteer Leaders in Florida Farm Bureau

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Introduction:

The Florida Farm Bureau Federation (FFBF) is Florida's largest general agricultural organization with more than 140,000 member-families in 64 counties. Nationally, Farm Bureau is the largest farm organization, with membership at over 6 million member-families (Florida Farm Bureau Federation, 2006). As a grassroots organization, membership is Farm Bureau's greatest strength.

The mission of the American Farm Bureau Federation is "to implement policies that are developed by members." However, FFBF has been concerned in recent years about the lack of member involvement and the flow of ideas from individual members to the larger organization. In addition, FFBF has established membership growth as a statewide priority, recognizing that a large membership base is vital to maintaining a strong, fiscally sound organization. The leadership of local Farm Bureau members has been considered pivotal to issues of member involvement. FFBF has decided to centralize efforts in leadership development programs to improve the leadership skills and practices of the local Farm Bureau members and officers.

Although a variety of leadership training models exist, none have been identified as potential programs for meeting the leadership needs specific to local Farm Bureau members. Hustedde and Woodward (1996) identified 15 essential public skills which often need to be developed in rural leadership training programs; one of the skills identified was volunteer management. At the local level, Farm Bureau is an organization of volunteers leading volunteers, so volunteer management is key to organizational success. This program seeks to increase the volunteer base by improving member recruitment, while at the same time developing current members into volunteer leaders. The four objectives for the Member Recruitment, Involvement, and Development workshop are:

- Objective # 1: Improve strategies to educate the public about the Florida Farm Bureau Federation and its efforts.
- Objective # 2: Identify innovative practices for recruiting Farm Bureau members.
- Objective # 3: Develop motivational techniques to engage members as volunteers and Farm Bureau leaders.
- Objective # 4: Outline successful leadership development practices for Farm Bureau members and leaders.

This paper will focus on objectives three and four as they relate to developing volunteer leaders and leadership development practices for the Florida Farm Bureau organization.

Background:

Grassroots leadership is the foundation of the Farm Bureau Federation. Local leaders are instrumental in identifying, promoting, and accomplishing goals in the agricultural industry. County leaders are at the heart of effective state Farm Bureau

Federations. Local committee leaders have a unique perspective of problems and challenges facing the industry, and they can help to identify goals and objectives that lead to viable solutions through public policy and legislation.

The Florida Farm Bureau is committed to the development of local leadership and a strong committee structure. To ensure that local leaders have the tools they need to be successful, the Florida Farm Bureau Federation desired leadership training for local leaders, officers, committee chairs, and committee members. The Department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida possessed the resources and expertise to prepare local leadership training curricula for the Florida Farm Bureau. Through a grant sponsored by Florida Farm Bureau, university leadership educators prepared a leadership development program to meet the needs of Farm Bureau leaders in the state.

A series of five leadership development workshops entitled, "*Strengthening the Voice*", were delivered to Farm Bureau in a "train the trainer" format. The workshops prepared staff to deliver the workshops to county board leaders. Curriculum for the workshops, development and publication of support materials, and instructional materials for the workshops was provided to the trainers. The topics identified for delivery were:

1. Farm Bureau foundations
2. Organization management
3. Effective meetings
4. Member Recruitment, Involvement, and Development
5. Advocacy Involvement & Leadership

The Member Recruitment, Involvement, and Development workshop is the focus for this paper. The outcomes of this workshop are for county Farm Bureau leaders to gain the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively recruit and involve members in the organization, learn practices to train members to become future leaders, and improve personal leadership development behaviors. This workshop uses the concepts of Best Practices to encourage leaders to apply leadership skills and capabilities in real-life settings.

How it works:

The emphasis of the workshop is not to acquire new members, but more importantly, future leaders of the organization. Therefore, the focus is placed on looking at the progression of members into leaders. In order to develop future leaders, new members must be recruited, become involved in the organization and its activities, and encouraged to acquire leadership positions.

The workshop is structured around adult learning theory that states adults learn in a variety of ways and rural leaders learn best by a process of action and reflection (Dhanakumar, Rossing, & Campbell, 1996). As a result, learning opportunities engage participants in proper activities to expand their knowledge base and facilitate understanding. The program involves a number of activities to assist in learning and understanding of the content. In addition, time is taken to process and reflect on the activities and is a critical part to the success of the program.

The workshop is divided into four one-hour objectives. Within each objective, various experiential activities, video interviews, group discussion, and reflective thought are included. Engagement in active learning is applied to potential situations that encourage future implementation of the Best Practices. Focus on leadership development of volunteers is highlighted in objective three and four of this workshop.

Objective Three
Volunteer motivation and volunteer development models offer structure to objective three:
- Objective #3: Develop motivational techniques to engage members as volunteers and Farm Bureau leaders.
  - Point 1: Identify motivations of members to participate in activities and volunteer their time
  - Point 2: Develop and manage volunteer leaders

Motivations of volunteers and the ISOTURES model are combined into learning activities that guide volunteer leader development. The ISOTURES model is analyzed according to current practices and areas for improvement in volunteer leadership development. Best practices for this objective include:
- Commit to involving one or more new volunteer leaders in each activity
- Conduct an annual survey of volunteers to assess motivations and interests
- Apply the ISOTURES model of volunteer management to develop leaders
- Retain leaders by engaging them in all phases of volunteer development
- Initiate an annual volunteer recruitment and orientation session
- Use both informal and formal methods for recognizing volunteers

Objective Four
Leadership development practices, skills, and concepts offer structure to objective four:
- Objective #4: Outline successful leadership development practices for Farm Bureau members and leaders.
  - Point 1: Build a diversified and representative county board
  - Point 2: Identify key leadership development practices for sustainable county boards

The first point of this objective involves group discussion of a variety of leadership quotes focused on diversity in leadership and reflective thought on the benefits of leadership to the organization. Best practices include:
- Assign leaders to new challenges at the first board meeting of each year
- Adopt and apply board and committee member guidelines

The second point identifies key leadership development practices for volunteer leaders. Activities include a self-assessment of leadership styles, personal definitions of leadership, challenges of leadership styles, and a critical analysis of leadership styles. The inclusion of Kouzes and Posner (1995) and competencies for Farm Bureau volunteer leaders encourages reflection on the commitment to leadership and needed improvements. The final activity allows participants to identify potential ideas, changes,

challenges, and future needs in leadership development for county board leaders. The Best practices for this objective include:

- Read one new leadership development book each year
- Assess leadership development needs annually through personal assessments
- Rotate county board members to new committees on an annual basis
- Adhere to the "18 Core Competencies for Effective Farm Bureau Volunteer Leaders"

Results to date:

The five *"Strengthening the Voice"* leadership development workshops have been delivered to twenty Florida Farm Bureau staff members. The Member Recruitment, Involvement, and Development workshop is scheduled to be presented to county board leaders across the state in the summer of 2007. Scheduled trainings will be implemented by teams consisting of state and field staff. The implementation of Best practices from this workshop are designed to increase overall membership for Florida Farm Bureau, improve the leadership development of current county board leaders, and ultimately improve the quality of leadership exhibited by the entire organization.

Conclusions/Recommendations:

Organizations are searching for leadership development education. Qualified leaders are being recognized as a critical component to the success of volunteer organizations, such as Farm Bureau. Volunteer leaders must regularly take the time to reflect on the concept of leadership and practice skills. Through reflection and active learning, leadership behaviors can be developed for personal and professional success. By applying fundamental leadership skills, extraordinary results can be achieved by anyone within an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Continual commitment to leadership development is growing as organizations need to be prepared to respond to leadership challenges. Leaders can be better prepared by developing leadership skills, practices, behaviors, and actions to confront these challenges.

Public and private organizations are turning to leadership educators and universities to provide professional development for staff. Leadership educators must work with all industries and organizations to implement leadership development programs. The partnerships created are mutually beneficial. The organization receives critical leadership training and the university gains a site for student internships and service learning opportunities that provide practical, relevant field experiences.

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The perceptions of peer mentors by freshmen in transition at a large land grant university
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Introduction

More and more today there is a need to establish expectations early on in students'

college career for their undergraduate experience. It is believed there is something lacking in

this experience and students are either unprepared for college or for the life after college.

Everyone involved from parents to employers have emphasized that there is something lacking

in undergraduate education, which does not fully prepare students for the real world (Smith,

MacGregor, Matthews, & Gabelnick, 2004). One way to deal with these issues is through the

use of learning communities. A learning community is a way to blend disciplines and increase

interactions between faculty and students.

A large land grant university has sought to establish learning communities designed to

address the freshmen year experience. According to this large land grant university the

underlying reasons for the use of freshmen learning communities is to simulate the feeling of a

smaller college and by doing so increase the experience for freshmen. Not only do the students

attend class together, but live together to help with the overall experience of their freshmen year.

At the large land grand university, the Freshmen Leadership Living Learning Community

(L3C) is a freshmen-year initiative designed to engage students academically, while producing

reflective experiences, and creating intentional, self-aware learners. The L3C accentuates a

common connection between the students involved and leadership. One of the main goals of the

instructors of the L3C is to make an impact on the students' personal leadership development.

This was done through a variety of methods for this course. The methods used to accomplish

this by instructors for year one included: a) specific curriculum designed to develop leadership,

b) co-curricular activities, and c) a personal leadership development workbook. In year two,

instructors implemented the use of peer mentors. The peer mentors were students from the inaugural year who self selected to serve in this role.

The L3C is in its second year of operation and has had to make changes from observations and data from year one. Some of those changes are: a) choosing a new textbook, b) using the peer mentors, c) working more closely with the Residence Life staff, especially the Residence Hall Assistants (RA), and d) use more experiential learning. The textbook was found to be too "juvenile" by students in the first year, so a new one was chosen to help with the concern by the first year participants. The RA's were not fully utilized in year one, with a few backing out of participating, so considerations and arrangements were made for year two. The students found the experiential learning activities (trip to state capitol, trip to NASA, ropes course, and three programs presented by graduate students) to be more beneficial than anything else. Instructors used this information in designing year two, in the hopes of increasing the leadership development of the second year participants.

Literature Review

The use of peer mentoring, gives students the opportunity to learn from more experienced students, who are relatively their own age, while expanding their social network. This can tie in to the different perspectives and experience Harrison et al. talks about. Leadership can be learned experientially in learning communities through the use of peer mentors. Experiential learning is not just learning through doing yourself, but also through learning from others and through reflection. Peer mentors bring with them their experiences, and being relatively the same age, with more experience, which is related to the new students, and allows for a passing of knowledge. This passing of knowledge can be done through the use of stories, activities, etc.

much like how information use to be passed from one generation to the next through the use of story telling.

The idea of mentoring has been around for thousands of years. The term mentoring first appeared in Homer's the *Odyessy* around 1200 B.C. In the story Athena, the Greek goddess of wisdom disguises herself, periodically, as Mentor, a trusted friend of Odysseus. At the request of Odysseus, Mentor serves as a model, advisor, and teacher to Telemachus (Odysseus' son) for ten years. Mentor is asked to look after Telemachus because Odysseus is going to fight in the Trojan War and wants his son to be well looked after and continue in his journey in becoming a man.

Like leadership, mentoring has many different definitions depending on the context. Traditional mentoring has "been around for a long time and various definitions of mentoring exist in the literature… The definition is changing" (Le Cornu, 2005). Gibson, Tesone, and Buchalski (2000) say that a mentor is a trusted advisor and coach.

"In an effort to revitalize our nation's competitive vigor, the school reform movement has borrowed a strategy of the ancient Greeks: mentoring… As Odysseus entrusted his son and posterity to a sage elder, moderns have recognized a resource in seasoned educators and seek to exploit their wisdom for future generations" (Healy & Welchert, 1990).

Gibson et al. (2000) along with Healy et al. (1990) have researched the new era in mentoring finding that during the 1970s corporations and government agencies started using mentoring programs. Healy et al (1990) goes on to say that during the 1980s institutions of higher education, school districts, and states started using mentoring programs. These programs were first instrumented to enhance the quality of faculty and administrators through the use of

mentoring. Then during the 1990s mentoring moved to the student level, where students were mentored by faculty and staff, both in high school and at the college level.

Jekielek, Moore, Hair, and Scarupa (2002) define mentoring as "a sustained relationship between a young person and an adult in which the adult provides the young person with support, guidance, and assistance. The very foundation of mentoring is the idea that if caring, concerned adults are available to young people, youth will be more likely to become successful adults themselves."

Rosser and Egan (2003) claim that "successful individuals often point to mentors as supporting their success by providing support, guidance, and confidential counsel… mentoring relationships can be a critical component in the success of individuals both personally and professionally." According to research conducted by Jekielek et al. (2002), Mavrinac (2005), Angelique, Kyle, and Taylor (2002), and Chao (1997) mentoring can increase attendance, improve attitudes towards school, reduce some negative behaviors, and promote positive social attitudes and relationships. The researchers go on to say that the longer the mentoring takes place the better the outcome.

There are many different types of mentoring: traditional, peer, cross, formal and informal. Traditional mentoring is done between someone who is older and more experienced then the younger by passing down information and knowledge. In this relationship experience is passed down from the older to younger person. Peer mentoring is much like traditional mentoring, but is done between people of relatively the same age, with one having more experience then the other (Angelique et al., 2002).

Formal mentoring can be thought of as an established program, where it is not spontaneous and is guided by an organization. Informal mentoring happens more spontaneously

and is not guided by the overall organization. Peer mentoring is usually a formal process with specific goals and defined boundaries, but is more flexible than traditional mentoring (Angelique et al., 2002)

In a study done at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, they found the peer mentors reduced the number of underclassmen participating in house parties (Santovec, 2004). The university had a problem with underclassmen drinking heavily in a social atmosphere to meet new people, so the university developed a peer mentoring program to reduce these numbers, while still allowing new students to meet new people.

Santovec (2004) said the results from the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse study showed peer mentors gained leadership opportunities, allowing them to hone their skills, while the new students were able to meet people in a social setting that did not revolve around drinking. McLean (2004) found that students found who were mentored were more apt to learn and identified the mentors as role models, while the mentors underwent personal development.

Jekielek et al. (2002) claim that college students are a good source of mentoring, if they have the time. A study done at the Tanfield School in England found that peer mentors helped ease the transition of primary school pupils into the secondary school but have provided the opportunity of the peer tutors and the peer mentors to improve basic skills and become more self confident through active participation (Nelson, 2003).

To support peer mentoring, Gartner and Riessman (1999) claim that there is a peer movement taking place. There is a peer movement abroad that represents a number of different forces, which need to be recognized and harnessed to address the problems that face our youth. The answer to many of the problems youth are facing today is other young people, their peers. When young people are viewed as assets and resources with something to give instead of

problematic vessels to be filled up with adult concern, the chance for growth and academic

advancement is tremendous (Gartner and Riessman, 1999).

According to Gartner and Riessman (1999), peer education is not a new concept, but if

the smart kids just keep teaching other students, without the other students being allowed to

show what they have learned and be allowed to give back it just perpetuates the cycle of the rich

getting richer. This is basically the same thing Dopp and Block (2004) said when working with

students with disabilities, the students need to be allowed to give back and show what they have

learned for the learning to actually 'stick'.

Treston (1999) did a study at James Cook University Cairns in Australia. The philosophy

of the program involves the offer of a friendly helping hand from a continuing student for each

new student in his or her first semester. Research from many countries identified that students

benefit from a formalized interaction program. In Australia, there are formal mentoring

programs at many levels. There are programs set up where college students mentor high school

students, new college students are mentored by upperclassmen and faculty, and ready to graduate

college students are mentored by people already in the workforce. This program has been in

place for eight years and people at James Cook University Cairns say it would be hard to

imagine the university without a mentoring program. The program has become a tradition at the

university, benefiting not only the students, faculty, and staff involved, but also other

stakeholders (Treston, 1999).

According to Angelique et al. (2002) "peer mentoring promotes information sharing,

career planning, and job related feedback… By drawing upon their own immediate experiences,

peer mentors may more readily offer empathetic emotional support rather than just sympathetic

support." This is supported by McLean (2004) that says peer mentors provide support, but also

adds that the mentors benefit as well from the relationship, and students state they want mentors with similar experiences.

Peer mentoring has many components which encompass it. One part of peer mentoring thought to be important is transformational leadership. Transformational change, transformational leadership, and learning cultures or learning organizations have all become popularized and somewhat utopian in their claims that these practices can address challenges and cure all of what ails an organization (Mavrinac, 2005). For transformational leadership to be applied to mentoring, you need to think about learning cultures, since they revolve around learning. Learning cultures obviously place learning at the center of organizational activities, valuing it as a core asset (Mavrinac, 2005), while a goal of mentoring is learning as well. Peer mentoring preserves most of the benefits of traditional mentoring; while at the same time, it is in greater congruence with values-based transformational leadership and change (Mavrinac, 2005). This allows peer mentoring to serve as learning culture in itself, benefiting the mentee and the mentor alike.

Since mentoring is connected to learning cultures through the context of learning, applying them to an academic context proves useful. McLean (2004) says that when mentoring programs are applied to an academic context, the mentors assist students 'socialization' into the academic culture; therefore optimizing their learning experience by providing emotional and moral support. The author goes on to say that their relationship must be characterized by mutual respect, understanding, empathy, and trust. These concepts are the very foundation of mentoring, so peer mentoring in an academic context helps the mentee adjust to college.

From the review of literature it appears that mentoring and more importantly peer mentoring helps not only the mentee, but also the mentor. Mentoring can increase recruitment

and retention rates, while at the same time helping the protégé improve their educational and social performance (McLean, 2004; Mavrinac, 2005). Also, the mentor is given the satisfaction of helping someone, which can in turn help them with their own personal development. In general mentoring seems to help with the passing of experience, even when participants are of relatively the same age.

Methodology

The purpose of this research was to see if peer mentors made an impact on freshmen students in transition at a large land grant university, their feelings about the peer mentors, and their acclamation to the university. The investigation ascertained whether the peer mentors influenced freshmen student's transition to the university. The following methodology was used to accomplish this purpose.

The purpose of the study guided the development of the following objective, which was to determine:

1) the perceptions of year two L3C participants about the role of peer mentors.

This is accomplished through a causal-comparative study. Causal-comparative research can test hypotheses concerning the relationship between an independent variable, X, and a dependent variable, Y.

Description of population

There were N=57 participants for year two with an almost even split between male and female. The target population for this study was freshmen students who applied to be a part of the Leadership Living Learning Community and who chose to lived in on-campus housing. From year one's population (N=61) participants could choose to participate in year two as peer

mentors (n=11) and were required to fill out an application before being allowed to mentor year two participants.

With the size of the total population (N=57) being relatively small, it was decided to do a census of the entire population. A census is a survey which covers the entire population of interest for a study. For year two 48.14% (N=26) were surveyed during the end of the first semester banquet. The remainder of the population for year two (N=31) chose not to attend the banquet and therefore chose not to participate in the study. To account for the census error, the participants who did not attend the end of semester banquet at the end of the first semester were counted as choosing not to participate in the study.

Survey Instrument

This survey used a self-perceived leadership skills inventory and demographic questions. The Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI) was revised for this study to be conducted in the fall of 2006 to include questions specifically about peer mentors which coincided with the original LSI scales. Twenty questions were added to ask participants about the peer mentors. These questions were asked to see if the freshmen felt the peer mentors were doing what they were intended to do and see what needed to be changed for following years. Questions related to the five categories of the LSI about their self-perceptions oft leadership and general questions about the peer mentors were used to see what the perceptions were of the peer mentors by the freshmen in transition.

Treatment Procedure

Students attended class one day a week throughout the semester which was developed by two instructors, one from the Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications Department and the other from the Department of Residence Life. They also lived in the same

residence hall, attended various programs administered by the course instructors, graduate students, and the Department of Residence Life, and attended fieldtrips. Lecture topics were given in a manner to promote the understanding of various leadership theories and built upon the various programs. These opportunities allowed the students to expand their understanding of leadership theories and skills through the programs, lectures, discussions, and fieldtrips. The instructors were skilled in leadership theories and facilitation.

Data Analysis

After the data was entered into Excel it was exported into SPSS[R]. Once in SPSS[R] the data was run using statistical analysis tools present in the program. The data generate was descriptive in nature. SPSS[R] procedures are referenced in capital letters.

Descriptive statistics generated by SPSS[R] procedure FREQUENCIES were used to report the results of the research questions. The frequencies, percentages, and means were calculated for all of the variables for years one and two. Procedure ONE SAMPLE T-TEST was used to determine what year two participants perceptions were about the peer mentors and the differences between years one and two LSI scales. To determine statistical significance, an alpha level of $p<.05$ was established a priori for all analyses.

Results

Participants indicated that the peer mentors were supportive (M=4.27, SD=0.60), gave positive feedback (M=4.00, SD=0.69), were good role models (M=4.23, SD=0.71), were knowledgeable about the large land grant university (M=4.19, SD=0.75), were easy to communicate with (M=4.23, SD=0.77), and did not use peer pressure to get them to do anything negative(M=4.16, SD=0.75) according to the means and standard deviations for the questions.

A Likert-type scale of one to five (5-strongley agree, 4-agree, 3-neither agree nor disagree, 2-disagree, 1-strongly disagree) was used and any means above four were considered to be significant. All questions had a mean above three, except question 52 ("The peer mentors helped me to realize my prejudices"), which had a mean of 2.96. Summaries of these results are found in Table 1.

Table 1. one sample *t*-test: Questions on peer mentors

| Peer Mentors Questions | L3C Peer Mentoring Questions (N=26) | | | |
	N	Mean	SD	2-Tail Prob.
Not supportive	26	4.27	0.60	0.00
Helped me	26	3.46	0.91	0.00
Positive feedback	26	4.00	0.69	0.00
Good role models	26	4.23	0.71	0.00
Personal relationship	26	3.54	0.95	0.00
Developed leadership	26	3.31	0.93	0.00
Knowledgeable	26	4.19	0.75	0.00
Helped me adjust	26	3.77	0.86	0.00
Did not help me	26	3.89	0.86	0.00
Realize prejudices	*25*	*2.96*	*0.46*	*0.00*
Communication skills	24	3.25	0.79	0.00
Time management	26	3.15	0.83	0.00
Understand situations	26	3.39	0.98	0.00
Learn from experiences	26	3.69	0.79	0.00
Felt uncomfortable	25	3.92	1.38	0.00
Easy to communicate	26	4.23	0.77	0.00
Help me set goals	26	3.39	0.85	0.00
Helped me get involved	26	3.50	0.86	0.00
No peer pressure	25	4.16	0.75	0.00
Strengths & Weaknesses	26	3.42	0.86	0.00

Conclusion and Recommendations

Participants indicated that the peer mentors helped them become acquainted with the large land grant university, were supportive, gave positive feedback, were good role models, were easy to communicate with, and did not use peer pressure to get them to do anything

negative. From these responses it can conclude that the peer mentors did in fact help them with their transition from high school to college and had other positive effects on them. The peer mentors did help year two L3C participants adjust to college in some way, learn about the large land grant university, improve their communication skills, help them to better work in groups, were supportive, offered positive feedback, and did not try to use peer pressure to get them to do anything negative.

This is supported by findings from Jekielek et al. (2002), Mavrinac (2005), Angelique, Kyle, and Taylor (2002), and Chao (1997) who said that mentoring can increase attendance, improve attitudes towards school, reduce some negative behaviors, promotes positive social attitudes, and relationships.

Jekielek, Moore, Hair, and Scarupa (2002) define mentoring as "a sustained relationship between a young person and an adult in which the adult provides the young person with support, guidance, and assistance. The very foundation of mentoring is the idea that if caring, concerned adults are available to young people, youth will be more likely to become successful adults themselves." By looking at this definition of mentoring it can be concluded that year two L3C participants were mentored and it had positive effects.

The peer mentors should continue to be from the previous years L3C participants and should self-select to continue as peer mentors in the program. By allowing them to self-select, the previous year's participants are showing that they not only care about the program, but received something from participating. These concepts go back to experiential learning where participants use skills and experiences gained to help others. This too shows that the program is working and the peer mentors are doing a good job.

The number of peer mentors should continue to remain small, so they are mentoring the students in small groups, which will continue to foster the skills of the LSI, which the program is based on. The role of the peer mentors might be increased somewhat to use their experiences with the program to help instructors make improvements to better help the next year's participants.

The use of peer mentors will allow the course to grow and better help participants, as long as instructors listen to what the participants think are the most helpful and continue to change. Money needs to continue to be available to the program and the budget changed on a yearly basis to account for the changes which might need to be made to ensure the continued improvement for participants, which will help ensure the longevity of the program. These improvements could be more experiential learning opportunities and other ways for participants to relate what they are learning in the class to both leadership and the real world.

Future Research

There are too many variables at this time to account for the effects the peer mentors had on L3C participants. If the variables can be determined and accounted for, then the effects of the peer mentors can be determined to make sure the improvements are solely based on them and they are worth the additional resources of the program. The data from this research needs to be collected the same time each semester to avoid the loss of the population participating in the study. Research should be collected the first and last day of class the first semester, as well as the last day of class the second semester, administered by an outside party.

A continued longitudinal study needs to be conducted on the peer mentors themselves, to see if they perceive they are helping the participants. This data should then be compared to what participants perceive about the peer mentors. It is also suggested that data be collected at the end

of each year L3C participants are in college and compared to a control group who also live in the

same residence hall, but are not part of the program. This additional data, although

overwhelming, might prove useful in determining just how much L3C participants gain from

participating in the program.

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Leadership Development for Distributive Leadership: Changing a University Through Tempered Radicals, Storytelling and Mediated Dialogue - A University Meets the Challenge of Change through Leadership Development.

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Leadership in any current organization has to focus on change. This focus is to meet the cataclysmic shift facing organizations (Pulley, McCarthy & Sylvester, 2000) like universities. Examples of these changes are technological complexity, dwindling resources and a new generation of students whose needs are much different that previous generations.   In addition, universities have had to become more accountable for their resources that increase the pressure to change.   Therefore, a very different leadership development model is now required.

The model is based on that leadership has to be different than the traditional command and control style that focused on a few leaders to have the "right stuff" (McCall, 1998). Neilson, Pasternak & Viscio (1998) state that the new leadership model has to be based on an entrepreneurial one where the President/CEO can not be a lone star but creates a culture that reinforces innovation, the capacity to change and most importantly cascading leadership where everyone is a leader. This leadership according to Meyerson (2001) challenges the status quo and requires many acts of everyday leadership to achieve small wins that is defined as a "limited doable project that results in something concrete and visible." (p. 102). The long-term will be, these small wins accumulating into organizational change.

Such a leadership development program has been successfully developed at mid-size state university in the northeast. Faced with various problems including dwindling state resources and a very entrenched status quo oriented organizational culture, the president has established a distributive leadership program. The leadership principles of distributive leadership are based on as a process that looks at all members of the faculty and staff as being important sources of knowledge, experience and personally involved in their own development. Therefore, all staff and faculty can and are responsible and accountable for leadership within their areas.

Based on these principles the leadership development program has been implemented for the past 5 years. Based on the Tempered Radical leadership theory, storytelling and a cognitive tool (mediated dialogue) that allow for exploring the assumptions of how to lead change in the organization, the program is developing leaders throughout the institution that meet this challenge.

The results are very promising. First, there has been positive feedback from both the 180 graduates of the workshop and the president. Participants' feedback from the workshop has been extremely positive as they state they benefited from the workshop greatly. The president of the university continuous to be an active participant and cheerleader as she has praised the program in her annual welcome back speech and designated one of university's major success stories a few years ago. This support has met the first and

second goal of a leadership development program in that there is full endorsement of senior management and a clear cut organizational objective.

The facilitators feel that this process had lead to an established group of very involved tempered radicals both administrators and faculty. There have been many small wins from an employee recognition program, a study skills program, workshops for faculty members, a mentoring program and the restructuring of freshman orientation. The recognition program for employees is designed to give managers ideas and materials to acknowledge and celebrate excellent job performance. The most visible success story has been the summer academy for gifted children that will be in operation this coming summer. The program is a result of a summer workshop of graduates that developed this idea to increase revenue, better utilize facilities during this time of year and better involvement with the community.

In keeping with the long term goal of changing the organizational culture where the principles of distributive leadership are assimilated there has been progress. One part of this progress is to develop an assessment plan is making graduates of the workshop accountable for their bold ideas. In the follow up gatherings there has been discussion of expanding the network to the next level by and being internal consultants for review of accreditation plans which will lead to faster assimilation. Future challenges that may deter this goal include union issues and unmotivated administration that tend to deter organizational change.

The following presentation will illustrate via an interactive approach the (1) foundation model and theories of the program, (2) actual implementation of the development workshop (will get participants involved), and (3) discussion of how the workshop can work for the participants.

HOW TO UTILIZE CONCEPT MAPS IN EVALUATING STUDENTS' CONCEPTUALIZATION OF LEADERSHIP

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Introduction

The process of leadership is a complex phenomenon that is difficult for beginning leadership students to express and even harder for them to define. Concept maps are an advantageous pedogological activity for instructors to employ when they utilize a constructivist approach in the classroom. "A concept map is a pictorial representation of a domain that consists of concepts represented as nodes (circles) that are connected to each other by arcs (lines)… the connecting arcs represent the conceptual links – stating that the concepts are conceptually and logically related in some manner" (Freeman & Jessup, 2004, p. 151). Students often describe the end product of this activity as a leadership spider web, demonstrating the great interconnectivity of the maps, and demonstrating to the instructor the level at which the concept is understood.

Concept maps have been equated to the pictorial representation of a mental model (Kinchin, Hay, & Adams, 2000). Senge et al. (1994) define a mental model as the "images, assumptions, and stories which we carry in our minds of ourselves, other people, institutions, and every aspect of the world" (p.235). Students come to leadership classes with a vast array of mental models about leadership due to their unique leadership training, education and development experiences (Brungardt, 1996). The concept maps create strong visuals of how students' mental models of leadership are arranged and then how their mental models might change after exposure to the class curriculum and to the collaborative learning environment of the class. Creating the baseline concept maps gives the course instructors a better idea of where the students' mental models of leadership are in relation to the class definition of leadership. "To put it in Ausubelian learning theory terms, a teacher needs to know what relevant concepts can

serve as the framework for subsumption of new material. Concept maps are a simple tool for assessing where the learners are" (Novak & Gowin, 1984, p. 100-101).

Background

Originally utilized by bench science, concepts maps were designed "to represent how students linked hierarchical material together" (Nicoll, Francisco & Nakhelh, 2001, p. 863). For social science subjects, like leadership, concepts maps can make the abstract more visual and concrete. With hundreds of leadership definitions recorded, it is often difficult for leadership students to understand the complexity of the discipline, and concept maps allow students to see and represent the interconnectedness of leadership concepts (Lawless, Smee & O' Shea, 1998). Seeing this interconnectedness early in the class allows students to assess their perceptions of leadership as compared to the class definition of leadership, and seeing this interconnectedness later in the class allows for assessment of knowledge growth.

The theoretical origins of learning via concept mapping can be related back to constructivism, assimilation, and associationist theories. When utilized in small-groups, concept mapping can be classified as both cognitive and social constructivism. With cognitive constructivism, knowledge results from internalization and reconstruction of external reality. Social constructivism is when knowledge is the result of social interaction (Buriak, McNurlen, & Harper, 1996). Concept maps allow the student and the instructor to see the construction of knowledge at the baseline and then after some progression. Assimilation theory states that new information is processed and then assimilated into already existing structures in the memory and mind (Freeman & Jessup, 2004). Initial concept maps take a new concept and then show how students construct their framework from past knowledge and experiences. Associationist theory

states that as learning occurs, the "network of concepts and relationships becomes more and more elaborate and complex" (Freeman & Jessup, 2004). The nodes and arcs of a concept map, especially one with leadership as its central focus, are extremely complex. One node may connect to five or more other nodes in students' minds, which offers a visible model of how intricate the seemingly simple discipline of leadership can be.

Concept maps "can both promote and assess conceptual change in a higher education setting" (Kinchin et al., 2005, p.2), and therefore become an innovative tool in the evaluation of students' learning. Comparative analysis of beginning concept maps to those that evolve at a later point in the semester is also beneficial for the student and the instructor. Through comparative analysis both students and instructor are able to see the progression of knowledge in relation to the topic. While each student's mental model of leadership is not individually assessed, the dialogue created among the students when considering each concept and each connection between major concepts is of great value (Kinchin, De-Leij & Hay, 2005).

Kinchin, De-Leij, & Hay (2005) have developed a teaching methodology for the utilization of concept maps. Their four-pronged approach was developed to optimize the concept map procedure for the learner. First, the instructor must set up a constructivist and student-centered environment. Having a student-centered philosophy is imperative in allowing students to develop their own connections with leadership and the components that frame the phenomenon. The second condition as described by Kinchin et al. is the collaborative nature of concept mapping. Students must be able to collaborate together as well as with the instructor to fully understand not only the process of concept mapping but also share ideas about the nodes of leadership. This collaboration will lead to new ideas being expressed and shared by the students. The third component is time. Students must be "given sufficient time for reflection and

development" (Kinchin et al., 2005, p.1). Devoting an entire class session for concept mapping is a valuable use of time. The fourth strategy is to "avoid using specific terms that restrict conceptual development by hindering appropriate switching between opposing conceptual frameworks" (Kinchin et al., 2005, p.1). Giving creative license to the students allows them to define the phenomenon as they have constructed it in their minds.

Methodology

The use of concepts maps for this purpose was deemed highly appropriate based on the criteria set forth by Kinchin, De-Leij and Hay. This course often utilizes structured discussions based on written assignments in small group format to promote a collaborative and student-centered teaching environment. The class is based on authentic leadership which "concerns self-exploration, an understanding of the true self, recognizing one's values, and infusing personal values and leadership specifically as they apply to follower relations" (Pennington, 2006, p. 13). This basis allows for great reflection and offers the students to develop their individual insights into congruence between espoused leadership values and actions. Within the framework of the common language provided by the textbook students share their personal leadership training, education, and development with the instructor as well as with the rest of the class.

Concept maps from two sections of the same sophomore-level academic leadership class during the fall 2007 semester were analyzed. Because the establishment of a definition of leadership was imperative to the entire semester, the first concept maps were completed early in the semester and an entire class period was devoted to the creation and presentation of the maps. Students were first instructed in the methodologies of concept mapping and offered a demonstration with the entire class participating. Students were then broken into groups of 4-6 and given the center word, or starting point, of *leadership*. From that one word, students then

drew nodes and arcs to describe how they conceptualize leadership. Understanding the mental

models of leadership held by the students in a personal leadership development course was

deemed important by the authors because it (1) allowed them to see where the students were at in

their conceptual development of leadership, (2) gave the instructors a frame of orientation to

refer back to at the end of the course, and (3) was an opportunity to have a collaborative activity

that then could be related back to defining leadership.

At the end of the course, the concept map activity was repeated because "Evaluation of

sequences of concept maps will give an illustration of the developmental pathways employed by

a student as progress is made from a naïve theory closer towards a shared understanding with the

teacher" (Kinchin, Hay & Adams, 2000, p. 52). Students were given a quick refresher about the

methodology and construction of concept maps, and then students were divided into their groups

from the original concept map activity. Again, they were given the middle concept of *leadership*

and instructed to develop a concept map of what they now see as the interrelated concepts of

leadership.

The pre and post concept maps were analyzed using the scoring criteria for concept maps

developed by Novak and Gowin (1984). With Novak and Gowin's criteria, each node directly

linked to the original concept is a proposition, and should demonstrate a meaningful relationship

between the concept and the node. For each valid proposition, 1 point was given. For this

analysis, all links were considered valid because "'invalid' links may have a value to the student

by supporting more valid links (sometimes temporarily) and so contributing to the overall

knowledge structure that he or she is using as a basis for further learning" (Kinchin, Hay &

Adams, 2000, p. 46). Each hierarchical link made from a proposition, further specifying the

proposition earned the map five points per hierarchical link. Finally, cross links were scored at

10 points per significant and valid cross link, which is a connection between propositions or hierarchical elements. While Novak and Gowin also include scoring for examples, students were not instructed to provide examples and therefore points were not awarded for examples.

Results to Date

The differences between the first set of concept maps and the second set were striking. All maps demonstrated a markedly higher score except for one map, in which the students used more creativity, reduced the number of propositions and excluded hierarchies and cross links (see table 1). Qualitative analysis of the maps indicated that the students moved from seeing leadership as a set of personal characteristics or a position to a more complete understanding of leadership as a process. Terms frequently used in the pre concept maps were predominately descriptors of traits, and included *responsibility*, *influential*, *passionate* and *honest*. With the post maps, concepts from the semester class lessons were frequently incorporated with the trait concepts demonstrating an integration of the knowledge with their already formed ideas. Frequently used terms in the post concept maps not found in the pre concept maps included *congruence* (of values and actions), *balance*, and *vision* (which was present on every post map and a major element of the course). While cross link scores were lower in some cases, hierarchy scores increased dramatically demonstrating that students were seeing each proposition in greater depth. For example, *vision* was often linked to *leadership* and *personal* demonstrating that students had a better understanding that leadership often takes different forms in a person's life.

Table 1 – Comparison of pre and post concept maps

	Pre Concept Map				Post Concept Map			
	Proposition Score	Hierarchy Score	Cross Links score	Total Score	Proposition Score	Hierarchy Score	Cross Links score	Total Score
Map A	4	40	0	44	5	50	0	55
Map B	6	35	2	43	8	0	0	8*
Map C	4	30	6	40	8	85	10	103
Map D	5	25	0	30	6	75	10	91
Map E	10	45	10	65	6	165	0	171
Map F	8	40	10	58	10	95	0	105
Map G	12	10	44	66	10	55	40	105
Map H	16	0	50	66	9	65	144	218
Map I	4	50	10	64	1	85	180	266
Map J	12	8	0	20	12	20	100	132

* Creativity was used in this map which was not reflected in the quantitative analysis

Limitations

Due to student absences and a few dropping the class, not all groups could be exactly the same as their original makeup. In addition, subjectivity in rating did exist due to the freedom of expression allowed to the students in creating the concept maps. According to Novak and Gowin (1984), "There is also an apparent arbitrariness in scoring concept maps" (p. 105). Finally, Some maps seem best served being scored quantitatively while others seem better served qualitatively. "Numerical scoring of concept maps can conceal the essentially subjective basis on which it rest" (Lawless, Smee, O'Shea, 1998, p. 225). A quantitative approach worked best for this analysis, however not all maps showed greater concept understanding with the quantitative rating system.

Conclusion

The use of concept maps to assist in defining the term leadership was found to have great value in this course. The maps offered the class as well as the instructor an excellent starting point for discussing the conceptualization and definition of leadership. It also allowed the students to construct their own leadership reality and then share that with the rest of the class.

Building an open environment where students feel free to express their ideas is imperative to this personal leadership development course.

Another advantage of using concept maps in a leadership classroom is that they promote critical thinking with students because it stimulates a deeper understanding of material (Giddens, 2006). Leadership is a discipline that is leaned only through the higher level thinking processes of application and synthesis (Williams, Townsend, and Lindner, 2005). "Concept mapping can be a helpful metacognitive tool, promoting understanding in which new material interacts with the students' existing cognitive structure" (Kinchin, Hay, & Adams, 2000, p.44). This allows students to integrate and retain leadership concepts as well as the interconnectedness of leadership themes.

Analysis of these maps not only allowed the instructors to see which concepts were integrated and how they were integrated, they are also a useful tool in the assessment and revision of the course for subsequent semesters. Concept maps "illustrate not only the extent of what students knew, but how they organized their knowledge" (Lawless, Smee, & O'Shea, 1998, p.225). It was rewarding for the instructors to see the growth of the students in their conceptualization of leadership. It was also rewarding for the students to see how their leadership knowledge had developed over the course of the semester. The scoring technique, as described by Novak and Gowin (1984) aided the instructors in giving their qualitative results backing by quantitative numbers.

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Enhancing Florida Farm Bureau Organizational Interactions through Active, Thematic Instruction: "Lessons Learned from George Strait!"

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Introduction

This practice presentation will discuss the effective delivery of a Farm Bureau professional development workshop, entitled "Enhancing Organizational Interactions: Lessons Learned from George Strait!" There are four overarching learner objectives within the workshop that combine to achieve the end goal of enhancing the Florida Farm Bureau organization.

These objectives include: (a) "Identify and utilize individual proficiency and behavioral diversity at the county level," (b) "Develop commitment in committees: Learn how to create and maintain helpful county Farm Bureau committees," (c) "Manage financial resources in accordance with Farm Bureau accepted practice," and (d) "Develop a proactive issues management plan." During development of the workshop, a lack of connectivity was identified among these four overarching objectives. To address this problem, thematic instruction was implemented.

The goal of this practice presentation is to present a guide on how to effectively utilize thematic instruction in order to enhance learning retention and the likelihood of behavior change among program participants. In specific, three areas will be discussed:

- Use of instructor prompts to relate material in each objective to the George Strait Farm Benefit concert theme;
- Implementation of an acronym as a learning checkup to remind participants of the progress they have made;
- Application of learning activities connecting to the George Strait theme.

Background

The enhancing organizational interactions workshop was part of a *Strengthening the Voice* series for the Florida Farm Bureau. This series addresses the expressed need by Florida Farm Bureau's upper management for an interactive train-the-trainer approach aimed at extending key professional development information to the county level. Each train-the-trainer workshop consists of three major parts: (a) an Instructor's Manual, (b) a Participant's Manual, and (c) a video-interactive PowerPoint presentation.

To augment the likelihood of behavior change, the six components of Community-Based Social Marketing (CBSM) theory were applied within the workshop (McKenzie-Mohr & Smith, 1999). For example, one component of CBSM includes commitment. This workshop utilized commitment through a set best practices (specific learner objectives within each overarching objective), relating to the concept of Best Management Practices that many farmers and ranchers are familiar with. Upon completion of the workshop, participants were asked to *commit* to specific best practices they will apply in the near future, and sign their name to seal the commitment. Such techniques are proven successful for increasing the likelihood of behavior change, which is the goal of any educational program (Birkenholz, 1999; McKenzie-Mohr & Smith, 1999; Nilson, 2003).

How it works

To better connect the four workshop objectives, instructor prompts, reminding trainers to connect to the George Strait theme, were implemented within the Instructor's Manual. Material in each objective related to the George Strait Farm Benefit concert theme and this theme developed as the workshop progressed. At the end of the workshop, participants will successfully recruit George Strait (having learned all the necessary workshop material).

The following is an example of how the first objective was connected to the concert theme, taken from the introduction in the Instructor's Manual:

> The stages involved with putting together a concert directly relate to the four interconnected objectives of the organizational interactions workshop. First of all, everyone involved in the planning of the concert (i.e. local Farm Bureau membership and staff) has certain skills and resources they can bring to the table. The first objective of Enhancing Organizational Interactions involves a personality assessment of workshop participants. We've got to identify our strengths the same way that George Strait's tour manager identifies who's best for selling t-shirts (that really talkative guy), who's best for setting up the stage (the really muscular guy), or who's most appropriate to operate the sound and lights (the gal with attention for detail)…

In addition to relating the learning material to the George Strait Farm Benefit concert theme, a GEORGE acronym was used as a learning checkup. Upon completion of the workshop, participants successfully recruited GEORGE to the concert (learned the workshop material). This acronym was built as the workshop progressed, and stood for:

- **G**etting to know yourself
- **E**mploying strategies to work with diverse personalities
- **O**rganizing committees to get the job done
- **R**ecognizing individual strengths and weaknesses
- **G**aining a better understanding of how to manage local Farm Bureau resources
- **E**ffectively tracking issues facing agriculture and the Farm Bureau

The last major component of the workshop was a set of activities that tied in the George Strait Farm Benefit concert with challenging Farm Bureau organizational themes. The activities provided opportunity to personally experience and discuss the concepts being learned. An example of two activities included the "George Strait Recruitment Committee," where participants learned how about committee roles and responsibilities, and "Breaking the Piggy Bank for Farm Benefit & George Strait," where participants learned about budgeting.

Results to date

The "Enhancing Organizational Interactions: Lessons Learned from George Strait" workshop was delivered on February 28, 2007 to 20 Farm Bureau employees at the state office. Participants maintained an enthusiastic involvement throughout the four hours of the workshop. Regarding the George Strait learning activities, the Executive Director expressed, "I can't believe that even the hard-headed ones became actively involved" (P. Cockrell, personal communication, February 28, 2007). During the workshop, all participants were actively involved and participant discussion of the workshop material continued after completion of the training.

Conclusions/Recommendations

With thematic instruction, learning about typically difficult subjects such as "Financial Management" can be effective and fun. The Farm Bureau employees who received the training from this workshop expressed a high level of enthusiasm and embraced the diverse approach of connecting "Organizational Interactions" to a George Strait Farm Benefit concert.

Recommendations for utilizing thematic instruction include, (a) providing prompts to remind trainers to constantly relate learning material to one consistent theme, (b) using and building an acronym throughout a workshop to maintain participants' curiosity while also serving to recap what they have learned, and (c) implementing an activity within each major point in an intensive training workshop to maximize learning retention.

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Leadership Development: Changing Organizational Culture

Sue Buck, UW-Extension

Introduction

Outreach education institutions continue to evolve to meet the needs of a changing society on local, state, national and global arenas. Meeting these changing needs means the institutions need to change as well. Change can lead to loss of trust and conflict as well as not being flexible in meeting societal needs through transformational education. This session will focus on:

How a statewide institution, the University of Wisconsin – Extension, developed two leadership programs to help change organizational culture and why the institution saw this as a need;

The development of these two programs and the rationale behind the content and process of delivering them;

And the current outcomes – how the institution culture has changed and what is planned for the future.

Background

The University of Wisconsin – Extension, as other outreach education institutions, continues to address change within the institution and in the environment in which it works. This includes budget constraints, governmental oversight, retirements due to the baby boomer bubble, changing community needs, etc. In the last year, UW-Extension also had an administrative integration with the University of Wisconsin Colleges, the 13 freshman/sophomore campuses. These stresses have led Extension and Colleges colleagues to become hesitant of the future and wondering how previous and new partnerships will continue. Using two leadership development programs to address these stresses were initiated to help change the internal culture and to be resilient in a changing environment. The two programs are the Extension Administrative Leadership Program/The Leadership Academy and The Responsibility Based Culture Initiative. The first focuses on the larger institution of UW-Extension and UW Colleges. The second is an initiative of UW-Extension, Cooperative Extension.

How it Works

The University of Wisconsin – Extension has the philosophy that everyone in the organization is a leader wherever they work. The Extension Administrative Leadership Program in Wisconsin has been in existence since 1990. There have been eight graduating classes of the two-year program. The EALP focused on developing leadership skills and helping participants from the four divisions of UW-Extension (Cooperative Extension, Broadcasting and Media Innovations, Continuing Education, Outreach and E-Learning, and Business and Manufacturing Extension) learn more about each of the divisions. When UW-Extension administratively merged with UW Colleges, the program

evolved to include Colleges participants and thus became The Leadership Academy in 2007. The main purposes of the program continued – ongoing leadership assessments, developing leadership skills, and participating in a voluntary mentoring program. These three key elements come from the work of Linkages, Inc. research on quality leadership development programs.

With the increase in retirements, funding stresses, and changing program initiatives, it was determined by the leadership of the UW-Extension, Cooperative Extension that the institution needed to increase the strong organizational culture already in place, develop self-directed leadership in its employees and help with succession planning. The result was a partnership with Integro Leadership Institute to develop the Leadership Development Process for the almost 1000 employees of Cooperative Extension called the Responsibility Based Culture Initiative. It is an 18 month, five module, train the trainer model where approximately 150 team leaders participated in the five in-services and in turn, provided in-services for their colleagues, either their office team or their program team. Twenty-five Cooperative Extension colleagues representing geographic, gender, ethnic and positional roles in the organization were provided in-depth professional development to become RBC Developers to conduct the five module in-services. The five modules are: Building Trust, Coaching and Counseling; Valuing Differences; Building High Performance Teams; and Shared Leadership.

Results To Date

The outcomes of EALP/Leadership Academy are focused on retention of employees, developing future organizational leadership, and building relationships between the divisions and institutions. In 2006, a survey of approximately 150 graduates of EALP showed that 113 people were still employed with UW-Extension. The 113 people have had either promotions and/or other leadership responsibilities in the years since they graduated. Seventy-five percent of the respondents said they wanted to continue their leadership learning. The first EALP Alumni seminar was held in 2006 with nearly half of the graduates participating. Discussions have lead to exploring the idea of an international alumni seminar.

The outcomes of the Responsibility Based Culture Initiative were to strengthen the leadership and trust-building abilities of all Cooperative Extension colleagues, enable teams in all areas redesign processes, systems and structures of Cooperative Extension to build greater trust, and continue to build high performing teams to meet the mission of the organization of providing transformational education. Baseline data was gathered in 2005 to benchmark Cooperative Extension's current organizational culture and trust levels. A second survey will be taken in 2008. Through team and individual success stories, increased transformational education programs have been documented. The Employee Assistant Program counselors have noted less contact from Cooperative Extension employees about colleague conflict issues. Partner organizations have seen the change in the working relationship in county offices and program teams. They have requested Extension help their employees learn more about Responsibility Based Culture.

Both of these programs are ongoing. The Leadership Academy is working to be inclusive of the needs and understanding of UW Colleges. This work has led to such previous and current collaborations such as distance education opportunities, co-sharing of facilities, serving on executive search committees, joint community programming, etc. The Responsibility Based Culture Initiative is also on going – not ending at the end of the five training modules. This initiative is included in New Colleague Orientation for Cooperative Extension faculty and academic staff as well as state and county classified staff. Systems changes have occurred such as changing the Civil Rights Review process and the development of a Classified Staff Advisory Council.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Change is continuous. Helping colleagues face change through developing their leadership, trust-building and partnership skills has many benefits for the individual and the institution. Leadership development helps both individuals and the institutions to stay relevant, engaged and positive in an evolving society. The two models, the Extension Administrative Leadership Program/The Leadership Academy and the Responsibility Based Culture Initiative, can be replicated and modified for other outreach institutions to meet their changing organizational cultures.

Strengthening the Voice: A Program for Local Farm Bureau Leaders
Hannah S. Carter, University of Florida
Eric K. Kaufman, University of Florida
Rick D. Rudd, Virginia Tech

Introduction

Agricultural leadership is needed today more than ever before. With the agricultural field becoming more specialized and increasingly challenged by outside groups, the future success of the industry is dependent upon local leaders to guide efforts for advocacy and change (Diem & Nikola, 2005; Horner, 1984; Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1982; W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2001).

The Florida Farm Bureau Federation (FFBF) is committed to the development of local leadership and a strong local leadership structure. To ensure that local leaders have the tools they need to be successful, the FFBF desires leadership training for local leaders, officers, committee chairs, and committee members. Grassroots leadership is a hallmark of Farm Bureau. Local leaders have been, and continue to be, instrumental in identifying, promoting, and accomplishing goals in the agricultural industry for many years.

FFBF is part of a larger, national organization known as the American Farm Bureau Federation (AFBF). In part, the mission of the AFBF is "to implement policies that are developed by members" (American Farm Bureau Federation, 2006). Although the problem of maintaining "grassroots" efforts is a challenge for the entire national organization, FFBF has been proactive with statewide efforts to improve the flow of ideas from individual members to the larger organization. This goal is made clear in FFBF's vision of being "the most effective, influential and respected Farm Bureau in the nation" and to "be recognized as Florida's 'Voice of Agriculture'" (Florida Farm Bureau, 2005). FFBF has identified the leadership role of local officers in county Farm Bureau groups as pivotal to organizational success (Carter, 2004).

Background

A needs assessment conducted in 2003 revealed that FFBF state leaders believe four local organizational aspects are important for an effective grassroots process: leadership, political process, effective boards, and knowledge of Farm Bureau. When evaluating these areas with local members, Carter (2004) applied a modified Borich (1980) needs assessment and found significant differences between perceived importance and proficiency in the areas of leadership, political process, and knowledge of Farm Bureau. Carter concluded that the findings indicate areas for leadership training with local FFBF board members. In addition, Carter concluded, "this study could be the starting point for additional leadership research within the FFBF" (p. 167).

In 2004, a qualitative study was conducted to further determine the leadership expectations, needs, and interests of local FFBF board members. Local board members throughout the state were interviewed, focusing on identification of common leadership-

related challenges and perceived development needs of the local Farm Bureau board. Four significant theme areas emerged: organizational appreciation, grassroots involvement, board member training, and board member succession. Many of the statements made by county board members matched up with the expectations for board effectiveness previously identified by FFBF state leaders (Carter, 2004). The theme areas described by Carter (2004) were well-represented in the interviews with local board members. In addition, the findings from the interviews with local board members seemed to further support the need for and interest in professional development programming for FFBF's local leaders. Based on the findings, the researchers recommended that the FFBF invest in the development of an educational program focused on FFBF's local leaders (Kaufman & Rudd, 2006).

<u>How it Works</u>

In 2005, FFBF contracted with the University of Florida Department of Agricultural Education and Communication (UF-AEC) to develop curricula for half-day workshops focused on developing local Farm Bureau leaders. The specific focus was with local board members. Later titled "Strengthening the Voice" (STV), the program was to include five topic area components: (1) effective meetings; (2) political advocacy and public relations; (3) member recruitment, development, and involvement; (4) enhancing organizational interactions; and (5) Farm Bureau foundations. The finished curriculum was presented in a train-the-trainer format, which prepared FFBF staff to deliver the workshops locally throughout the state.

The program materials were based on general adult education principles, including the "Cone of Experience," which suggests that people generally remember 10% of what they read, 20% of what they hear, 30% of what they see, 50% of what they see and hear, 70% of what they discuss with others, 80% of what they experience personally, and 95% of what they teach someone else (Dale, 1969). Although the workshops may allow little opportunity for participants to "teach" concepts of the program, the activities do provide some opportunity to "experience" the concepts being learned and certainly opportunities to "discuss" what is being learned. This program approach is consistent with previous research findings that suggest "rural leaders learn best by a process of action and reflection" (Dhanakumar, Rossing, & Campbell, 1996).

The entire *Strengthening the Voice* program, makes use of the concept of Best Management Practices (BMPs) that many farmers and ranchers are familiar with in the context of environmental impact. The best practices identified in the *Strengthening the Voice* program are focused on activities related to local Farm Bureau involvement. Just as is the case with most environmental BMPs, the tasks can be done without following the guidelines. However, the guidelines are proven practices for maximizing benefits, while minimizing unnecessary costs. It is important that participants consider all of the best practices identified in this workshop and make a commitment to follow up the workshop by implementing at least a few of the best practices.

At the conclusion of each workshop in the program, participants are asked to set a goal for implementing or improving best practices promoted in the program. They submit their "best practices goal sheet" to the workshop presenters, and the sheet is mailed back to them as a reminder one month later. In addition, two months after the workshop, participants receive a newsletter reminding them of the topics and best practices promoted in the first half of the workshop. Three months after the workshop, participants receive another workshop reminding them of the topics and best practice promoted in the second half of the workshop.

<u>Results to Date</u>

The first STV program component delivered around the state was *Farm Bureau Foundations*. The objectives of the workshop were:

1. Explain the relationship between Florida Farm Bureau Federation and Farm Bureau Insurance;

2. Establish a local strategy for active pursuit of the Florida Farm Bureau Federation Vision;

3. Describe the influence and limitation of the Farm Bureau on political issues; and

4. Prepare a plan for grassroots Farm Bureau policy development and implementation.

FFBF staff implemented the *Farm Bureau Foundations* program component with twelve different four-hour workshops throughout the state of Florida during April and May of 2006. The program focused on local board members in FFBF geographic districts across Florida and drew 156 participants from 45 different Florida counties.

Farm Bureau Foundations provides the first workshop evaluation data for the STV Program. Using a scale of 1-5, with 1 being poor and 5 being good, participants rated their overall mean ability across program objectives before the program as a 2.84 with a standard deviation of 0.98. Participants rated their overall mean ability after the program as a 4.39 with a standard deviation of 0.58. A more detailed summary of the participants' ratings on program objectives is displayed in Table 1. Significant differences between before and after ability ratings were found for all four objectives (p<.001).

After workshop evaluation sheets indicate that over 98 percent of participants were "satisfied" or "very satisfied" with the workshop. When asked to what extent they could use the ideas and skills learned in the workshop, 59 percent answered "to a great extent" and 37 percent answered "to a moderate extent." One participant wrote, "I've been wanting/needing this info for years."

Table 1. Participants' Post-Then Ratings of Ability with Farm Bureau Foundations Session Objectives

Ability Before	Objective	Ability After

Mean	S.D.		Mean	S.D.
2.90	1.19	Explaining the relationship between Florida Farm Bureau Federation and Insurance.	4.46	0.66
2.64	1.09	Establishing a local strategy for active pursuit of the Florida Farm Bureau Federation Vision.	4.26	0.78
3.08	1.13	Describing the influence and limitation of the Farm Bureau on political issues.	4.46	0.68
2.73	1.08	Preparing a plan for grassroots Farm Bureau policy development and implementation.	4.37	0.72

Note: The response scale was one to five, where 1 = "Poor" and 5 = "Good".
Source: 2006 *Farm Bureau Foundations* workshops associated with Florida Farm Bureau's *Strengthening the Voice* program. (N=143)

Conclusions/Recommendations

The FFBF realized the need for leadership development at the local level and has made an investment and commitment to provide this leadership training. The FFBF plans to implement two workshops per year around the state in a continuous cycle with the hopes that all county Farm Bureau board members will participate in the STV program.

After early success of FFBF's *Farm Bureau Foundations* sessions, other groups have expressed interested having UF-AEC develop similar professional development programs for their organizations. One example is an e-mail request from a leader in the Florida Nursery, Growers and Landscape Association. Agricultural industries throughout Florida are realizing the need to build the leadership capacities of their leaders and will be looking for similar programs and opportunities.

Leadership education faculty and academic units can be successful in providing valuable programming to community groups and nonprofit organizations. As part of the land-grant mission, departments of agricultural education should be reaching out to serve constituent clientele. This outreach can and should be representative of the department's expertise, but programming should also be tailored specific to the group being served.

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Harry Potter Saves the Moribund Town

Jay Dewey, Metropolitan Schechter High School

The New England Town Meeting allowed every citizen an equal say in his or her own government.

Schechter Regional High School, founded in 1993 in Teaneck, New Jersey to prepare Jewish leaders, developed a multifaceted leadership program with Town Meeting at its center. Around this interactive trial and error process with real consequences for success or failure, students constructed habits of leadership reinforced then through courses and mentoring.

Not only every student but also every adult who worked there comprised the Town. All were dependent on the other and bound by majority decision. Each voter had to consider the affect on every aspect of the school; decision makers were forced to consider minority opinions, consequences and precedents. This was democracy at work. The Town's By Laws defined its authority within the policies established by the School Board and the Head of School. Around an Honor Code of values, a moral community was developed. (Sergiovanni). Adult leadership research was adapted to fit teenage development (Erickson).

An introductory course taught parliamentary procedures, budgeting, campaigning, public speaking, running meetings, vision planning, and power awareness. Town officers each had their own mentors to report back observations and offer pointers; both regularly retreated to the "balcony" to reflect on the larger picture (Heifetz and Linsky). Best practices were discussed (Kouzes and Posner; Sean Covey; Stephen Covey).

1993 saw 20 students enrolled with 8 teachers.   The first moderator was the school director who modeled Robert's Rules and procedures. The first student moderator was elected in 1994; by that time the school had grown to 43 students. By its third year there were 64 students and 15 teachers. It took new students a full six months to feel confident with the Town process; by then they had taken a leadership course, attended many meetings, and served on Town committees. The Town successfully wrestled with issues from facility cleanliness to participation in political rallies, from going to help in New Orleans and raising money for Darfur and the Tsunami to organizing Town socials.

Rabid growth, brought about by the merger with another school, almost doomed this nascent process.

A much older New York City Jewish school was dying because it never reached critical size. The Schechter Regional board, watching its neighbor, determined to overcome its smallness quickly by agreeing to merge the two schools. Only upping enrollment, they argued, would draw more new students. The new school, bridging four counties in New Jersey and six in New York was renamed Metropolitan Schechter High School.

Merger discussion between the Boards began in late March 1996. The announcement of the merger onto the NJ campus, announced a few weeks later, was met not with the anticipated ecstasy, but rather with distress and anger from both sides of the Hudson. The New York City families grieved the death of their school and the forced move from their beloved city. New Jersey families feared that their small, liberal and constructivist approach would drown in the merger.

At great risk was the leadership program. Town Meeting, now grown to 150 members, functioned poorly; over 60% of the students and adults were brand new to Town meeting. The NY students were humiliated further by not knowing the lingo of parliamentarian procedure. Students from both schools grew restless and rebellious. The New Yorkers were accustomed to a traditional representational student government designed to organize student events and negotiate with the administration over benefits. The few NY students who had been active felt stymied by the slowness of the process; the remaining NY students who had never taken part in real political debate were resentful of their time. NJ students felt snubbed by NY claims to superiority while simultaneously watching their beloved Town crumble.

The inherent strength of the Town was tested – but happily not found wanting. The moderator's mentor helped her realize that a different model was needed and that she would be far more effective if she put this project in the hands of a competent Town Committee. A strong, former student moderator led the committee; someone with keen political know-how and social gravitas.

During the first year of the school, the concept of immutables and "mutables" was established. To reach a solution, a group needed first to determine the basic principles and policies that were immutable – and then within this framework make change. Immutables included: preserving the Town; providing increased leadership opportunities; organizing into smaller units each comprised of members drawn from the faculty and four grade levels. The committee researched a magnet public school organized around standing problem solving areas e.g. facility, arts, social activities, political action, or student life. They studied a private boarding school with a long standing large Town Meeting. Nothing seemed to fit. Out of desperation, or perhaps brilliance, one member from the NY school suggested breaking the Town into Harry Potter houses.

After jokes about quidditch matches and magic wands, members of the committee began taking the idea more seriously. An adult member of the committee pointed out that J. K. Rowling based her stories on a system that had worked in Britain for several centuries. Four houses, meant four more officers per house, 16 more leadership opportunities; membership from all the grades; an expanded executive committee; and more teachers serving as advisors and mentors.

Furthermore, whereas the Town was essentially a problem solving body, the House functioned also as a social unit. Inter-house competition meant more school spirit and more opportunities for students to be involved in sports who would not otherwise make varsity teams. Students not only experienced collaborative leadership within a group, they also learned how groups work together without giving up their own individuality. Harry Potter had saved a near to dead Town. Established American and British systems of secondary school leadership development need to be explored further as well as the role of popular culture on adolescent leadership constructs and the benefit of empowering students to really lead.

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Purdue University's College of Agriculture Leadership Development Certificate Program
Tracie M. Egger, Purdue University

Introduction

The Leadership Development Certificate Program is a structured program designed to provide students with experience and growth in leadership. It sets forth an exciting new opportunity to further enhance the leadership skills of undergraduate students in Agriculture. Skills that are essential for success in career, community, and family situations. This program is focused on students taking responsibility for their own growth and development. The program provides a *framework* for them to do this. It is not an academic leadership "minor", rather it is a "certificate" program that offers broad flexibility, takes advantage of existing leadership development opportunities (both on and off campus) and creates new workshops outside of the classroom. Each student, with the guidance and assistance of a Coach, develops their own individual leadership learning experience that meets the program's specific requirements.

We believe that:
- All students can and should exercise leadership
- Leadership does not require formal authority or position and can be practiced by anyone interested in making a contribution and influencing a more positive future.
- Leadership is a process of mutual influence directed at achieving purposeful results
- The process of self-discovery is ongoing, and the pursuit of leadership requires perseverance and a commitment to perpetual learning.
- Building trusting relationships is essential for the work of leadership. Leadership never happens alone.
- By incorporating the diverse skills and viewpoints of others, individuals are empowered and group energy is mobilized to pursue collective goals.

Background

Employers that interview students at Purdue University have frequently stated that students with leadership skills and experiences are most desirable in today's changing environment. Based upon these comments, a group of Purdue faculty began exploring the potential for some type of leadership development learning experience for undergraduate students in Purdue University's College of Agriculture. This discussion led to a one-day focus group meeting with about twenty community and industrial leaders on April 1, 2004. They clearly articulated the need for:

- Leadership
- Interpersonal skills
- Communication skills
- Flexibility
- Commitment to the business
- Team player

From these discussions and deliberations, the Leadership Development Certificate Program was created in 2005 as a joint venture between several departments within the Purdue University

College of Agriculture and supported by the Office of Academic Programs. The purpose of the program is to:

- Prepare students for the workforce by responding to direct feedback from employers, alumni, and recent graduates through structured leadership experiences
- Help more students intentionally plan their leadership journey beginning earlier
- Increase the number of students engaged in leadership development, especially those who may not view him or herself as a leader.
- Enhance students' skills in leadership to be a productive team member, organizational and community leader
- Increase the percent of graduates with the competencies to become active citizens in their communities
- Create some visible added-value incentive to students to stretch themselves

The initiating faculty group consulted with the University of Illinois regarding their leadership certificate program. Their program was used as a model for the development of this program. A leadership development philosophy statement was written early in the process to serve as a foundation for the program. A general framework, along with the philosophy statement, was presented at a College of Agriculture faculty meeting on April 20, 2005 and was approved.

The Leadership Development Certificate Program Committee was formed to implement the program. The committee is composed of a faculty representative from each of the departments in the College of Agriculture. It is responsible for the overall development of the program and its policies. A subgroup of this committee is responsible for its implementation.

The program was launched in August 2005 with approximately 56 students responding to the call-out.

How it Works

1. **Submit Statement of Intent Form with a Résumé:** This is the first step in being admitted into the Leadership Development Certificate Program.

2. **Select a Coach:** A list of qualified coaches can be obtained from the Leadership Development Certificate Program office, which is located in Room 121 of the Agricultural Administration Building.

3. **Complete a Leadership Skills and Attributes Self-Assessment:** All participating students will complete a self-assessment as described in the student manual.

4. **Complete a Personal Development Plan:** Following completion of a self-assessment, students complete a **Personal Development Plan**. This will include establishing self-improvement goals in at least **four** of the **eleven** leadership skills and attributes. Personal growth is expected in all **eleven** skills and attributes and to be reflected in the portfolio.

5. **Participate in On-Campus University Recognized Group Experiences:** Students are expected to be an active participant in **two** non-classroom group or team experiences for at least one semester, contributing to the goals of that group and documenting those experiences and growth in the portfolio.

6. **Participate in an Off-Campus Community Group Experience:** Students are expected to be an active participant and contribute to the goals of at least **one** off-campus, non-university recognized, community group for at least **one semester**. Growth in the leadership skills and attributes must be documented in the portfolio through involvement in positions of employment and civic organizations, mission programs, international experiences, or other activities.

7. **Participate in Leadership Programs and Workshops:** Students must participate in a minimum of **two** College of Agriculture-sponsored leadership programs and workshops. In addition, they must participate in an additional **two** leadership programs, either on or off campus. The leadership growth experienced (reflection) from the **four** programs will be documented in the portfolio.

8. **Complete Six Credit Hours of Academic Course Offerings:** Documentation of growth in the leadership skills and attributes areas will be required through at least six credit hours of academic course offerings. All courses included must be justified and students must indicate how each course applies to their personal development plan and the four major self-improvement goals. NOTE: The courses do not have to have "leadership" as the main focus but students must justify to their leadership coach the course's relevance.

9. **Develop a Portfolio:** Working with a leadership coach, students develop a portfolio that documents their progress on the four major self-improvement goals identified in their personal development plan as well as personal growth in all leadership skills and attributes.

Leadership Skills and Attributes

Developing leadership skills, like any skill that is learned, starts with a person's awareness that leadership can be learned. Beyond awareness, a person develops an understanding of the principles and concepts that underlie the skill or attribute. A further step in learning is the ability to articulate the principles and concepts. Still another step of development is to become engaged, to put leadership into action. This highest level of development occurs when the skill becomes integrated into a person's behavior. Since there are many leadership skills and attributes, leadership development becomes a life-long learning endeavor.

There is a substantial body of research that identifies dozens of leadership skills. The ones chosen as the focus of the Purdue College of Agriculture Leadership Development Certificate Program are fundamental to effective leadership and fall within the philosophy of this program. As a student, you enter into this program with different levels of experience and knowledge about leadership. Therefore the intent of the program is to assist you in recognizing your capacity for leadership and to encourage growth from wherever you are in the developmental process. At a minimum, it is expected that you develop to the behavioral level in at least four competency areas. In other words, you are expected to practice your leadership and become engage in some worthwhile endeavor while in this program.

The four general competency levels, the intended learning outcomes and the more specific skills and attributes are:

I.   **Personal Leadership Development**

Intended Learning Outcomes: Student understands the meaning of leadership and has developed a personal philosophy of effective and ethical leadership; understands his/her capacity for leadership and is more knowledgeable about managing one's behavior; recognizes that leadership development is a lifelong learning endeavor that requires reflection, renewal, and finding new ways to grow; recognizes the importance of sustaining leadership through encouraging others to develop their leadership abilities.

Skills and Attributes:
- Understands Leadership
- Becomes More Aware of Self
- Practices Ethical Behavior
- Sustains Leadership

II. Interpersonal Leadership Development

Intended Learning Outcomes: Student understands the importance of building relationships with others that are based on trust and respect; values the differences of others and recognizes that such differences lead to richer relationships; enhances his/her communication skills; recognizes that ethical leadership behavior is based on one's character; understands how to manage conflict situations.

Skills and Attributes:
- Values Diversity
- Enhances Communication Skills
- Manages Conflict

III. Group and Organizational Leadership Development

Intended Learning Outcomes: Student understands the importance of working with others in groups and organizations to establish and accomplish common goals; understands the components of change and the role of the leader in bringing about purposeful change; and understands how to manage projects from inception to completion.

Skills and Attributes:
- Develops Teams
- Leads Change
- Manages Projects

IV. Community Leadership Development

Intended Learning Outcomes: Student recognizes the importance of citizenship in a democracy and what it means; understands the diverse and complex nature of communities; understands the role of various institutions in meeting community needs; and is committed to serving others.

Skills and Attributes:
- Contributes to Community

Leadership Self Assessment

The purpose of the self assessment is to assist students in developing their Personal Development Plan. It is suggested that they fill out the assessment to help them identify their four development goals.

The questionnaire enables students to think about the leadership skills and attributes that are the basis of this program. The assessment enables you to do two things. First, students rate themselves in terms of how well they think they possess the attribute or perform the skill. Second, students indicate whether or not they wish to develop this specific skill. From the assessment, they should be able to develop their four goals.

While this instrument is intended to help students gain new insights into the many leadership skills and attributes as they relate to themselves and their leadership development, it is strongly encouraged that they utilize other assessment instruments as well. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator, the Leadership Practices Inventory, DISC, Insight, and other development tools available through the Dean of Students Office can not only provide new insights into oneself, they can identify patterns of behavior and/or affirm what students already know about themselves.

Personal Development Plan

The **Personal Development Plan**, or PDP, is a roadmap that will guide the student through consistent growth in four or more leadership skills and attributes. The PDP is the foundation to a productive start in the Leadership Development Certificate Program. Similar to a road map, the PDP serves as the student's guide throughout the entire Leadership Development Certificate Program journey.

It is recommended that a table format be used for the PDP. The table should include three columns: Leadership Skills and Attributes (identified through the Self Assessment) and Goal column, a Specific Mechanism column to describe how the student plans to obtain each skill and goal, and an Anticipated Outcome column to document how the student will benefit from the experience.

Results to date

During 2005 - the initial year of the program, 37 students submitted a statement of intent to participate and followed through by submitting a personal development plan by the due date.

During the fall semester of 2006, another call out was held for the second class of participants. Thirty students attended the callout. Twenty-one students have submitted a statement of intent and have completed a personal development plan.

In April 2007, the first Certificate of Completion Ceremony will be held. Of the thirty-seven from class one, there are approximately 20 students who are completed with the certificate program requirements and will be awarded with the certificate of completion. The student's academic transcript will be updated accordingly.

Conclusions/Recommendations

After the first year experience, the committee decided to revise the student and coach manuals so they could be easier to follow. There is now only one manual for both groups.

The committee felt it was imperative to provide examples of a personal development plan, a portfolio, etc. in the student manual. This helps students understand what to turn in.

The coordinator of the program must provide electronic communication to the students in both classes to keep the student's engaged in their activities.

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Purdue University College of Agriculture Leadership Manual, 2006:
    http://www.ydae.purdue.edu/ldcp/downloads/2006%20LDCP%20Manual.pdf

Deep in the heart of FFA: Leadership activities and member role by demographic

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Introduction

Leadership skills and behaviors of members in youth organizations have been widely examined. Specifically, in agricultural education, leadership activities developed through FFA has been investigated. These studies have examined either the degree to which youth have acquired particular leadership life skills or the level within the organization at which the members have participated in leadership activities. Little attention has been paid to either the conceptual role that the young person plays in the day-to-day functioning of society or the context in which the leadership behaviors are performed. Research has suggested that the most effective leadership develop programs engage young people in meaningful ways as they work as partners with adults in addressing real world situations.

Literature Review

As a premier youth leadership organization, FFA has prepared future leaders for local, state and national activities. In fact, the FFA mission states "The National FFA Organization is dedicated to making a positive difference in the lives of young people by developing their potential for premier leadership, personal growth and career success through agricultural education" (National FFA, 2005).

Research studies have indicated that participation in FFA enhances leadership abilities. Several researchers (Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997) have found a positive relationship between leadership skills scores and FFA participation. Further, Brannon, Holley & Key (1989) found Vocational Agriculture and the FFA had an impact on the success of many community leaders. These community leaders who had participated in vocational agriculture felt their leadership activities were effective in developing their leadership skills, contributed to their success, and have been of value to their careers regardless of their occupations (Brannon, Holley & Key, 1989). Further, Balschweid and Talbert (2000) concluded that FFA members were more engaged in school and community activities and career preparations than either non-members or typical high school students. Scales and Leffert (1999) concluded that youth organizations provide opportunities for success, a sense of belonging and safety, activities that are challenging, interaction and support from adults, leadership opportunities, and other interactions that contribute to the positive development and resiliency of youth.

FFA member in demographic groups have been examined. Dormody & Seevers (1994) found leadership life skills development was not related to self esteem, years in FFA, age, ethnicity, or place in residence. However, female FFA members had higher youth leadership life skills development than male members (Dormody & Seevers, 1994). Further, Carter and Spotanski

(1989) stated students who served as an officer, committee chair or have received formal leadership training consistently rated each of the 10 leadership and personal development significantly higher than those students without these leadership experiences. In addition, gender has been examined.

In 2004, the National FFA Organization introduced a national leadership curriculum, LifeKnowledge. This curriculum's foundation is the 16 Precepts of National FFA Essential Learnings (Figure 1). These 16 Precepts focus around four key areas building on the area of Me, We, Do, and Serve. These precepts were developed by leadership experts, teacher educators, agricultural education teachers and agriculture industry leaders.
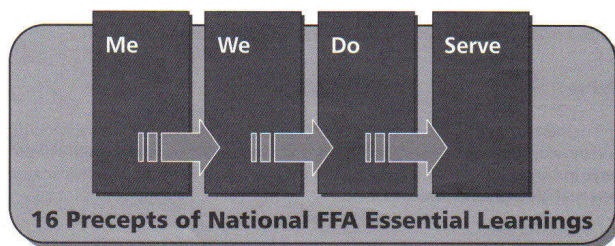
Figure 1. Precepts of the National FFA Essential Learnings

Role of Youth in Youth-Adult Interactions

Lofquist (1989) developed what he termed a "spectrum of attitudes" that adults may hold regarding the role of young people in society. The left side of his continuum (Figure 2.) represents an attitude where young people are viewed as "objects," being told what to do because the adult "knows what's best" for the youth. As "recipients," young people participate in learning experiences that adults see as "being good for them." However, the real contributions of young people are seen as being deferred until some later date and learning experiences are seen as practice for later life. When youth are viewed as "resources", actions of young people have present value to the community and there is an attitude of respect focusing on building self-esteem and being productive. The Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development (2001) later added a characterization of youth as "partners" to Lofquist's original continuum. As partners, youth share leadership and decision-making roles with adults.
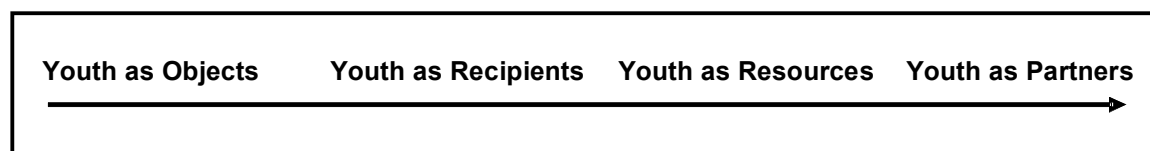
Figure 2. Lofquist Leadership Theory in Role of Youth in Youth-Adult Interaction.

Context of Leadership Activities

Ayres (1987) identified four key developmental phases through which individuals engaged in a leadership curriculum should progress (Figure 3.) These phases are closely aligned with the 16 Precepts of the National FFA Essential Learnings. First individuals must develop an expanded

knowledge of self, that is, who they are, what they believe, and how they function. Next they move toward mastering skills necessary to work effectively with others. In the next phase, individuals refine their skills working with groups or organizations. The final phase focuses on leadership within the context of communities, systems, and society. As the arena in which leadership is being practiced continues to broaden, individuals must use knowledge and skills learned at previous levels to be effective in the new context.

Self	**Interpersonal**	**Groups and Organizations**	**Community**
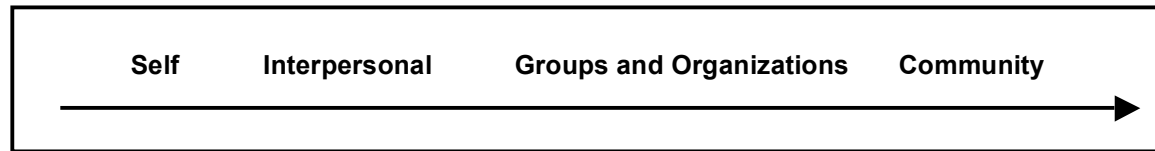
Figure 3. Ayers Leadership Theory in Context of Leadership Activity.

Similarly, Austin (1996) offered a leadership model which focused on developing knowledge and skills first at the individual level, emphasizing that "before we can contribute to a larger effort, it is imperative that we understand ourselves" (p. 118). However, in this model group development included the knowledge and skills related to interpersonal communication and interactions, as well as, the ability to participate in and understand group development, working together to achieve goals, and dealing with conflict. The third level in this model of leadership development focuses on community, recognizing that the ultimate goal of individual and group development is to serve the common good beyond the individual or organization.

The Theoretical Framework of this study is based on the Member Role/Context Leadership Theory created by Peiter, Rennekamp and Nall in 2005, as shown in the conceptual map in Figure 4. Relationship of member role to context of chapter leadership activities is examined.
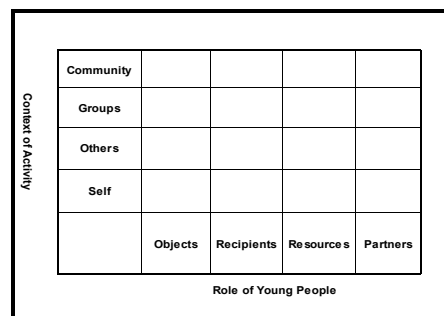
Figure 4. Conceptual Map of Member Role/Context Leadership Theory

Methods

The purpose of this study is to analyze the role of youth in youth-adult interactions and the context of chapter leadership activities of rural FFA members by demographic area (gender, grade level, years of FFA membership, and chapter leadership experience).

Specific objectives of the study include:
 1) Describe the personal characteristics of rural FFA members.

2) Determine the role of rural FFA members in youth-adult interactions for gender, grade level, years of FFA membership, and chapter leadership experience.
3) Determine the context of rural FFA members' leadership activities by gender, grade level, years of FFA membership, and chapter leadership experience.

The target population for this descriptive study was rural members of the National FFA Organization. For the purposes of this study, "rural schools" was defined as those serving a geographic region containing no city or town larger than ten thousand residents. Multi-stage cluster sampling technique was implemented to draw a representative sample of active FFA members from across the United States. In the first stage, three states were randomly selected from each of the four National FFA regions for a total of twelve states. In the second stage of the sampling procedure, state FFA Advisors randomly selected four schools, each containing a FFA chapter which serves rural areas.

A sixty-four item researcher developed instrument was created for the purpose of collecting data regarding youth participation in leadership activities. The context of youth activities were identified by developing statements which reflect the potential roles FFA members engage in as they develop leadership skills moving from personal development to interpersonal development to organizational and group development to ultimately engaging in community and societal leadership (Ayers, 1987). Roles of youth in adult-youth relationships through leadership activities were also examined. Questions were developed which reflected the role in which FFA members were engaged through leadership activities which viewed them as objects, recipients, resources, and/or partners (Lofquist, 1989).

Each statement began, "In my FFA Chapter…" and through responses FFA members measured their current state of leadership activities. Responses were measured using a four point Likert-type scale. The points on the scale were: "1" = "Strongly Disagree", "2" = "Disagree", "3" = "Agree", "4" = "Strongly Agree". Content and face validity of the instrument was established using a panel of experts. These experts were in the field of leadership development, current agricultural education teachers serving on the National Association of Agricultural Educators (NAAE) Board of Directors, Extension staff, agricultural education pre-service teachers, and former FFA members. The instrument was pilot tested with high school FFA members not included in the random sample. Reliability was established using Chronbach's Alpha and was reported for each construct. [Objects (α =71), Recipients (α=.85), Resources (α=.88), Partners (α=.86), Self (α=.72), Interpersonal (α=.88), Groups (α=.88), and Community (α=.88)].

Permission was granted by the FFA advisor and school administrator for all FFA members to participate in the study, as approved by the IRB. Using Dillman's (2000) research design method 48 FFA chapter advisors were notified of the opportunity to participate prior to the first mailing. Follow-up contacts were made with non-respondent FFA chapters. Thirty-six FFA chapters agreed to participate in the study, leading to a response rate of 75%. Researchers received 1202 completed survey instruments. Data were analyzed using SPSS 10.0, and no differences between early and late respondents were found. Descriptive statistics of frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were given for each objective.

Findings

Personal characteristics of rural FFA members were examined (Table 1). Over half of the respondents were male (54.86%). High School freshmen represented the largest educational level. Nearly one-third of FFA members were high school freshman (30.93%). Approximately one-fourth of the respondents were sophomores (25.43%) and one-fifth (19.59%) were juniors. Only 16.15% were seniors and the smallest group was middle school FFA members with 7.90% of the respondents. Over 4 out of 10 respondents (42.93%) were first year members of FFA, and 22.37% were second year members. The smallest groups were represented by those who had been members five years (4.15%) and six years (4.49%). Only 23.74% of the respondents reported serving as a chapter officer.

Table 1

Personal Characteristics of Rural FFA Members

	F	%
Gender *(n=1163)*		
Male	638	54.86
Female	525	45.14
Grade in School *(n=1164)*		
Middle School	92	7.90
Freshman	360	30.93
Sophomore	296	25.43
Junior	228	19.59
Senior	188	16.15
Years in FFA *(n=1158)*		
1	474	40.93
2	259	22.37
3	190	16.41
4	135	11.66
5	48	4.15
6	52	4.49
Chapter Officer *(n=1171)*		
Yes	278	23.74
No	893	76.26

When comparing the role of youth in leadership activities by gender (Table 2), both male and female respondents had the highest agreement related to being treated as partners (Male: M=2.96, Female: M=3.05), followed by resources (Male: M=2.94, Female: M=3.02), recipients (Male: M=2.85, Female: M=2.93) and objects (Male: M=2.86, Female: M=2.89). Overall, the highest agreement was given by female members indicating they were treated by adults as partners (M=3.05). The overall lowest response (M=2.85) came from male members who had the least agreement with statements which indicated they were treated as recipients by adults.

Table 2

Role of Youth in Youth-Adult Interactions by Gender

	Male (n=638)		Female (n=525)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Objects	2.86	.52	2.89	.51
Recipients	2.85	.51	2.93	.49
Resources	2.94	.54	3.02	.53
Partners	2.96	.56	3.05	.53

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

When comparing the role of members by grade level (Table 3), FFA members were in agreement that they are more likely to be treated as resources or partners at each grade level, i.e., the highest means for each grade level were related to resources or partners. However, the younger students, Middle School and Freshmen were the most likely to respond they were treated as objects and recipients, i.e., the means for objects and recipients were found among the Freshmen and Middle School respondents to be the highest of all age groups for that role. Freshmen and Junior members were equal sharing the highest agreement in the area of youth as resources (M=2.98). Freshmen FFA members were most likely to indicate they were treated as partners (M=3.03), followed closely by Seniors (M=3.02) and Juniors (M=3.02). Of all age levels, the Freshmen felt most strongly they were treated as partners (M=3.03). The lowest area of agreement was from sophomores who were the least likely to agree they were treated as objects by adults (M=2.81).

Table 3

Role of Youth in Youth-Adult Interactions by Grade Level

	Middle (n=92)		Freshman (n=360)		Sophomore (n=296)		Junior (n=228)		Senior (n=188)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Objects	2.89	.52	2.94	.48	2.81	.49	2.87	.51	2.87	.57
Recipients	2.93	.49	2.92	.47	2.85	.48	2.89	.52	2.88	.55
Resources	2.95	.56	2.99	.49	2.98	.53	2.98	.51	2.97	.60
Partners	2.90	.52	3.03	.52	2.98	.54	3.02	.54	3.02	.60

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

Role of youth-adult interactions was compared by years of FFA memberships (Table 4). FFA members with one year of involvement expressed a greater agreement (M=2.92) in being treated as objects from adults. The five and six year members indicated the greatest agreement for the role as a recipient from adult interaction (M=2.94 each). The youth who have been members four, five or six years have the strongest agreement that they are treated as resources, i.e., 4-year member M=3.05, 5-year member M=3.13, and six-year member M=3.03. The highest level of agreement for the role of youth was expressed by members with five years experience (M=3.15) who indicated they were treated as partners.

Table 4

Role of Youth in Youth-Adult Interaction by Years in FFA

	1 (n=474)		2 (n=259)		3 (n=190)		4 (n=135)		5 (n=48)		6 (n=52)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Objects	2.92	.51	2.82	.52	2.85	.53	2.85	.51	2.91	.36	2.90	.54
Recipients	2.93	.50	2.82	.50	2.82	.55	2.92	.45	2.94	.43	2.94	.54
Resources	2.99	.53	2.92	.52	2.94	.57	3.05	.50	3.13	.40	3.03	.50
Partners	3.02	.55	2.94	.55	2.96	.58	3.07	.50	3.15	.42	3.08	.54

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

In comparing FFA officers to non-officers for member role in youth-adult interaction (Table 5), non-officers had higher mean scores in all roles; objects (M=2.90), recipients (2.91), resources (M=2.98), and partners (3.00) than those with officer experience. FFA members with leadership experience as officers rated being treated as objects by adults the lowest (M=2.79), yet their agreement increased with each role objects (M=2.79), recipients (M=2.82), resources (M=2.94) and partners (M=2.98). Members who did not have officer leadership experience indicated the strongest agreement in being treated as partners (M=3.00). Likewise, their agreement increased as they move from objects (M=2.90) to recipients (M=2.91) to resources (M=2.98) to partners (M=3.00).

Table 5

Role of Youth by Leadership Experience

	Yes (n=278)		No (n=893)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Objects	2.79	.52	2.90	.51
Recipients	2.82	.51	2.91	.50
Resources	2.94	.56	2.98	.52
Partners	2.98	.58	3.00	.54

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

Leadership activities (Table 6) focusing on self-development were identified the most by both male (M=2.98) and female (M=3.08) FFA members. This was followed by interpersonal development (Male: M=2.88, Female: M=2.92), group development (Male: M=2.88, Female: M=2.91) and community development. (Male: M=2.86, Female: M=2.88). In every context of leadership the females had stronger agreement than males that they had activities focusing on leadership development. The strongest area of agreement among all contexts and genders was self for females (M=3.08). The lowest agreement was provided by males for leadership activities involving community (M=2.86).

Table 6

Context of Leadership Activities by Gender

	Male (n=638)		Female (n=525)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Self	2.98	.53	3.08	.50
Interpersonal	2.88	.53	2.97	.52
Groups	2.88	.53	2.93	.51
Community	2.86	.60	2.91	.60

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

Leadership activities were also analyzed by grade level (Table 7). Leadership activities focusing on self development were given the highest agreement by Seniors (M=3.09). Followed by Freshmen (M=3.06), Juniors (M=3.02), Sophomores (M=3.00), and Middle School (M=2.87). Likewise community leadership activities were given the lowest agreement by Sophomores (M=2.85). Following closely were Seniors (M=2.86), Juniors (M=2.87), and Freshmen and Sophomores equal (M= 2.92). Of all activity types and grade levels, the highest agreement was given by seniors and self-development (M=3.09). The lowest agreement was given by sophomores in the area of community activities (M=2.85).

Table 7

Context of Leadership Activities Performed by Grade Level

	Middle (n=92)		Freshman (n=360)		Sophomore (n=296)		Junior (n=228)		Senior (n=188)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self	2.87	.48	3.06	.48	3.00	.52	3.02	.51	3.09	.56
Interpersonal	3.01	.47	2.94	.50	2.89	.50	2.93	.56	2.91	.59
Groups	2.92	.52	2.92	.51	2.88	.52	2.94	.50	2.87	.59
Community	2.92	.64	2.92	.59	2.85	.55	2.87	.61	2.86	.64

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

When comparing members' activities for self, (Table 8) those with five years of membership were in highest agreement (M=3.21). Those with six years of membership had the greatest agreement for activities focusing on working with others (M=3.02). Members with five years also ranked those activities developing knowledge and skills working with groups the most (M=2.99). Highest agreement was given by members with five years experience, reporting leadership activities focusing on self-development (M=3.21). Students with three years of FFA membership identified community activities (M=2.77) as the lowest across all years of experience.

Table 8

Context of Leadership Activities Performed by Years in FFA

	Year 1 (n=474)		Year 2 (n=259)		Year 3 (n=190)		Year 4 (n=135)		Year 5 (n=48)		Year 6 (n=52)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self	3.01	.50	2.96	.55	3.03	.52	3.14	.51	3.21	.36	3.08	.50
Interpersonal	2.95	.51	2.84	.54	2.89	.58	2.97	.52	3.00	.43	3.02	.46
Groups	2.93	.54	2.87	.51	2.87	.55	2.91	.47	2.99	.37	2.92	.60
Community	2.94	.61	2.84	.57	2.77	.65	2.88	.56	2.95	.54	2.96	.48

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

Leadership context was compared by member leadership experience, defined by members serving as a chapter officer (Table 9). Members reporting chapter officer experience have higher means with self (M=3.05) than those with no office experience (M=3.02). FFA members with chapter officer experience had lower means in the areas of interpersonal (M=2.88), groups (M=2.83), and community (M=2.76). The highest agreement was given by those with leadership officer experience in the area of self (M=3.05), with the same group identifying the least agreement with activities focusing on community (M=2.76).

Table 9

Context in which Leadership Activities are Performed by Leadership Experience

	Yes (n=278)		No (n=893)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Self	3.05	.55	3.02	.51
Interpersonal	2.88	.56	2.93	.52
Groups	2.83	.53	2.93	.52
Community	2.76	.64	2.92	.58

1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Respondents tended to be white males, high school freshmen with one year in FFA. In addition, members had limited leadership experience, with few who held a chapter office.

When examining the role of members in youth-adult interaction by gender, females were in stronger agreement in all areas than males. Both male and female FFA members were in strongest agreement they were treated as partners by adults. With both male and female FFA members, as they moved up the continuum, from objects to recipients to resources to partners, agreement for each part of the continuum also grew.

With all grade levels of FFA members, as members moved from objects to resources to recipients to partners, so did the level of agreement of their role in youth-adult interactions. Youth with five years as an FFA member indicated the overall highest agreement for the role of partners in the youth-adult interactions. However, FFA members with one year of involvement expressed a greater agreement in being treated as objects from adults than other members with more years of FFA membership. FFA members with officer leadership experience were in less agreement than those members without serving as a chapter officer.

In terms of context of leadership activities, females were in greater agreement than males that these activities targeted the development of self, interpersonal skills, group development and community development. With both male and female FFA members, agreement for the leadership activities decreases as the continuum moves from self to interpersonal to groups and to community.
FFA members with one to six years of experience rated leadership activities focusing on self development as the greatest. As the leadership continuum moves from self to interpersonal to groups and to community, agreement decreases for activities targeted in each area. Members with no leadership experience, as defined by serving as a chapter officer, were generally in greater agreement that their leadership activities helped them develop along the continuum than those who did serve as a chapter officer. With both groups, the greatest agreement was in the area of self, with community activities having the least agreement.

It is recommended that a National FFA Leadership Task Force be formed to examine how demographics impact member role and context of chapter leadership activities. Specifically, this task force will identify activities which focus on each context level (self, interpersonal, groups and community) by gender, grade level, years of membership, and level of experiences. A result of this task force, advisors will be educated in member role and leadership contexts resulting in members to develop leadership through all contexts. This task force should be a collaborative group which is comprised of leadership experts, agricultural education teachers, Agricultural Education teacher educators, and state/national FFA staff. In all demographic areas, as the continuum moves from self to community, agreement decreases.

It is also recommended that additional research investigate the differences between members' gender, number of years of FFA membership, grade level, and leadership experience. Specifically, additional studies focusing on gender should be conducted to determine why female agreement is higher for member role and context of activities than male FFA members.

Replication of this study should be conducted, as LifeKnowledge is infused into the middle school, secondary and collegiate curriculums. This research would provide a basis to see the impact of youth-adult interactions and context of chapter leadership activities prior to and after the introduction of LifeKnowledge for these specific demographic groups.

These respondents should be included as the start of a longitudinal study to determine if demographics of FFA membership changes over time and if perceptions of member role and the context of chapter activities changes with the implementation of LifeKnowledge.

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Surviving the Reality of Leadership: Using Reality TV to Portray Leader Focused Theories

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Introduction

Popular media has been increasing in its use in leadership education, but rather than using snippets of many movies embedded in a lecture, we decided to design an interactive workshop for freshmen leaders on the campus of Texas A&M that revolved around reality TV shows and their participants, while showcasing characteristics from three leader focused theories (style, trait and skill—Northouse, 2005).

Reality TV was selected as our medium of choice because students are able to witness leadership in a more "real-world" setting since the participants on the TV show are portraying themselves in a "real-life" setting (or, as close to real-life as one can get when cameras and crew people are around all the time).

Learner objectives for the workshop are as listed:

- After completion of this workshop at the Freshmen Leadership Development Retreat, the learner will be able to:
    o Identify skills, traits, and styles that leaders portray.
    o Participate in knowledgeable group discussion and a skills builder activity that portrays that leader's skills can be developed through practice.
    o Recognize and differentiate between the types of leadership styles.
    o Develop basic knowledge of leader-focused leadership theories.

Background

Popular media's popularity continues to increase in education, particularly in teaching leadership. One of the reasons the use of popular media is effective in teaching leadership is the fact that learners are able to understand complex issues through the stories used in different mediums (Hamilton, 2003).

Callahan and Rosser (2005) state, "Popular culture artifacts are ideal for teaching leadership because they allow learners to both identify with current trends and process concepts by using tools that capture their interest" (¶ 2). (Popular culture artifacts include novels, non-fiction stories, TV and movies. Callahan and Rosser, 2005).

Callahan and Rosser (2005) also discuss that by using stories from popular media, learners are better able to handle situations that may not normally arise. Because of the stories from popular media, the learners have different lenses with which to view problems and situations.

How it Works

Participants in the Freshman Leadership Development Retreat will be introduced to the leader focused theories through Reality Television. All aspects of the program are highly interactive and give students the opportunity to share ideas.

Throughout the workshop, the participants are continuously engaged through viewing TV clips, discussion with others and completing the assessments and tasks. According to Callahan and Rosser (2005), using popular media to teach leadership theory allows participants to take ownership of what they are learning.

<div align="center">Agenda of the Program:</div>

- An ice breaker using popular media advertising introduces the group to the influence of the media and prepares the students for the upcoming lesson.
- Style Approach
    a. All students answer the Leadership Style Questionnaire to be implemented later in the program.
    b. Introducing Blake and Mouton's leadership theory through power point presentation.
    c. Using reality television to teach Blake and Mouton's leadership theory. Short clips from "The Apprentice" are shown to highlight three different leadership styles of contestants on the show. Discussion of leadership styles will follow each clip shown.
    d. Revealing of Blake and Mouton's managerial grid and plotting the characters on the grid. Students will plot themselves on the grid based on the questionnaire.
    e. Discussion of Blake and Mouton's managerial grid and personal leadership styles.
- Trait Approach
    a. Each student will draw his/her ideal leader on a sheet of blank paper.
    b. Small group discussion/writing of leadership traits on easel paper.
    c. Class discussion on what traits do leaders have and why do we think that leaders have these traits
    d. Pictures of winners of reality television shows. Most of the winners will not look like the drawings done by the students.
- Skills Approach
    a. Introducing the skills approach through a power point presentation.
    b. Using reality television to teach the skills leadership theory. Short clips from "Survivor" are shown to highlight the skills sets of leaders on the show.
    c. Discussion of leadership skills will follow each clip shown.
    d. Students will individually create a paper airplane. A contest is held to see whose airplane flies the farthest. Facilitators will teach the entire class how to make a paper airplane that flies far. Students learn that skills can be developed.
    e. Discussion of skills and how they can be developed through time and practice.
- Class wrap-up
- Evaluation form

<div align="center">Results</div>

The participants at the Leadership Development Retreat master the concepts of leader focused theories through the use of reality television. During the initial teaching of this program, participants were asked to plot their own leadership styles on the Blake and Mouton managerial grid. The majority of leadership styles fell near the "Middle of the Road". However, one participant was off the chart on task orientation. The program requires no previous knowledge of the leader focused theories and creates a fun opportunity for participants to learn.

Reality television teaches students from a perspective of popular media that is unlike any other. Characters on reality television shows are playing themselves which allows students to see leadership through "real" people.

The reviewers of the program enjoyed the engagement of the participants. They noticed the high level of discussion upon viewing the clips and discovery of where they scored on the managerial grid. Comparing to other workshops that day, the reviewers noted that this workshop allowed for maximum engagement between participants and the popular media.

Conclusions/Recommendations

In conclusion, we feel that using an interactive popular media format, especially reality TV, helps the learner better relate to and identify different leadership theories and see how the theories interact with one another in real life.

We encourage educators to try various popular mediums when teaching leadership since it helps give students perspective when learning about leadership.

Points to consider when using reality TV include keeping up with current seasons of whatever show you are using in order to keep students captivated. Also, be aware that technology, while useful, has kinks that can sabotage your lecture/presentation. A tip is to always have a back-up of the media, especially if you embed video or TV clips in your PowerPoint presentation.

With all the reality TV shows on television today, this can be a fun and interesting way to spice up theory lectures. Have fun with it and try something new!

References

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Leadership In Action, A Multi-State Leadership Development Program for College Students

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Introduction
Overall proposal purpose
In this paper and conference presentation, members of a tri-state team who developed an innovative and collaborative undergraduate leadership program, funded by a USDA Higher Education Challenge Grant, will describe the program's progress to date. In summary, Colleges of Agriculture at the University of Illinois, Purdue University and the University of Wisconsin-Madison are jointly seeking to develop the leadership knowledge and skills among students participating in a 21 month personal development program. Additionally, students will further develop their leadership knowledge and skills by implementing a train the trainer model, with the intent that the participating students will be able to facilitate leadership training and development for peers on their respective campuses.
Overall project purpose
The purpose of our Undergraduate Leadership Development Program (named "Leadership In Action" by participants) is threefold: (1) create learning modules on leadership competencies and make them available to other food and agricultural institutions to assist in developing student leadership initiatives on their campuses; (2) increase the leadership development opportunities for students enrolled at the three participating institutions; (3) evaluate the effectiveness of our learning modules and overall program by assessing the cohort students' growth in leadership competencies during their participation in the program.
Specific goals
1. Develop 16 learning modules related to personal, interpersonal, group, organizational and societal leadership skills for undergraduate students in food and agricultural sciences programs. Modules are being designed for use in both courses and in experiential learning settings outside the classroom.
2. Test and refine the learning modules by teaching 3 student cohort groups, each cohort including 10 students each from the University of Illinois, Purdue University, and the University of Wisconsin-Madison.
3. Develop materials and methods to train the cohort students in facilitation skills so they are able to teach the learning modules to peers on their respective campuses.
4. Assist the cohort students in developing and carrying out capstone learning experiences that will allow them to integrate, apply, reflect upon, and document personal growth that occurred during the project.
5. Identify or develop, and utilize, assessment tools to measure growth among cohort students in various leadership competencies.

6. Develop a model that is adaptable for faculty and administrators in widely varying food and agricultural science institutions and settings. Disseminate this model and the 16 learning modules for broad use.

How we are funded

In the Spring of 2005, the tri-state group collaborated on this proposal which we sent to the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Higher Education Challenge Grants Program. Please view the CSREES website for an abstract of our project: http://cris.csrees.usda.gov/cgibin/starfinder/0?path=fastlink1.txt&id=anon&pass=&search=R=21312&format=WEBLINK . For this project, an agreement was made that Purdue and Wisconsin would serve as subcontractors on the award, and Illinois would be the lead funding recipient.

Background

Inception of project idea and relative value to the campuses

In a meeting of associate deans from the three campuses, they realized that each campus was actively involved in developing leadership programs. They began to discuss the value in collaborating on a project that would advance the objectives the colleges had in common. One particular belief we shared was that leadership development is beneficial for *all* students. As a result, we sought to create a program that would expand the leadership development opportunities of all students, rather than focusing on further developing our "positional" student leaders.

Unique campus contexts

The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

The *University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign* implemented a student leadership development initiative in 1999. This initiative, Illinois Leadership [TM] was influenced by many perspectives, including *Leadership in the Making: Impacts and Insights from Leadership Development Programs in U. S. Colleges and Universities* (W.K Kellogg Foundation, 1999). "Finding a more effective means for developing the leadership talents of America's young adults requires not only that new methods of teaching critical leadership skills be devised, but also that the notion of leadership itself be broadened," the report states. "And rather than focusing solely on those who hold traditionally recognized positions of leadership, we must broaden our notion of who is a leader so many more Americans are empowered and able to lead in the future."

The Illinois Leadership [TM] initiative (http://www.illinoisleadership.uiuc.edu/) is built upon a theoretical foundation, and identifies specific skills and attributes that serve as the focus of all activities and programming. A campus Leadership Center was opened in 2002 to coordinate all aspects of the initiative. The initiative is a partnership sponsored jointly between the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs and the Vice Chancellor of Student Affairs.

Although the College of Agricultural, Consumer and Environmental Sciences (ACES) initiatives, such as Leadership In Action, often function independently of the Illinois Leadership Center, a strong partnership does exist. The College of ACES is recognized as one of the leaders in leadership on campus, and Assistant Dean Charles Olson (PI for this project) serves as co-chair of the campus's Leadership Coordinating Committee. As a result of this connection to the Illinois Leadership Center, the Illinois Leadership Center is seen as a resource and potential venue for the implementation of Leadership In Action.

The initial cohort at Illinois is now half-way through their experience, and preparations are being made for the second cohort. Illinois students have had the opportunity to present teambuilding modules to Fall, 2006 ACES 100 courses, and they have also been invited to work

with other student groups in the College of ACES. They are encouraged to be self-directed in their efforts and interests, and they will have hand in making decisions about how the first and second cohorts will work together on campus. As a result of the campus leadership initiative, students are also encouraged (but not required) to take academic leadership courses, pursue the Illinois Leadership Certificate of Completion, and to take advantage of other leadership development workshops, retreats, and seminars.

Purdue University

Purdue University's College of Agriculture initiated planning for a Leadership Development Certificate Program at the initial encouragement of the Dean's Advisory Council and in response to employers of College of Agriculture graduates who frequently stated that students with leadership skills and experiences are most desirable in today's changing environment. Based upon these comments, a group of Purdue faculty began exploring the potential for a type of leadership development learning experience for undergraduate students in Purdue University's College of Agriculture. The discussion led to a one day focus group during the spring of 2004 utilizing a group of 20 leadership exemplars from Indiana representing communities and industry to develop outcomes and expectations for a student-oriented leadership development program. From the one-day focus group it was clearly articulated the need for graduates of the College of Agriculture to have leadership skills, improved interpersonal and communication skills, flexibility, commitment to business, and to be a team player.

From these discussions and deliberations, the Purdue University College of Agriculture's Leadership Development Certificate Program was created in 2005 as a joint venture between several departments within the Purdue University College of Agriculture and supported by the Office of Academic Programs. The program created has a specific purpose to prepare students for the workforce by responding to direct feedback form employers, alumni, and recent graduates through structured leadership experiences. The program also has the mission to assist more students intentionally plan their leadership journey at an earlier time and to increase the number of students engaged in leadership development, especially those who may not view him or herself as a leader.

The University of Wisconsin-Madison

The College of Agricultural and Life Sciences at the *University of Wisconsin-Madison* began creating a decentralized leadership program in 2003. Widespread support for building a program emerged from a diverse group of faculty and staff in departments ranging from Genetics to Soil Science, Forest Ecology to Bacteriology, and Food Science to the College's social science departments. Faculty and staff were already incorporating various facets of leadership education into the departmental curriculum and into the activities of the department-based student organizations, but undergraduate students were hungry for more opportunities to hone their leadership skills. Operating primarily through the Student Council's leadership, students obtained financial support from segregated fees for leadership retreats and student organization leadership education. Their prompting encouraged the College to offer a leadership seminar, to develop a College Leadership Certificate, and to engage in this collaborative grant.

Because the College's leadership program is decentralized, it is not based on a single theoretical model of leadership. Instead, it is based in the lived experiences of successful faculty and staff in the College who are recognized as national and international leaders in their fields. Further development of the leadership program is one of the main objectives in the "Advance Learning" component of the College's Strategic Plan. The College chose to engage in this grant

because (1) we believed it would expand the opportunities students have to learn about and experience leadership, and (2) because it is based on a "train the trainer" idea, we believed it had the potential to disseminate leadership learning to hundreds more students beyond those who actually participated in the program.

How the project works
Overall cohort idea and plan for student engagement

Cohorts of 10 students from each of the three participating campuses are selected to participate in the 21 month program. Students selected are starting their sophomore or junior year, and a variety of approaches are taken for recruiting students to the program. In some cases, students are "hand picked" based on their potential and encouraged to apply, others are encouraged to apply by advisors, faculty or peers, and others respond to general calls for applications. Each cohort group convenes together 5 times during the project, beginning with a session in Chicago, then one session on each of the three campuses, and a second session in Chicago at the end of the program. At these sessions, modules on leadership development (topics on personal, organizational, and community development) are taught; leadership exercises are conducted; and outside speakers and resources are used for the cohort to experience the meaning of leadership in a variety of settings. Overall, the time students are in the program spans 4 academic semesters.

During the three semesters following the initial Chicago session, students are expected to teach the leadership modules to groups of students on their campus. A faculty/staff member on each campus serves as a coach to the students for the continued training and delivery of the module content for these sessions. Cohort students are also encouraged to take an academic course related to leadership, when possible, or to participate in other leadership-related programs, such as conferences or workshops.

During the third semester of the student's participation in the project, they will be enrolled in an independent study course, lead by a faculty/staff member that will allow them (either as an individual, or as a group) to conduct an end-of-project (capstone) experience. This capstone project, with a specifically stated ending goal, will allow each cohort member to utilize, observe, and reflect on leadership skills in action that contributed to the end result of the project.

16 modules and assessing students' learning

These are the leadership topics chosen as content for the learning modules. See appendix for sample module.

Nature of leadership	Understanding differences
Gaining self awareness	Problem solving & decision making
Listening and speaking clearly	Building relationships
Team dynamics	Strategic planning
Involving others	Creating change
Understanding values and character	Understanding organizations
Ethics	Project management
Civic responsibility	Conflict management

A self-report assessment with questions aligned to the learning objectives for each of our 16 learning modules was developed and each student will be asked to complete it at the beginning of the program and retrospectively at the end of the program. We seek to understand

students' growth during their 21 month experience in the program and intend to analyze the data we collect to see if there are significant changes from the beginning to the end.

Pilot group before receiving grant

In May of 2005, just before our grant funding began, we decided to test our initial Chicago conference to determine the answers to a few questions. Were the learning modules interesting and in depth enough for the students to learn something substantive? Would the students have fun? Would the timing of our agenda be right? What suggestions would they have for making the conference better?

Eleven students from Wisconsin, ten from Purdue and nine from Illinois participated. See appended agenda from May 2005. Students said they learned a lot about the content from the modules we taught, including teamwork and communication, and that it was great to meet students from other universities and hear new perspectives. They told us that having more social time, more community speakers and going into more depth on the topics would be substantial improvements.

The first cohort, beginning May 2006

We took much of the pilot group's advice, and made some revisions to the kick-off conference in May. The biggest change was that we added a significant service activity and initial assessment, and extended the conference from 2 days to 3. The five modules taught included: the nature of leadership, understanding difference, team dynamics, gaining self awareness, and listening and speaking clearly. See appended agenda.

Returning to campus in the Fall of 2006 we continued to engage the student participants. There has been some initial workshop delivery; the Illinois group delivered workshops to 27 sections of their freshman seminar class. The Wisconsin and Purdue students have not been quite as ambitious but they also have gotten their feet wet conducting a few workshops.

In November, the cohort met for the second time at Purdue University. Evaluations were positive and the three modules delivered were: understanding values and character, building relationships, and problem solving and decision making. Students have continued their engagement with one another on their home campuses and Wisconsin is in the midst of planning the group's third meeting in April. The topics to be taught at Wisconsin include: ethics, understanding organizations and conflict management.

Results to date

Successes

The tri-state planning team has already seen a number of positive outcomes from our grant-related efforts. They include:

- Relationships among students are strong, across and within campuses. Students seem to enjoy the chance to get to know students they would not otherwise have come to know, whether that is because they are from different majors or from different universities.
- Student evaluations of the conferences are extremely positive. They enjoy the collaborative nature of this grant and claim they are learning a great deal about their own leadership development.
- Students' energy after conferences has raised a campus "buzz" about leadership.
- Service related projects in Chicago were extremely well-received by students and local community participants.

- There are positive, successful working relationships among the coordinators from participating campuses.
- Interest has been generated in the Colleges about the program, what current students can offer, and how other students can become involved.
- Students are taking on positional leadership roles within their college student organizations.

Challenges

Despite the successes, we have identified several challenges that we will be working on during the remainder of the grant:

- Students are hesitant to dive into the "train the trainer" component. Some are not confident in their facilitation skills, others are not confident that they have the content knowledge required to successfully lead their peers in discussion. Some are nervous that they will be asked questions for which they will not have a response. Regardless of the reason, students are not facilitating workshops on their respective campuses at the rate we had hoped. As a result, we may include more intentional training and conversations on how to lead and facilitate workshops.
- Despite reasonably extensive marketing efforts at Purdue, there has not been an influx of requests asking the LIA students to lead workshops for other student groups. Illinois and Wisconsin have done a bit less marketing, being somewhat unsure of where and how to market, and are therefore, uncertain about the demand for their service. The limited marketing which has been done at Illinois and Wisconsin has not provided much fruit.
- The coordinators from the 3 campuses have spent a great deal of time and effort developing the learning modules and formatting them in a way that we thought the students could pick up and use. Instead, in the workshops the students have done, they have mostly reworked the entire module, picking pieces and leaving others. This leaves us to wonder about the possibility of incorporating "pick-and-choose" portions into the modules so that students have an easier time taking what they have learned and sharing it in formats that are different across campus.
- Because the participating schools have very different schedules, the timing of our kick off conference in Chicago has been difficult. It has caused at least one school to feel limited in who will choose to participate because choosing LIA means forgoing significant internship or study abroad experiences.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Issues we are wrestling with

One issue is that we only have a finite amount of time with the students and are struggling a bit to decide whether to focus on the students' personal development or on their abilities to serve in the "train the trainer" capacity. Both were objectives outlined in the grant but both may not be feasible if we wish to do them well.

A second issue is that our respective campuses share many similar goals for our leadership education programs, and we hoped that this project would further these leadership program goals. We have not yet determined whether this grant is accomplishing respective campus goals, and it is possible that we will find it has advanced goals at one or two institutions but not at the other/s.

One important question looms: Will we continue past the time of the grant? If so, how will we fund our programs? We have enough funding to see through most of cohort 2, but we will need some additional funds for that group and it begs the question of whether or not to continue past the grant funding.

In conclusion, it may be a bit premature for our group to offer recommendations. So far, we can conclude the following: students appreciate the opportunity to learn about leadership; our participants like meeting with students from other schools; the topics we have presented thus far seem to stimulate the students; it is unclear whether our train the trainer model will develop as we had hoped; it remains to be seen whether this program makes a longitudinal difference in students' learning; and we have yet to determine whether this tri-state program is furthering our respective institutional goals in the ways that we had hoped.

Addenda/Attachments
May 2005 agenda
May 2006 agenda
Sample module (separate attachment)

Chicago Leadership Workshop
Purdue University – University of Illinois – University of Wisconsin-Madison

May 17-18, 2005
Illini Center, 200 S. Wacker Drive, Chicago

Workshop Objectives
- Create a learning experience in leadership development for students in Ag. & Life Sciences from three Midwestern universities
- Develop competencies in leadership, communication skills and team building.
- Learn how to lead leadership development workshops with student organizations.
- Develop a team from each state to be able to deliver leadership workshops with student organizations in home university.

AGENDA

Tuesday, May 17

Attire for Day – Comfortable dress – jeans, t-shirts ok

7-8:00 am	Depart respective universities; walk to Illini Center – bring bags to Cnter
11:00	Meet in Orange and Blue Room, First Floor, Illini Center
	Welcome – Dr. Chuck Olson, University of Illinois
	Welcome to Chicago – Mr. Brian Moeller, Univ. of IL Class of 1981 in Agricultural Sciences, Vice President of Agribusiness Group, Harris Bank
	Review Agenda, Workshop Goals – Dr. Olson
11:30	Introductory Ice Breaker – Ms. Christina Klawitter, University of Wisconsin-Madison
Noon	Lunch at Illini Center (pizza and salads)
12:45 pm	What are the Components of a Workshop? – Ms. Klawitter
1:00	Workshop I – *What is Leadership*? Dr. Janet Ayres, Purdue University
2:00	Questions/Comments on Leading Workshop I – Dr. Ayres
2:15	Break
2:30	Workshop II – *Communication Skills for Leaders* – Ms. Tracie Egger, Purdue University
3:30	Questions/Comments on Leading this Workshop – Ms. Egger
3:50	Review of Evening Activities – Dr. Olson
4:00	Adjourn
	Walk back to hotel to check in; change clothes
	Club Quarters Hotel, 312-214-6400
	Attire for Evening – Casual Business – dress slacks/polo shirts; skirts or slacks ok. No jeans, shorts, t-shirts.
5:30	Meet in lobby to travel to restaurant
6:00	Dinner at Ann Sather Restaurant, 929 W. Belmont (773-348-2378)
	Speaker – Tom Tunney, College of Agriculture graduate (U of I) in Restaurant Management; President and owner of Thomas G. Tunney Enterprises; City of Chicago Alderman
	Walk to Millennium Park, free time

Wednesday, May 18

	Attire for day – same as Tuesday daytime
7:30 am	Check out of hotel; walk to Illini Center with bags
8:00	Breakfast at Illini Center – Orange and Blue Room
8:30	Workshop III – *Team Building* – Ms. Klawitter
10:15	Questions/Comments on Leading Workshop III – Ms. Klawitter
10:30	Break
10:45	How to Prepare for Leading a Workshop – Ms. Klawitter
11:30	Lunch
12:15 pm	State Meetings – Go to 39th Floor
1:15	Report back and Full Group Discussion – Ms. Egger
2:00	Break
2:15	Small Group Discussions on Possible Multi-State Activities
2:45	Report Back and Full Group Discussion – Dr. Olson
3:15	Evaluation – Dr. Ayres
3:45	Wrap-Up – Dr. Olson
4:00	Adjourn
	Head home; dinner en route
8:00	Arrive at university (approximate time)

Agenda
May 15 - 17, 2006 Workshop
Illini Center, Chicago, Illinois

Monday, May 15
10:00 am	Arrive in Chicago at Illini Center
10:15 am	Welcome, Introductory Comments & Assessment Instructions First Floor Illini Center
10:45 am	Introductory Ice Breaker
11:30 am	Lunch
12:00 noon	Module #1 - "What is Leadership?" (Ayres)
1:00 pm	Break
1:15 pm	Module #2 - "Gaining Self-Awareness" (Klawitter)
3:30 pm	Break
4:00 pm	Introduction to Experiential Event
5:30 pm	Check into Hotel
6:00 pm	Dinner with Evening Activity

Tuesday, May 16
7:30 am	Breakfast at Illini Center
8:00 am	Module #3 - "Understanding Differences" (Lorensen)
9:15 am	Break
9:30 am	Module #4 - "Communication: Listening & Speaking" (Klatt)
11:00 am - 5:00 pm	Experiential Event in Uptown District & Debriefing

Evening Event - To Be Determined

Wednesday, May 17
8:00 am	Breakfast at Illini Center
8:30 am	Module #5 - "Team Building: Team Dynamics" (Ortega)
10:00 am	Break
10:15am	"How to Do a Workshop" (Klawitter)
11:45 am	Lunch and State Meeting
12:45 pm	Reconvene and Closing
1:30 pm	Departure

Using Book Discussion Groups as a Supplement to the Leadership Classroom

Marianne Lorensen, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Background

When I first began teaching at the University of Illinois during the Fall, 2005 semester, I was quickly approached by students who wanted to earn honors credit in my course: Introduction to Leadership Studies. At the University, students and their instructors complete Honors Credit Learning Agreements which allow honors program students to receive honors credit in some of their courses. The learning agreements typically specify the expectations that need to be met in order for honors credit to be awarded. Some instructors have a set menu of options which they provide to students, and others help students construct independent projects which address an area of interest and connect to course content. Being new to the University and also a proponent of self-directed projects, I decided to meet with interested students individually and help them design a project that would best meet their needs.

Often, these honors projects would include things like exploring additional literature in order to expound on a topic covered in the course (basic leadership theory) and then writing a paper; or exploring a leadership concept not covered in class and presenting the information to their classmates. These projects seemed to work well but did pose challenges of additional grading and trying to determine the value of the experience for the student and the learning that occurred. Coincidentally, during that same year, I had the opportunity to participate in book discussion groups with other faculty in my college. We focused our discussions on books which helped us to consider how to be more effective educators of college students. As someone who has always enjoyed reading, I found that I benefited from the books and the opportunity to discuss them with others. Following that train of thought, I began to wonder if a book discussion group would be an effective strategy for helping college students learn about leadership.

How it Works

At the beginning of the Fall, 2006 semester, I offered the opportunity of a book discussion group to my students in AGED 260: Introduction to Leadership Studies. Initially, I offered it as an honors credit opportunity only. That generated some interest, but not enough (in my opinion) to form a group. I decided to extend the opportunity to those students interested in receiving bonus credit. In my class, although there are several ways to earn bonus credit, the maximum bonus credit that can be received is 50 points. I determined that I would be willing to offer up to 40 points of bonus credit for participation in the reading discussion group. I asked interested students to let me know their intent by a specified date, and then we moved forward to determine a schedule. Once the opportunity was extended to a wider spectrum of students, the response was greater than anticipated. We ended up with enough interested students to run two groups that semester as well as in the Spring, 2007 semester.

The book I selected for the discussion group was Michael Useem's *The Leadership Moment*. There were several reasons this book stood out as a good choice. First, it provides a variety of real-life examples in leadership. With theories courses in particular, I find that this is sometimes a missing piece for many students. The concept might be somewhat understandable but is often not easily applicable. My hope was that Useem's book would help students to see the application more readily and be able to make connections to classroom learning. Secondly, *The Leadership Moment* is a fairly easy read. It is divided into nine chapters, each with a different story, and is not highly academic. Therefore, I believed it would be something manageable for college students that would perhaps be more appealing and "fun" than a typical college textbook. Third, the length of the book and the way in which it is structured make it possible to get through it in weekly meetings without taking up the entire semester—so there is room at the start of the semester to get organized and room at the end to wrap up before students become too immersed in final projects, papers, and exams.

I decided at the outset that I did not want to have more students in the discussion group than there were chapters in the book. My primary concern was making sure that the group size was conducive to discussion without being overwhelming. I wanted everyone to have the chance to participate equally, and I did not want students thinking that could sit back, disengage, and still get credit even though they were not full participants. I had also determined that, although I expected everyone to be fully prepared at each session, I wanted each student to have a turn as the discussion leader for the chapter/meeting of their choosing. This meant that they would accept responsibility for keeping the discussion moving (using questions, though-provoking statements or observations, etc.) if it were to stall out.

Once I had heard from all interested students, I suggested potential meeting times based on my availability. We ended up being able to organize two groups and accommodate everyone who was interested. In the fall, one group met Thursdays over lunch (in between the two sections of my course), and one group met Thursdays over dinner. Each weekly meeting lasted between 45-60 minutes, depending on when it took place. We met for a total of nine weeks, and we were able to use open classrooms and/or offices in my building as our regular location(s). In the spring, we ended up with a lunch group on Thursdays (again between the two sections of the course) and a dinner group on Tuesdays. One change implemented in the spring was the addition of a tenth meeting so that our first meeting could focus on expectations and on the book's introduction. This allowed us to get to know one another and establish a rapport before delving into the main part of the book.

Results to Date

At the end of the Fall, 2006 semester, participating students were asked for their feedback on the book discussion groups. They were asked the following questions:

- Why did you participate in the book discussion group?
- Did you receive honors credit or bonus credit for your participation?
- What was your overall impression of the book, The Leadership Moment?
- What was your overall impression of the book discussion group?
- What did you enjoy most about the experience?
- What would you change? (feel free to include suggestions for how to change)
- Do you believe that the book discussion group helped you better understand the contents of AGED 260 (or vice versa)?

Response to the questions was optional. Of the 13 students who participated, fewer than half received honors credit. The majority received bonus credit. Eight responded to the questions, and their feedback was overwhelmingly positive. They also had some good ideas for improvement (such as the aforementioned additional meeting to give participants time to get to know one another). Some of the comments included:

I truly enjoyed the group. It was a great outlet to have quality discussion on leadership. It was nice to get to know a few more students. I was impressed by everyone's participation and insight to the chapters. I t was great to see things from several other viewpoints- ideas and thoughts that I never would have come up with myself.

I really enjoyed the opportunity to have each student lead, as this opened up the discussion and made it a community to learn together.

At first I was a little leery about the book being solely biography based but I quickly grew to enjoy the specifics. I found the stories very entertaining and something to aspire to. I liked the fact that leadership theories were implicated and shared by means of real-life experiences.

I was able to get involved with a class besides simply showing up for lecture each day. The book discussion group made the entire class seem more personable which is extremely hard to find at a university of this size.

There were several times when completing a reflection/discussion paper or in the midst of a mini-test, a discussion we had in the group popped into my head and helped my answer the question. I felt the group was a great study tool to further explain the topics we were currently discussing in class.

I really enjoyed being able to express my own personal opinions and experiences, as well as the small group setting, something that's becoming rare in college today.

Yes, the concepts from the leadership moment often directly correlated to what we were learning in class.

Yes, often I felt we made connections to class unintentionally. Which was great to reinforce knowledge or clarify a concept I did not fully grasp. It was nice to apply the chapters to what we studied in a less format setting. This also made me feel, wow this information is more relevant than I thought, great.

Yes, a lot. Many times I find myself relating the stories to the theories we are reading that week. It helps me understand and think more about how the theory works.

Although the Spring, 2007 discussion groups are still in progress, I anticipate another mix of positive feedback and constructive suggestions at its conclusion.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The book discussion groups, in my estimation, have proven to be successful. The main positive outcomes include increased faculty/student interaction, the chance to examine practical application of leadership theory, and an increased understanding of leadership theory. It is generally well-received by students and also provides a unique way for them to earn credit.

Some challenges include the need for additional time investment on the part of the instructor, the issue of how to handle any missed meetings of the discussion group, and how to decide upon and obtain the book(s) that will be used. Every instructor will have different options available to address these challenges and may make a variety of choices in doing so. As for the discussion groups at the University of Illinois, one of my next priorities is to investigate other books that could be used. While I think *The Leadership Moment* is an excellent selection for this type of experience, I know there could also be others. For a time, I considered Gardner's *Leading Minds* but concluded that it does not correspond well with a 200-level undergraduate course. The main concern for me is to continue with books that provide attainable case studies which my students can understand and relate to. For courses other than those focused on leadership theory, it would make sense that other texts (non-case study) could also be useful. Which book selection will add value to the classroom learning will depend on the focus and level of the course to which the book discussion group is being connected.

Service learning as a tool for Capacity Development in Rural Nova Scotia
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Introduction

In many parts of Canada and the world, a substantial disparity exists in economic and social development between urban and rural communities. Although there is considerable variation, most small communities beyond commuting distance from a large urban centre are struggling with developing a new social and economic identity beyond the resource-based economy. Brain drain is the term applied to the loss of skilled labor to greener pastures (Mahroum, 2000). As skilled people leave, so do community leaders, the tax base, jobs, and the infrastructure that sustains a community (Fellegi, 1996).

Rural revitalization efforts are often thwarted by the fact that service and infrastructure policy is developed without local input. Macro-level decisions are often made in isolation of each other and without examining their cumulative effects on rural communities. At the level of the community, the determinants that affect people's health and the health of their community are intertwined. At the level of provincial and federal governments, these determinants are streamlined into separate sectors. There are few concrete mechanisms whereby residents of rural communities can provide input into the development of policies that directly affect their sustainability. When these opportunities are provided, rural communities often do not have the capacity to use evidence (e.g., research that clarifies issues and that predicts the potential impact of decisions on rural development) to support their position.

Post-secondary educators must be concerned with the development of capacity within individuals (students) and organizations (the institution) to contribute to increasing the community capacity necessary to address the many and complex problems that society faces. Canada is in the midst of a resurgence of interest in education as a vehicle for developing engaged citizens. In the post-secondary sector, in addition to Canadian institutions explicitly referring to educating citizens in their mission statements and/or stated learning objectives, there is a growing interest and commitment to developing research agendas and both co-curricular programs and academic courses that have objectives related to developing and sustaining civic commitment. The creation of the Community University Research Alliance program and the newly established Canadian Association for Community Service-Learning are but two demonstrations of the burgeoning interest in providing and supporting meaningful opportunities for campuses to develop policies and practices which encourage an actively engaged civic commitment in their students, staff, faculty and alumni.

To counter the depletion of human resources required to sustain rural communities a major research project was undertaken by a partnership between Dalhousie University's Atlantic Health Promotion Research Centre and the Nova Scotia Coastal Communities Network. The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of student engagement in service learning to increase the capacity of rural organizations to influence and to develop policy that contributes to the health and sustainability of rural communities.

Literature Review

Civic commitment has become a set of skills, knowledge, values and motivations that many need to systematically, and consciously learn in order that this fundamental cornerstone of a democratic and just society not be lost to us. (Colby, et al. 2003)

There is a renewed interest in educating university students for civic commitment. There are multiple definitions and a variety of ways of understanding civic commitment and/or citizenship, most in agreement to some extent that these concepts concern the fundamental ways in which citizens are actively involved in the democratic functioning of their communities.

This is not altogether a new concept in North America. Universities have traditionally been involved to some extent in their communities with one of the main traditional outcomes of post-secondary education being the positive contribution it makes to building human capital in community populations. (Bringle, Games, Malloy. 1999)

Developing the capacity of Canadian university students and post-secondary institutions to contribute positively to serious challenges that pervade the communities within which they exist could be an excellent method of community improvement. The community building framework developed by Robert Chaskin (2001) proposes four major strategies for building community capacity, leadership development, organisational development, community organizing, and collaborative relations among organisations. The framework recognizes that contextual circumstances that may help or hinder community capacity and efforts to build it. Specific goals that have a direct impact at the community level are a significant component of capacity building.

Development of leadership skills and attitudes can contribute to positive change in communities needs. The term 'civic leadership' has been used to describe going, "beyond the skills of one person to functions that people, families, communities, and even nations can exhibit. Civic leadership is about collective action, public will, and community" (Morse, 1989, p.47) Further to this, "young potential leaders must be able to see how whole systems function and how interaction with neighboring systems may be constructively managed." (Gardner, 1990, p. 159).

Community service-learning (CSL) has been identified as one strategy with real potential for encouraging civic leadership development through involvement in intentionally designed service experiences where powerful learning occurs, benefiting both students and community partners. (Eyler and Giles, 1999) It has also demonstrated positive outcomes in terms of increased sense of purpose and relevance for involved faculty and for post-secondary institutions that support these initiatives. (Jacoby, 1996) Known by a variety of terms (community service-learning, service learning, community-based education), this learning strategy has generally agreed upon key concepts that are highlighted in this definition provided by authors Eyler and Giles (1999):

> "Service-learning is a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students work with others through a process of applying what they are learning to community problems and, at the same time, reflecting upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves. " (p.3)

This study explores the contribution of student interns as participants in projects designed to impact policy to benefit rural communities in Nova Scotia of student interns

Methods

The Nova Scotia Coastal Communities Network is a non-profit, province-wide organization comprising 220 rural community organizations. It was established in 1992 with a mandate to encourage dialogue, share information, and develop strategies and action plans to promote the survival and development of rural communities. The Coastal Communities Network works with community organizations and university partners to develop and implement strategies for communities to develop and influence policy. The Atlantic Health Promotion Research Centre is a collaborative effort of the three health sciences faculties at Dalhousie University (Medicine, Health Professions and Dentistry) and the Provincial Departments of Health in the Atlantic region. The Centre has a strong focus on moving research to action in Atlantic Canada. The Centre has provided leadership on the organization, analysis, and synthesis of collections of research studies for policy and practice (e.g., *Research to Action: Working Together for the Integration of Canadians with Disabilities Forum*, May 1999). The Centre involves students from health and social sciences disciplines as interns and research assistants, in postdoctoral training, in independent studies and thesis work.

Intern training:
The student interns were involved in a 16 week internship program in rural policy and other development issues developed for undergraduate and graduate students, involving university faculty and community organizations. Students then put knowledge into practice, used research for problem-solving, communicated results in understandable and practical ways, and gained greater understanding of community development processes. They were involved in research synthesis, research projects, rural community diagnostics, and the development of strategies to influence policy. The program for the student internships evolved over four years with improvements being made based on annual evaluations. The components of the final program that evolved consisted of meeting with community partners, student training, a mid point assessment, data analysis and write up and a wrap up meeting with interns partners and staff.
The desired outcomes were ambitious and were designed to lead to better understanding about issues affecting life in rural communities; improved research skills in qualitative and quantitative methods, including collecting, analyzing and reporting; knowledge about conducting ethical research; knowledge about secondary data sources; understanding the impact of public policies on rural communities; developing policy change strategies; using social science research to influence and develop policy; developing a work plan; finding and using community resources; communications skills, i.e. interviewing, facilitation, focus groups; making public presentations; and working with community groups.

Projects
Interns were paired with a community-based sponsor who provided guidance and support through the internship. The research work the interns were carrying out was intended to be relevant to the work of the sponsoring organization. Projects included:
- Woods Harbour Women's Resource Center - Barriers to Coastal Women Attaining Economic Self-Sufficiency
- Coastal Communities Network - Policy Issues Pertaining to Nova Scotia's Rural Black Community
- Stan Rogers Folk Festival - Social, Cultural, and Economic Effects of a Local Cultural Festival
- Mabou and District Development Association - Impact of Rural School Closures
- *Coastal Area Management,* of interest to communities and municipal governments as a way of sharing experiences and best practices in coastal area management.
- *Healthy and Sustainable Community Development,* -developing a comprehensive understanding of and an integrated approach for community groups involved in social, economic, environmental and cultural development across the province.
- *Retention of Health Professionals in Rural Communities* involved community profiling and asset mapping based on typical community indicators, such as income and population, and indicators of health disparity to identify ways that communities can make themselves more welcoming places for health professionals and others. Outcomes of the research include a "menu" of 'community environment' retention options for the particular region.

Methods
At the conclusion of each internship, questionnaires were administered to examine the impact the impact the research program had on the participating students. The questions asked were:

Working in Rural communities
Were you able to get to know the communities in which you were working?
Did you work on non RCIP related activities in the community?
What motivated you to carry out your work during the internship?
What frustrated you as you carried out your work?
Did you feel like you were working alone or as part of a team**?**

From Theory to practice:
Were you able to apply some of what you learned in your university program during the course of the internship?
What would be the three most important topics you would include if you were to design a course for research interns working in rural communities?
Do you feel you work is credible or valuable? Why or why not?
Did you feel a sense of personal ownership for the work you did?
What were the 2 best things about the internship?
If you could change two things about the internship what would they be?

During the last year of the program Community Partners were asked to comment on the impact of the students interns on their communities

Findings
Typical intern responses to the questions posed are as follows

Working in Rural communities
Were you able to get to know the communities in which you were working?
"Yes, I felt that I thoroughly got to know the small community that I lived in as well as the surrounding ones. They were all very welcoming."
"I knew the community initially, but I got to know it from a much different perspective"
"I knew it pretty well before, but it gave me the opportunity to talk to people and our other nonprofit organizations."
"Yes. Several individuals provided support throughout the summer. I felt invited into many communities because of the work I was doing".

Did you work on non RCIP related activities in the community?
"Yes, I did. I felt it was very positive in giving me a greater appreciation for everything the center was contributing to the community."
"Yes, it was positive. Became familiar with other projects. Participated in community activities. Became quite familiar with policy around the fishery."
"Very positive experience. I attended meetings in other areas of NB that involved rural health. All were extremely positive."

What motivated you to carry out your work during the internship?
"Knowing that I was possibly going to make a positive impact on the community and add to the community's ability to be proactive in their goals."
"I was motivated by my community sponsor, who tried to keep me on my toes. They expected me to be organized an up-to-date."
"Loyalty to association. They'll like social activism. Wanted to help community. I knew that my work was valued and useful."
"This is a thesis topic for me and I had a lot of work completed in this topic during my courses. The topic is near and dear to me. I also enjoy knowing that the research will be used."
"The passion and dedication of the community members, and the overall importance of the goals of the project."
"The people in the communities that I met. I really wanted still want to produce something to help them. They work so hard I would do anything to make their jobs easier."
"I was motivated by the enthusiasm of my project partners. I was also motivated by the hard work of the project participants. They gave their time to meet with me so I felt responsible for completing the work I started."

What frustrated you as you carried out your work?
"I was frustrated about to the ethics proposal. My community sponsor was growing inpatient as well."

"Ethics submission and the delay it cost."

"The politics behind our organization."

"The lack of the community partner that was committed to the project. The lack of the people to help me with simple things like booking venues such and food. The inability to get partners at meetings. The lack of communication on all fronts between partners, academic staff, and even people that wanted to join the project."

"There were some individuals who referred to me as a CFA (come from a way) and treated me with a degree of hostility. This was isolated. Frustration also resulted from focus groups. A lot of effort went into inviting people who often never came out to the meetings."

Did you feel like you were working alone or as part of a team?

"I worked alone, which I like, but I had a chance to meet and exchange with my community partner on a regular basis."

"I felt as part of a team. The work was done alone, but I had support if I needed it."

"The project team had a lot to do with having another project team member in the office - to bounce ideas off of regularly."

Were you able to apply some of what you learned in your university program during the course of the internship?

"Yes, biology and the Law and Politics course I took came in very handy when understanding the issues.

"Certainly, I applied my research skills as well as my writing skills. "

"A lot. It was important to me to implement some of the things I learned during the training session."

"Yes, especially report writing, ethics and creating survey tool."

"Yes. My coursework in policy research methods, and the health care system and population health. It was a great use of my courses, and I learned new things that will benefit me in further courses."

What would be the three most important topics you would include if you were to design a course for research interns working in rural communities?

"Ethics! Communication in Communities."

"Ethical conduct in any interviews and writing. Comparing and conducting data. Data analysis and report writing."

"Ethics. Data analysis, report writing, and how to conduct focus groups and interviews."

"Getting involved with our community and working with your community. Keep the interests of the community upfront."

"Understanding the volunteer community. Qualitative research is the best method. Understanding the audience of rural research findings."

"Conducting active research - what it is/why it's important. Working in communities - what language to use. It's hard to lose the academic speaking/writing style. Using qualitative information: how to work with qualitative data, how to collect, synthesize etc."

Do you feel you work is credible or valuable? Why or why not?

"Yes, I feel as if I was working towards a real goal. It will be valuable for the community because it will add credibility to what the fishermen have been saying so that the fishermen will have the support of the community as well."

"Yes, my work will hopefully let policy makers know the trends happening in rural communities."

"I feel that way and I hope that this is realistic, because I don't want to see this work being useless. I think it is credible, because I documented case studies, which are based on "real-life" experiences of nonprofits."

"Yes. I know that the recommendations, I make will be taken seriously. The women that I interviewed were very interested. Feedback from the association has been all positive."

"I do feel it was valuable, especially since other CHBs and people in the districts are very interested in pushing this further."

"Yes, because the topic is of great interest and a demand for rural communities."

"Yes. It involved a great deal of work. It feels more values and credible knowing the community partners plan on using the out come of this research to advance some of their own policy initiatives."

Did you feel a sense of personal ownership for the work you did?
"I feel a great sense of personal ownership. I know, I spent more than 35 hours a week on this project and I did it because I want to see it succeed."

What were the 2 best things about the internship?
"Meeting new people; learning about policy to a greater extent that I ever imagined; getting valuable experience in an area I would lit to further myself in."

"Learning more about research. Meeting new people. The chance to examine policies."

"The learning and skills development. The people, AHPRC, RCIP, other interns."

"The contacts I made during the course of the internship. The support and training by RCIP."

"I think of the internship is giving back to the community, and that is by far the most important thing. I think it is also teaching the academics of the future value of this research. That alone I change the system to make it more valuable in the future for the academic world."

"Working in the community. Undertaking a qualitative centered research project."

If you could change two things about the internship what would they be?
Being able to interview more people and get more participation. "

"I would have an earlier ethics approval. To have more time to conduct interviews and focus groups. "

To prepare the ethics proposal during the training week.

The ethics submission.

Meetings (updates) were too long. They knew each other's projects well, and they could have been gotten one-on-one for more detailed information.

The timeline. I spent the majority of the summer collecting information. I've spent far less time analyzing data and feel rushed to complete the report.

Comments from Community Partners

"Clear roles and expectations are needed for everyone involved in these policy change projects."
"Appropriate research methods are needed for the specific requirements of each project."
"Community volunteers want to be more involved and support is needed for their participation."
"A balanced approach between the community and university is needed to ensure that the research is community relevant and ethically sound."
"Preparation of proposals for ethics review and approval takes a lot of time."
"The interns spent a lot of time educating people about the projects to gain their participation in the research."
"Time is needed to connect with communities before the work can be done."
"We need to keep working on the issues in the coming months."
"This is time demanding for community partners who are volunteers."
"Interviews in themselves were capacity building for community participants."
"Engage the community at large in this policy change work."
"It takes several things working together at once to impact policy."
"All were satisfied with the internships. The interns were described as flexible, connected and energetic."
"Projects are a work in progress and need further work to follow-up."
"Good communication between community partners, interns and RCIP project staff occurred and was essential."
"Communities connecting with each other is a benefit of these projects."
"Identify do-able tasks and be clear about expectations at the beginning."
"Earlier ethics approval would provide more time for the research and follow-up."

Conclusions

Overall the project was successful in achieving the goals of utilizing student interns to engage the communities involved in policy research and development.

As the program evolved it became apparent that graduate students who had already attained knowledge of sociological research methods were much more effective than interns with little or no similar educational experience.

Service learning is an effective tool to foster leadership development. For it to be effective in benefiting both the community and the student a carefully thought out process of contextual understanding, development of research and facilitation skills and engagement of the community partners in the process maximizes the likelihood of successful outcomes.

Success requires obtaining research ethics approval for the research at the beginning of the project to give more time for the research. Support for community engagement is best achieved by finding the key community people who make a difference to get involved in the project. Connection with the major project partners, in this instance the Coastal Communities Network and the Atlantic Health Promotion Research Centre, gives legitimacy to the communities while clarity of projects goals and roles of participants is important for success.

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Nurturing Critical Reflection and Perspective through the Kiva

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Introduction and Background
This paper examines the applications for leadership education of a group reflection and discussion process called a Kiva. The Kiva experience provides a structured group experience that encourages critical reflection and self-analysis through multiple, sequenced facets of a single issue. The Kiva is thought to have origins in Southwestern Native American governance processes, however similar processes are found throughout many indigenous American cultures (Friesen, 1993).

Leadership education requires a pedagogical approach that explicitly addresses more than the cognitive domain. In one of the limited references to Kiva as a pedagogical tool, George Reese asks, "What if we view mathematics as more than the set of information, algorithms, and proofs that make up our textbooks? What if our mathematics classes were places where students could question not just the problems from the text but the purposes of mathematics itself?" (p. 1, 1998). Reese's query does not seem unusual to leadership educators. As is now commonly accepted, if not practiced, understanding (and doing) leadership requires emotional and social intelligence, ethical and spiritual development, considerable self-awareness and identity development, and a wisdom of self vis-à-vis others in both application and aspiration. This also sums up one of the major challenges in leadership education, namely finding the balance between respecting and encouraging the intrapersonal journey and motivations of emerging leaders, and the academic rigor and content that the leadership field strives to establish. However, as most leadership scholars, educators, and practitioners acknowledge, the successful leaders require both a well-informed set of skills and concepts, as well as a deep sense of self (and the lessons from the journey that formed that self). Although it seems contradictory to advocate tearing down mental constructions while simultaneously building them, it is indeed this process in which the most effective learning occurs – when mental models are critically questioned to allow a more full integration of new information (Brookfield, 1995; Brookfield & Preskill, 2005).

The Kiva represents one unique tool for facilitating the learning and self-discovery of emerging leaders. The strength of the Kiva experience lies in the juxtaposition of public and private self, and the affective and reflective responses the structure elicits. The process provides a number of advantageous outcomes:
- Kiva participants teach and learn simultaneously.
- Activates feelings, background experiences, and perceptions.
- Provides a structure that promotes reflection and processing ideas.
- Elicits awareness of interaction between background, perception, and emotions.
- Provides a variety of answers and considers an issue from different perspectives.
- Processes issue at a deeper level, illuminating connections and ideas.
- Provides a base for personal change and action through greater consciousness.

(Pavlik, 2003; Weiss, 1996)

During this practice session, participants will engage in learning about educating leaders using Kiva by actually engaging in a Kiva.

Learner objectives:

1. Experience and understand the Kiva process.
2. Discuss the many facets of the experience that encourage critical reflection and learning.
3. Explore the various student populations, contexts, and leadership topics in which this process would be highly effective.
4. Understand some of the theoretical underpinnings of why and how the process is effective.

Following the Kiva activity, participants will examine the many applications of this technique for teaching leadership, particularly those topics requiring deep introspection and examination of personal motivations and emotions.

How it works

The Kiva experience consists of a group of participants sitting in nested, concentric circles all facing in toward the facilitator in the center. The innermost group engages in answering (out loud) individually directed questions about an issue of which: (a) they have personal experience, (b) they have a degree of knowledge, (c) has affective and motivational facets, and (d) has some degree of deep personal meaning to them. After answering the initial questions (as the other circles listen and reflect), the participants change places, moving one circle closer to the center and the innermost circle moving to the outer circle. The same questions are asked of this new innermost circle group as the others listen, reflect, and synthesize their conceptualization of the issue/topic. The following summarizes the process:

(For awareness of this experience we thank Dr. Howard Fuller and Dr. Robert Pavlik at Marquette University's Institute for the Transformation of Learning. Much of the following explanation originated with a handout from Dr. Pavlik.)

Participants   Active respondents – 21-28; Active listeners – open; Facilitator - 1

Prerequisites: Seating arrangement of chairs in 3 concentric circles

Set of 7-10 questions, which will vary based on the topic. However the general focus follows background, feelings, perceptions, the present, and the future.

Processes: 1. Invite participants to engage in 1-2 minutes of silence about the issue.
2. Overview the steps:
   ❑ Each person in the inner circle will be asked a similar or different question. Rather than answering with definitions and reasoning, participants should share their feelings and emotions to the extent they feel comfortable.
   ❑ Each person may choose to answer the question or ask for another question.
   ❑ All participants in the middle and outer circles are to listen, not talk until they are in the inner circle and asked a question.

❑ After all persons in the inner circle answer a question, they should move to the outer circle, while the middle circle group moves to the inner circle and while the outer group moves to the middle circle – all in reflective silence and with respectful, slow movements – no banging chairs, etc.

❑ After all three groups have answered questions, they may remain in their seats, or stand, or move to another chair for a large group discussion.

3. Invite each person in the inner circle to answer one question.
4. Ask participants to move to their next circle of chairs. (Repeat until complete.)
5. Invite participants to answer such questions as these:
   What surprised you in listening to the answers?
   How did you feel as a listener? As one of the respondents?
   What did you learn about the issue?
   What questions do you have about the issue now?

Again, for this session, a brief introduction to the Kiva experience will be provided. Then participants will actually engage in a Kiva experience (for this session we will focus on their role as a leader in the classroom and the critical (theory) participative approach they embrace or fear). Following the experience (as time allows), participants will engage in a brief summarizer discussion to reinforce the lessons and practical applications of the Kiva experience in their teaching context.

Results to date
The presenter has used the Kiva successfully with both experienced leaders pursuing graduate degrees, as well as with undergraduates with little to no leadership experience. Each group requires careful consideration of Kiva content to match their experience and interest. While the Kiva directly elicits personal perspectives and experiences, the overlapping questions and reflective listening of the outer circles prompts continued thinking and rethinking about one's perspective, allowing for a much deeper consideration. For example, in one experience with doctoral students, a Kiva was used to explore perspectives and experiences with racism and other forms of discrimination (Middlebrooks & Slupski, 2002). In addition to being a powerful examination of ideas and perceptions, the process opened up a variety of new perspectives for learning about Servant-Leadership and Transformational leadership. It is one thing to explain a leadership theory, and quite another to connect it to a personal, emotional story. The Kiva helps bring these concepts to life by emphasizing that which is most uniquely human – the motivation, emotion, and uniquely personal perspective of individual story.

Conclusions
The Kiva technique represents a very useful tool for leadership education. Facilitating the growth and development of effective leaders requires attention to head, heart, and spirit – essentially a full integration of individual conceptualization and the experiences that brought them there. Pedagogical approaches and techniques that can elicit, explore, and question those closely held personal conceptions provide opportunities for leadership educators to link the personal with the theoretical and applied.

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Leadership Styles for Success in Collaborative Work
W. Roger Miller and Jeffrey P. Miller

INTRODUCTION

Environmental advocacy organizations work in coalitions or strategic partnerships with other organizations with similar missions for a wide variety of reasons. As with many other nonprofits, collaboration is a key organizational mechanism for advancing their missions. In these tight economic times, foundation funders also consistently call for advocacy nonprofits to think strategically and to cooperate with other nonprofits. Often the first question that foundations ask potential grantees is "with whom are you working?" It is imperative that advocacy organizations, especially smaller groups "play well with others" because they neither have the staff nor the financial resources to successfully achieve their goals without successfully engaging other groups in the effort.

Many environmental groups create intra-sector alliances with other environmental groups or cross-sector alliances with non-environmental groups, including government agencies and for-profit entities. While there are many advantages and disadvantages to each type of alliance, even collaborations with the "right" partners are often difficult to build. A commonly-used phrase describes collaboration as an "unnatural act among non-consenting adults," which emphasizes the difficulties that are encountered in virtually every collaborative effort (Wuichet, 2000).

Leadership in cross-sector and intra-sector collaborations crosses many boundaries and is fundamentally different from position-based leadership authority or tactical-level leadership exercised within organizations. Collaborative leadership differs from traditional hierarchy-based leadership in many ways, such as the emphasis on leading the collaborative process.

Chrislip & Larson's study on collaborative leadership indicate that collaborative leaders usually have no formal power or authority and tend to exercise leadership in what is perhaps the most difficult context – when all parties involved are peers (Chrislip and Larson, 1994). The authors state: "Collaborative leaders have a different focus [from other kinds of leadership] – promoting and safeguarding the collaborative process" (p. 130). Collaborative process leadership activities include "keeping stakeholders at the table through periods of frustration and skepticism, acknowledging small successes along the way, helping stakeholders negotiate difficult points, and enforcing group norms and ground rules" (p. 130).

If this is true, there must be a set of leadership styles that promote success in collaborations and therefore, presumably, success in achieving the goals of the organization. Other research in the literature of the nonprofit sector points out the key role that executive directors play in the development of collaborative partnerships and their inception. If executive directors of nonprofit organizations can utilize specific leadership styles to advance their organizations' missions through collaboration, which styles and leadership actions are the most important? This study asked leaders of reputationally successful collaborations among environmental advocacy organizations which of the leadership styles described in the literature are actually confirmed by their experiences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

While the existing research on leadership for collaboration was limited, the subject did receive cursory mention within research and theory from several disciplines. Chrislip and Larson (1994) performed observation-based studies on the subject and describes several principles of collaborative leadership. Goldman and Kahnweiler (2000) completed several trait-based studies on effective leadership for collaboration. There was a significant body of research on leadership and leadership styles, several of which apply to the collaborative context. Lipman-Blumen (1996) promoted her "Achieving Styles Inventory" as a method for identifying "Connective Leaders," but there were no studies that focused on identifying leadership styles in the context of collaboration between nonprofits. These researchers contributed much to the field, but none focused explicitly on environmental collaborations or even the broader progressive movement. Additional literature relevant to this study included insights from research literature on effective nonprofit management, building and maintaining collaborations, and leadership in both the nonprofit and for-profit sectors. Because this study explored the concept of leadership in the context of collaboration, there was also a significant focus on the general subject of leadership theory and practice.

<u>Collaboration</u>

What is collaboration? Collaboration is an advanced form of an "interagency linkage," the traits of which include shared vision and goals, well-developed and formalized roles for participants, sharing of power and decision-making, and joint assumption of risks and resources.

Operationally, this study employed a definition laid out by Mattesich, Murray-Close, and Monsey (2001) in their studies on behalf of the Amherst H. Wilder Foundation:

> A mutually beneficial and well-defined relationship entered into by two or more organizations. The relationship includes a commitment to mutual relationships and goals; a jointly developed structure and shared responsibility; mutual authority and accountability for success; and sharing of resources and rewards. (p. 22)

This definition encompasses all of the necessary elements of structure, goal-orientation, mutual benefit, relationship-building, and clarity in activities, and is the current standard within the literature for defining collaboration. Leaders need to keep some form of this concept in mind in the initiation, building, and maintaining of their collaborative efforts.

<u>Defining "Successful" Collaboration</u>

Mattessich and Monsey (1992) performed an exhaustive literature review of the factors influencing successful collaboration and ranked the following traits as the most important:

1. Mutual respect, understanding and trust
2. Appropriate cross-section of members
3. Open and frequent communication

4. "Sufficient funds"

Several large San Francisco Bay Area foundations sponsored a study on successful collaboration entitled Common Ground – Building Collaborations for Sustainable Communities in the San Francisco Bay Area (Wiltshire and Satterwhite, 1999). This ideographic study focused on how diverse, progressive coalitions form, mature and successfully fulfill their goals. The organizers of the study interviewed 33 leaders of networks based in the Bay Area or individual leaders with substantial experience working in multi-issue coalitions. Primary findings relevant to this study included:

1. Coalitions and collaborations work best if there is:
   a. a shared mission and goals
   b. effective leadership and a leadership development program
2. To develop a shared mission and goals it is necessary to:
   a. Have open dialogue about why people are involved, what they hope to accomplish and how the coalition can help them achieve their goals
   b. Build strong, trusting relationships
   c. Have a participatory process with the active involvement of member organizations
3. To develop an effective governance process, there has to be:
   a. Clear operating procedures regarding decision-making, communications and accountability
   b. Strong executive leadership
4. To develop and nurture effective leadership, it is necessary to:
   a. Develop a shared vision
   b. Build strong relationships within the leadership team
   c. Rotate leadership roles
   d. Question leadership roles at the beginning – (leadership roles in the coalition/network are often assumed but not talked about)
   e. Make sure that the institutional memory of the organization is not housed with one person

Hayes (1988) noted that environmental groups sometimes had a distinct disincentive to collaborate widely with other organizations. Partly this was due to the watered down environmental position that often resulted from a negotiated process. Many environmental groups therefore formulate and advocate for their objectives and look to make compromises at the end of the process instead of at the beginning. Additionally, since many environmental advocacy groups see their role as public education, public battles using the media as a vehicle were also often a preferred alternative to quieter backroom deliberations.

<u>Traits of a Successful Collaboration Leader</u>

Lipman-Blumen (1996) notes that decades of research aimed at pinpointing general leadership traits has yielded inconclusive results and cites the work of Bass, Gibb and a comprehensive review of thousands of leadership studies by Nanus. However, there have been numerous studies done on collaboration and leadership in the context of collaboration, many of which were trait based.

A study by Stein (1992) confirms that gender is a factor in perceived collaborative outcomes – males tend to think that their collaborations are more successful than females do. Stein's work was based on and further validated the utility of a survey instrument called "Working Together: A Profile for Collaboration" that assesses the success of collaborations using the perceptions of participants. The instrument consists of 40 items in five subscales and measures perceptions of issues important to collaborative success based on the perceptions and feelings of the participants.

Goldman and Kahnweiler (2000) performed an exhaustive trait study of effective leadership for collaborations for the nonprofit sector as a whole (health and human services, arts, religious, educational and public society, and professional associations). All of the traits were evaluated using binary metrics. The study sample was categorized into successful and unsuccessful groups using the survey instrument described in the Stein study above. Their results indicated that a statistically significant number of the successful nonprofit executives were male, extravert (Myers Briggs), feeling oriented (Myers Briggs), and having less role boundary occupational stress but more role ambiguity occupational stress in comparison to the unsuccessful group. The study did not focus on environmental groups or even progressive groups, which tend to have less hierarchy and flatter management structures.

Chrislip and Larson (1994) focused on what principles were most often used by collaborative leaders. They found that collaborative leaders are decidedly visionary, but this vision is focused on how people can work together constructively, rather than about a particular vision or solution for a specific issue. He noted that collaborative leaders define their roles and practices differently than tactical and positional leaders do (traditional leadership).

Chrislip and Larson lay out several principles of collaborative leadership (1994, p. 138-146)
1. Inspire commitment and action. Power and influence help, but they are not the distinguishing features of collaborative leaders. The distinguishing feature is that these leaders initiate a process that brings people together when nothing else is working. They are action oriented, but the action involves convincing people that something can be done, not telling them what to do nor doing the work for them.
2. Lead as peer problem solver. Collaborative leaders help groups create visions and solve problems. They do not solve the problems for the group or engage in command and control behavior.
3. Build broad-based involvement. Collaborative leaders take responsibility for the diversity of the group and make a conscious and disciplined effort to identify and bring together all the relevant stakeholders.
4. Sustain hope and participation. Collaborative leaders convince participants that each person is valued, help set incremental and achievable goals, and encourage celebrations along the way.
5. Servant Leadership. Collaborative leaders are servants of the group, helping stakeholders do their work and looking out to make sure those others' needs are met and that they grow as persons.
6. Leadership as a process. Motivation and inspiration happen through the belief in the credibility of the collaborative process and good working relationships with many people.

Collaborative leaders are rarely dramatic or flashy, and the leadership function is often shared among several people. Their role is to facilitate the constructive interaction of the network, not to do the work for it.

Chrislip and Larson (1994) state that collaboration requires a different kind of leadership: leaders who "safeguard the process, facilitate interaction, and patiently deal with high levels of frustration" (p. 52). Chrislip and Larson also point out that the process must be open, fair and not be seen as dominated by any particular stakeholder group. A notable finding from their qualitative study of 52 collaborations on behalf of the National Civic League was that collaboration also works when there are a few key leaders, either in formal or informal roles, who keep the process going.

Examples of key process leadership activities include "keeping stakeholders at the table through periods of frustration and skepticism, acknowledging small successes along the way, helping stakeholders negotiate difficult points, and enforcing group norms and ground rules" (Chrislip & Larson, 1994, p. 53). Yukl (1994) cites Bradford's research (1976) indicating that successful group-centered leaders also closely observe the socio-emotional processes and interactions of those in the group process and encourage and deal with member needs and feelings in the group processes.

Chrislip's (2002) observation of group facilitation in a variety of collaborations indicated that three basic components help ensure an effective process:
1. Comprehensive agreements come from a series of smaller, less consequential agreements. Break agreements into smaller steps.
2. Meetings or collaborative processes break down unless participants engage in the same activities at the same time. "A group gathers and clarifies information in an opening phase, before organizing and evaluating information in a narrowing phase, and reaching agreements in a closing phase" (p. 16). This framework informs the overall design of the collaborative process, the stages within the process, particular meetings within each stage, and subparts of the meetings.
3. The work done ahead of time to create an environment for working together is as important as what is done in the engagement itself. Work such as gaining initial agreement on the process for working together can help anticipate and prevent problems in meetings or collaborative engagements.

Several leadership theories and their respective bodies of applied research were also reviewed as potentially applicable to leading collaborations.

Contingency Leadership

Fred Fiedler (1967, cited in Chemers, 1997) spent several decades refining variations of his contingency theory of leadership effectiveness. Fiedler postulated that influence of a leader was dependant upon several factors: (1) how well liked and respected the leader was; (2) the degree of clarity and structure of the task assigned; and (3) the amount of authority that the leader held by virtue of formal or designated position. A key finding was that task-motivated leaders performed significantly and consistently better in situations in which the leader had either very

high or very low levels of control. Leaders who were more motivated by their relationship with their counterparts performed best in situations of moderate control.

Transactional Leadership

Edwin Hollander (1993, cited in Chemers, 1997) was the first and most influential of the transactional leadership theorists. His "idiosyncrasy credit" model was based on the concept that leadership is a dynamic process involving on-going interpersonal evaluations by followers and leaders. When the leader demonstrates competence by helping the group achieve its goals and/or is deemed trustworthy by the group, he/she earned "credits." These credits allowed him/her to innovate, that is, to act in ways or suggest strategies that deviated from traditional approaches of the group, and failures result in a loss of credits.

Traditional Leadership

So-called "traditional leadership" is based on the concept that leaders should have the initiative and power to direct, drive, instruct and control their followers (Bradford, 1976, in Yukl, 1994). Basic tenets of the traditional leadership school include that leaders should:
1. Focus on the task and ignore personal feelings and relationships whenever possible
2. Seek opinions and try to get agreement, but never relinquish the right to make final choices
3. Stay in control of the group discussion at all times and politely, but firmly, stop disruptive acts and irrelevant discussion
4. Discourage members from expressing their feelings and strive to maintain a rational, logical discussion without any emotional outbursts
5. Guard against threats to his/her authority in the group and fight if necessary to maintain it.

Charismatic Leadership

In contrast with traditional and especially the transactional leadership styles, charisma-based leaders use the moral imperative of their views to create obligations in their followers. Charismatic leaders repudiate the past and are forces for revolutionary change. House and Shamir (1993) extracted the personal, behavioral, and situational characteristics of charismatic leaders. Personal characteristics focused on a high level of certainty in self and a willingness to impose that certainty on others. Conger and Kanungo (1987, cited in Chemers, 1997) theorized that effective charismatic leaders placed great importance on the charismatic leader's ability to inspire others to take action.

Transformational Leadership

Kouzes and Posner (1987) expanded on House and Shamir's investigation into charismatic leadership and popularized the concept of a transformational leadership style in an exhaustive and ongoing study of leadership practices. Of the actions that effective leaders used, they found five actions that stood out: *Challenge the process; Inspire a shared vision; Enable others to act*; *Model the way;* and *Encourage the heart.* In one study Kouzes and Posner (1987) asked workers

and lower-level managers what the characteristics of superior leaders were, the first two choices were honesty and competence. Chemers (1997) pointed out that this finding is consistent with Hollander's (1958) idiosyncrasy credit theory mentioned above, in that followers first want to establish that the leader has a legitimate basis for authority before surrendering autonomy.

Servant Leadership

"Servant Leadership" was an outgrowth of a set of leadership principles laid out by Greenleaf. Servant leaders aspire to "simultaneously enhance the personal growth of workers and improve the quality and caring of our many institutions through a combination of teamwork and community, personal involvement in decision-making, and ethical and caring behavior" (Spears, 1995). This spiritually grounded approach to transformative leadership has been part of the popular literature for three decades, although there hasn't been significant research on its application in the nonprofit context except in hospitals and educational institutions. However, it was a natural fit for collaborative endeavors, especially because unlike autocratic traditional leadership, servant leadership espouses "that good leadership is good followership" (Bailey & Koney, 1996).

Leadership within the context of collaboration has not yet been extensively studied and there has been almost no research focused on environmental advocacy organizations. Several general areas of theory and research apply to this subject. They could best be categorized into research on collaboration, research on leadership both in the nonprofit and for-profit sectors, and research on collaborative leadership.

Research and theory on leadership pointed to a few leadership styles that nonprofit executives were likely to employ in the context of collaboration. Of these, the transformational/charismatic leadership concept seemed most likely to be applied in the context of collaboration between environmental advocacy organizations, especially for organizations whose mission was to advocate for a major paradigm shift in environmental stewardship.

METHODS
Research Question and Study Objectives

This study was designed to discover which leadership styles executives of environmental advocacy nonprofits used to enhance their inter-organizational collaborative efforts. The study was undertaken in two phases. The first phase asked foundation funders of environmental advocacy organizations to identify who they viewed as being successful leaders of collaborative processes. The second phase involved semi-structured interviews with several of the leaders of collaborations nominated as "successful" by the foundation funders.

The primary question this study sought to answer was:

1. What were the leadership styles that executives use to make their collaborations successful?

Additional probing questions to help answer the above question included:

2. What leadership styles did the executive use for the creation and expansion phases of these collaborations?
3. How did the executive promote effective communication and decision-making processes within the collaboration?
4. How attentive to the process of creating the collaboration was the executive and how did his/her leadership contribute to advancing the collaborative process?
5. How did the executive contribute to setting the collaboration's goals and vision? How did the executive contribute to creating mutual agreement on those goals?
6. How did his/her leadership style help the executive gain legitimacy within the collaboration?
7. How did the executives develop leadership styles to insure collaborative success?

The primary goal of all of the primary and probing questions was to determine what leadership styles, methods, behaviors, and frameworks were used by leaders of successful collaborations among environmental advocacy organizations.

<u>Methods</u>

This study employed a nomination process to determine which leaders of "successful" collaborative efforts to interview. The nominators were all foundation executives, who are well established "judges" of the work of nonprofit environmental advocacy efforts. A sample of 13 executives of nonprofit agencies were identified as being "successfully" engaged in collaboration with other nonprofit environmental advocacy organizations.

A variety of qualitative techniques were employed in the actual interview process with collaboration leaders. In practice, the interviewees were asked to describe their leadership styles through questions about the roles they played in collaborative efforts. Interview questions focused on each leader's role in convening and creating collaborative efforts, decision-making, creating an inclusive and cohesive group, developing vision and structure, and the leaders' leadership style in general. Interviewees were asked what their roles were in each specific focus area and all questions were designed to elicit information about executive leadership style.

The interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed and proofed for transcription quality. The transcriptions were then imported into the N6 qualitative software analysis package created by QSR International. Each transcript was then assessed for whether or not the executive director exhibited one of 39 initial leadership styles, behaviors, actions, and attitudes. Codes were assigned within N6 to each paragraph text block if it related to one of the codes relating to leadership style, behavior, action, and attitude (absent or present). Many text blocks were assigned multiple codes, because the text they contained related to different code ideas. Annotations linked to many text blocks were also written during the coding process that formed the basis of the notes and collaborative leadership model development. Coding was an iterative process, and the accuracy of the use of each code was cross-checked against the use of that code in all other interview transcriptions. Each transcript was reviewed and coded at least twice.

After the coding process, the data were reviewed in an iterative process within the code-reporting functionality of N6 and annotated for main ideas and concepts. Although much of the data fit best in the original categories under which it was coded, upon review, a new concept often emerged.

FINDINGS

The coded text selections were summarized and divided into eight main leadership themes. These themes overlap and provide a framework for understanding the study results. Theme names were derived by summarizing narrative concepts contained in the literature review. The themes are:

1. Authentic Self Awareness
   a. Maintaining personal maturity
   b. Being modest
   c. Actively listening
   d. Understanding personal and professional motives
   e. Understanding when to work collaboratively

2. Passion, Charisma, Personal Vision
   a. Personal passion
   b. Thinking creatively about who to engage
   c. Looking for the next big thing
   d. Political understanding
   e. Creating team spirit
   f. Giving partners credit

3. Communication for Understanding
   a. Communicating your passion
   b. Understanding each other
   c. Engaging others at their level
   d. Communicating about differences
   e. Phrasing and maintaining a positive frame
   f. Being direct
   g. Getting alignment
   h. Communication mechanisms (phone, email, meetings, etc.)

4. Facilitate the Process
   a. Setting the agenda
   b. Convening
   c. Deciding about processing
   d. Assessing needs for collaborative activities
   e. Keeping a broad view
   f. Managing conflict
   g. Willingness to compromise
   h. Creating governance structure
   i. Facilitating
   j. Using outside facilitators
   k. Benefiting from social technologists such as Rockwood Leadership

5. Relationship Building
   a. Relating is more important than knowing facts
   b. Working through connections
   c. Personalizing relationships
   d. Building team relationships
   e. Socializing
   f. Being nice
   g. Being proactive in conflict resolution
   h. Creating funding opportunities for

6. Consultative Decision-Making
   a. Involving everyone to the extent that they want to be
   b. Devolving decisions to smaller units
   c. Evaluating policy options
   d. Creating decision-making structures judiciously
   e. Maintaining involvement from others
   f. Integrating diverse opinions

partners

g. Decision making process
h. Resolving disagreements
i. Creating trust through transparency

7. Forging Group Vision
   a. Challenging assumptions
   b. Engaging others within the scope of their existing work
   c. Connecting to deeper reasons for the work
   d. Finding common ground
   e. Setting goals
   f. Doing a power analysis
   g. Keeping your organization on mission

8. Management for Action
   a. Maintaining a systemwide perspective
   b. Matchmaking
   c. Shifting human resources where they are needed
   d. Creating an appropriate organization structure
   e. Managing effective committees, work groups, and task forces
   f. Staffing

The Collaborative Leadership Model diagram (figure 1) was developed to create a visual representation of the concepts in the eight leadership themes. Each of the themes are interrelated and the narrative data included in one theme could often have been included in another theme. The themes have been broken down into four elements of the collaborative leadership style. The uppermost layer includes two traits and characteristics: Authentic Self-Awareness, and Passion, Charisma, Personal Vision. The second layer includes the three themes related to a leader's interpersonal skills: Relationship Building, Facilitate the Process, and Communication for Understanding. The third layer includes the two themes related to inter-group processes: Consultative Decision-Making, and Forging Group Vision. The final layer is Management for Action.

The theme areas have been linked to demonstrate the conceptual associations between effective implementation of the skills and ideas in one theme and the effective implementation of the skills and ideas in another theme. The direction of the links does not denote a causal relationship; they simply point out a leadership path. For example, if a leader is sufficiently self-aware to know what his/her own motives are (theme one) and has a personal vision and a charismatic communications style (theme two), these will enhance the clarity and effectiveness of communication with other groups (theme five). The Collaborative Leadership Model diagram (figure 1) helps to simplify presentation of the results.

Figure 1: The Collaborative Leadership Model Diagram
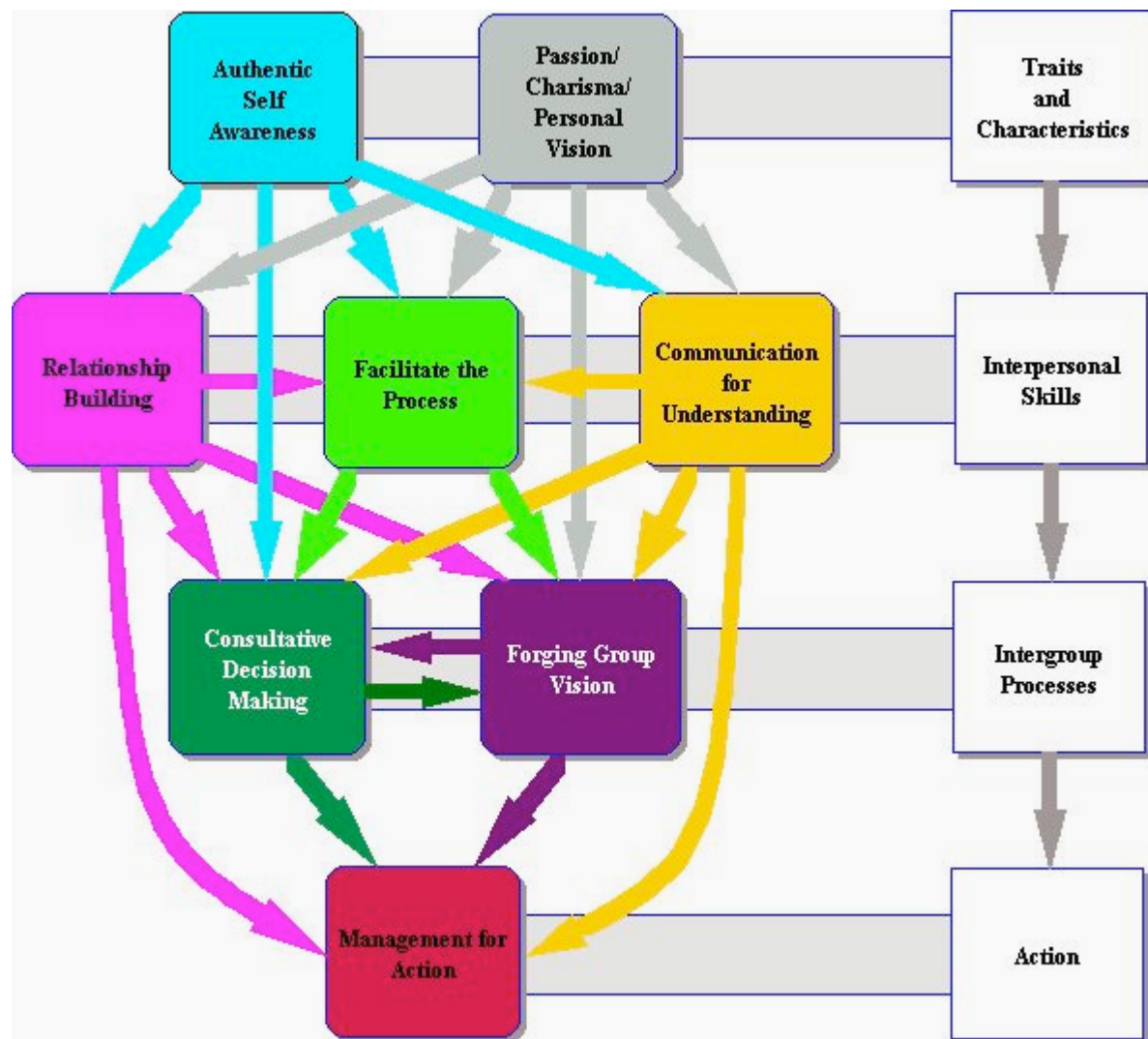
This study attempted to correlate success in building and maintaining programmatically successful collaborations within the environmental advocacy sector, with the leadership styles of the executives that make such success possible. Findings of the study include links to concepts from the literature review.

Building Successful Collaborations

Even the most "process averse" of the interviewees agreed about the dangers of underestimating the critical role of process in ensuring successful collaboration. The interviewees all stressed that there is a middle course that avoids "processing to death," but still allows for discussing operating assumptions about decision-making, program strategy, resources and fundraising, and allocating credit. This verified Gray's (1989) work that framed successful collaborations as

"negotiated inter-organizational orders" that highlight the need for transparent leadership, adaptive and change-oriented management, and attention to effective processes that can lead to agreement (as much or more than programmatic goal orientation).

This study also affirmed the validity of Wiltshire and Satterwhite's (1999) excellent ideographic study on collaboration, and Chen and Quiroz-Martínez's Diversity Network Project study (2004) that covered the traits of successful, diverse collaborations between environmental and social justice organizations. These two reports relied on interviews with many of the same executive leaders included in this study; however, they did not explicitly focus on leadership styles for collaboration, but focused more on the traits of the collaborations themselves.

Contingency Leadership

Verified was one aspect of Fiedler's contingency leadership theory (1967) (as cited in Chemers, 1997) that the influence of a collaborative leader seems to be highly correlated with how well-liked and respected the leader is. The interviewees were mostly relationship- rather than task-motivated leaders, and operated successfully in situations in which they had low to moderate levels of control over their colleagues. Task-oriented leaders seemed to perform well in policy battles with extremely tight timeframes and well-defined outcomes – if they already had the relationships in place to address the issues. In most other longer-term contexts the interviewees used a relationship-oriented frame.

Transactional Leadership

While present to a slight degree, very little of Hollander's (1958) transactional leadership "idiosyncrasy credit" concept was present in the ways that the interviewees thought about their leadership style. This was due to two factors. First, the interviewees built trust primarily by personalizing their relationships with others, acting in a transparent manner, and getting others to understand that their values were understood. Second, the interviewees did not interact with others in a context in which they were the single leaders directing the group forward toward their goals, and most often no single person "got all the credit" for the effort going well.

Traditional Leadership

The nominated interviewees demonstrated almost none of the traits that Bradford (1976) described as command-and-control "traditional leadership" (as cited in Yukl, 1994). Instead, the interviewees all had a process orientation and actively listened for and were responsive to the feelings, thoughts, and values of others within the collaborative.

Charismatic Leadership

The interviewees tended not to rely on personal charisma, and even repudiated some of the personal, behavioral, and situational characteristics of charismatic leaders as identified by House and Shamir (1993). The interviewees did note the importance of referencing a strong moral imperative for collaborative work, and generally acted with strong self-confidence. However, they did not impose their own certainty on others and also were able to maintain a level of

humility and willingness to negotiate that would be atypical for charismatic leaders. Instead of publicly demonstrating their commitment to key values and personal goals implying that others must adopt them, the interviewees focused more on mutual sharing of everyone's values, and on group negotiation of group goals. A charismatic leadership style is characteristically used in situations where the leader can set high expectations and express confidence in a follower's ability to achieve those expectations; however, in collaborative contexts, the others involved are not followers, but rather collaborators. Many of the interviewees said they sought to motivate high-energy emotional states consistent with what was necessary to achieve their goals. This is consistent with what Yukl (1994) described as inducing coworkers to "transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the collaboration or team" (p. 94).

Transformational Leadership

The interviewees generally exhibited at least four of the five leadership practices represented by Kouzes and Posner's (1987) Leadership Challenge model. The interviewees were in strong agreement with the *inspiring a shared vision* and common purpose and "we" teamwork frame of *enabling others to act.* They promoted *modeling the way* by leading by example in a way congruent with their stated beliefs and purposes, but were sure to incorporate the beliefs and purposes of others in the group leadership dynamic. Most of the interviewees very pointedly *encouraged the heart* by supporting the commitment and action of others by being emotionally available and open to discourse that would build trust and deeper relationships. The one leadership practice that was not much demonstrated by the interviewees was *challenging the process*. While the leaders did encourage the group to experiment and innovate, this was seldom enacted by a decision of a single leading executive, and the role of the interviewees was much more centered on facilitating the process rather than challenging it.

Servant Leadership

Robert Greenleaf's "Servant Leadership" principles (as cited in Spears, 1995) probably best describes the overall leadership style and traits of the successful collaborative interviewees in this study. The servant leadership approach based on caring, openness, and empathy, attending to ethics and values, practicing team-oriented decision-making, and advancing the growth of others is a prescription for a collaborative leadership style. Servant leadership, often cast as a spiritually-based approach, is a leadership model primarily grounded in personal relationships, which is very similar to the caring, interpersonal style that the interviewees demonstrated. Several interviewees referred to ambiguously spiritual "deeper resonance" values that they say help group members connect with each other.

Connective Leadership and Achieving Leadership Styles

While this study did not use the same quantitative Achieving Styles Inventory that Lipman-Blumen (1996) developed, many of the interviewees demonstrated some of the pragmatic characteristics found in Lipman-Blumen's "Connective Leadership" model. By and large the Connective Leadership model aptly described the interviewees and their leadership styles. If they had taken the ASI survey, they likely would not have ranked highly in the direct achieving styles (intrinsic, competitive, and power), but would have ranked highly in the instrumental

social and the relational collaborative achieving styles. It would have been interesting to test each of the leaders' achieving styles using the ASI model, but it was not possible to use this model for the study.

Contrary to Lipman-Blumen's (1996) assertion that Connective Leaders more often engage in "stitching together shorter-term alliances" than building enduring teams, the interviewees tended to be more skewed toward longer-term collaborations. Some interviewees tended toward short-term teams; a second group engaged in both long- and short-term alliances; and a third cohort built enduring teams.

Collaborative Leadership

Chrislip and Larson's (1994) principles of collaborative leadership described the leadership style of the interviewees in this study in the most comprehensive way. All of the principles that Chrislip and Lawson promoted were verified by the study participants. Those principles are reviewed below along with a few appropriate quotes from the interviewees that pertain to each of Chrislip and Lawson's principles.

Inspire commitment and action – Bringing people together when nothing else is working. One executive promoted using a stakeholder group process to "identify target partners and potential barriers to the work, assemble a list of questions, call those people and get feedback, pull together a synthesis and use that to plan the initial campaign planning meetings."

Lead as peer problem solver – Helping groups create visions and solve problems. The interviewees phrased this in terms of a collaborative effort to help partners "get the results that they didn't think that they were going to achieve" or "be successful in what they want to do [as well as] where you want them to go."

Build broad-based involvement – Ensuring group diversity and that all relevant stakeholders are present. One interviewee noted that it is always "the most impressive coalitions that get press." Several executives emphasized that collaborations of unusual players produce more change than collaborations among those of similar interests.

Sustain hope and participation – Valuing each person, setting incremental and achievable goals and encouraging celebrations along the way. Interviewee I framed much of her job as "developing and keeping a realistic, energetic, inclusive process going where you make some very explicit decisions about the future."

Servant Leadership – Helping stakeholders do their work and looking out to make sure that others' needs are met. This was referenced by one interviewee by simply saying "Don't jam things down other peoples' throats," advising instead that one's stance be "How can I help?"

Leadership as a process – Inspiring through belief in the collaborative process and good working relationships with many people. An interviewee captured the importance of this concept, saying "Half of my job is spent in maintaining relationships with partners, funders, board members, allies, people that we want to be allies – easily half of my time."

DISCUSSION

This study describes some definitive dos and don'ts of collaborative leadership. The interviewees are all clearly leading practioners in the environmental advocacy community, and active leaders of collaborative efforts. While this research is by no means a how-to manual, it does identify leadership styles and provides some key ideas on how to lead collaborations in the environmental advocacy community. This research was clearly limited to leaders in the nonprofit environmental advocacy sector, and although some of the basic concepts may be transferable to other sectors, the results cannot be generalized to other sub-sectors or outside of the nonprofit sector.

The results should be of interest to leaders working to ensure the success of collaborative efforts in environmental advocacy and other fields. The results also give insights to nonprofit boards that may be helpful in hiring executive directors with the requisite skill sets for creating successful collaborations.

This research has some implications for the foundation funding community, especially as related to linking foundation funding to the success or failure of a collaborative effort. Foundations often have stated or unstated expectations that nonprofits should work together, but don't really have methods for determining how or when groups should link together. While this research by no means spells out those answers, it does provide some examples of ways to think about the nature of those working relationships. This study should provide some insight into questions that funders could ask of potential grantees.

Recommendations for Further Research

There are many potential avenues for future research that could elaborate upon this research study. This research focused on reviewing leadership styles effective in the environmental advocacy sector; it would be useful to do confirming research in a sample outside of this sphere.

The interview questions could be refined and developed into a quantitative model that could be more efficiently utilized in the same manner as Lipman-Blumen's Achieving Styles Inventory (1996) or Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Challenge (1987). It would also be interesting to do a study that compares persons nominated as successful collaborative leaders to other leaders not so nominated, to see if their responses vary significantly. It would also be interesting to study whether launching collaborations requires different leadership styles than maintaining established collaborative efforts. Studying executive leadership change in continuing collaborations to learn whether new leaders share qualities with their predecessors could provide new insights on topics such as change management and executive transition.

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Link to Leadership: Resources on the Web
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Introduction:

Throughout its 93 year history, Extension professionals have served as leaders in their communities. In addition, their role has also involved developing leadership skills in others. Through engaging citizens in programs designed to develop leadership skills, Extension professionals create an environment where knowledge is accessible, skills are developed and the spirit and passion of each individual moves them to become involved. Robert Crandall, former President of American Airlines, was describing the leader of the 21st century and captured the role of the Cooperative Extension professional when he said, the ideal leader "… will be one who gives people the confidence to run farther and faster than they ever have before, and who establishes the conditions for people to be more productive, more creative and feel more in charge of their own lives than they ever dreamed possible." (Lynn, et.al, p. 183) In so doing, County Extension professionals create learning experiences which fosters leadership in multiple arenas..

Background:

Leadership development means gaining knowledge about processes, people and situations; developing skills which utilize that knowledge and trusting your own abilities to the extent that you are willing to put yourself on the line and get involved. Leadership development helps individuals and families operate from a position of strength. Those familiar with the work of Benjamin Bloom (Clark, 2000) will recognize these three domains of learning: cognitive – gaining knowledge; psychomotor – utilizing manual or physical skills; and, affective – representing feelings or emotional areas. Becoming a leader involves growth and development of individuals in all three domains of learning.

Leadership and the Domains of Learning:

Cognitive
Effective leaders understand the body of knowledge associated with the various roles and responsibilities of leadership – the cognitive domain. From basic rules of parliamentary procedure to the ability to synthesize and evaluate issues and proposed solutions, leadership development includes education related to specific concepts.

Psychomotor
Skill development is also an integral component of leadership development. Leaders must develop the skills to carry out leadership roles – the psychomotor domain. Knowing the rules of parliamentary procedure and being able to preside over a meeting or facilitate a decision making activity are very different qualities. It is one thing to *know* and another to be able to apply that knowledge in a group interaction. Active listening communication, planning, organizing, critical thinking and team building are a few of the skills exhibited by effective leadership.

Affective

A key element of effective leadership is the building of relationships between the leader and those working to accomplish the task. As Extension professionals engage in leadership development of clientele, we must address the emotional needs – the affective domain. Frequently knowledgeable and skilled individuals will resist leadership roles because they lack self confidence. Trusting relationships, developed over time through continuous interaction, builds self confidence in the participants. Encouraging, supporting, valuing and trusting are a part of the leadership development process.

Extension professionals engage clientele in a variety of settings and learning experiences addressing the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains of learning. Creating a safe environment for experimentation, success and failure, and opportunities to try again is the role of the professional.

A Conceptual Framework:

The process of developing leaders in a community is not linear. There is no step by step process which ultimately leads to the perfectly developed leader. In *Leaders: Strategies for Taking Charge,* (1985) Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus acknowledge that there is no simple formula or rigorous science that leads to successful leadership. (p. 223) There are numerous modules, curricula and programs available, yet none can claim to be the perfect model for every situation. Without a proven theoretical approach to developing leadership, we look to conceptual frameworks which provide a guide for developing the knowledge, skills and affective elements identified in effective leaders.

Janet Ayers (1987) identified four key developmental phases found in leadership curriculum, modules and programs. The Leadership Development Continuum recognizes that leadership is developed over time throughout the lifespan. She described the continuum as a "lifelong educational process of leadership growth and development."(1987) Sometimes called building blocks for leadership, (Michael, 1994) they include:

- *Personal development* – assessing personal strengths and weaknesses, the essence of leadership, values in leadership, critical or analytical thinking, creative thinking, personal development and leadership, developing a personal philosophy of leadership
- *Interpersonal development* – building trusting relationships, active and reflective listening, influencing others, giving and receiving feedback, overcoming difficult communications, dimensions of power
- *Group/Organizational development* –group dynamics and leadership, effective boards and committees, teamwork, group conflict, group decision making, organizational alignment
- *Community and institutional development* –change and ambiguity, components of collaboration, community leadership structures, developing a community vision, mobilizing community resources, evaluation and follow through (Ayres, 1987)

Resources for Extension:

As a public agency, Cooperative Extension must distinguish itself by fostering public well-being. Leadership and volunteer development work, more than any other part of Extension, education transforms the private gains of individual program participants into community well being. (Michael, 1994) A major program area in Extension, KY devoted 15% of their FTE's to leadership development. Staff reported over 53,400 citizens gained leadership skills in FY 06. From 4-H officers to the State Extension Advisory Leaders Councils and from Extension Homemaker leader training programs to the Master Cattleman seminars, Cooperative Extension emphasized the development of leadership skills and the utilization of those skills in addressing local needs and issues. When participants apply the knowledge and skills gained from Extension sponsored leadership experiences, they contribute to the well-being of their families and the community.

Although leadership development is a major outcome of program activities, for many agents the process becomes a series of topics or activities without a conceptual framework to guide the learning experiences. In other cases, the content or issue is the focus and leadership skills are only identified upon reflection of outcomes following the experiences rather than being intentionally integrated into the educational focus.

A state wide leadership program committee identified the need for a review and identification of curriculum materials which might be used to support county staff as they seek to develop and strengthen leadership initiatives at the local, regional and state levels. Even though agents have shelves full of notebooks and curricula for leadership development and files full of program materials, when the speaker for the "Leadership Adams County" seminar cancels at the last minute, they don't have time to search the notebooks and files. Frequently they only want a single concept presentation – not an entire curriculum.

Utilizing the Ayres leadership development framework, the *Link to Leadership* website was established to provide internet links to resource materials for leadership programs.

Link to Leadership – How It Works:

Organized around the following phases in the leadership development continuum, the web-based modules/materials are listed in three categories. (Ayres, 1987) The concept groupings are listed below:

Conceptual Phases:
- *Personal development* - value clarification, understanding self, personal goal setting, developing problem solving and critical thinking skills, clarifying values, ethical behavior, what is leadership,
- *Interpersonal development* – listening skills, influencing others, public speaking, managing interpersonal conflict, networking, valuing diversity, volunteerism,
- *Organizational and group development* – teamwork, collaboration, group dynamics, shared leadership, facilitation, group decision making, parliamentary procedure, group conflict

- *Community and institutional development* – strategic planning, understanding and influencing public policy, identifying community needs and issues, implementing community decisions, understanding social and economic change

Resources are grouped in the following categories under each of the previous conceptual phases.

Categories:
- *Curricula with teaching materials* – materials include teaching outlines, learning activities, and audio/visual materials
- *Publications/curricula* – materials from on-line curriculum, includes publications on the concept, no audio-visual materials or teaching outlines
- *Fact Sheets* – short one-two page publications briefly describing the concept

An example of the materials on the web site is below:

GROUP/ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS

Curricula with Teaching Materials:

Managing Conflict Creatively
> *About IFAS Leadership Development Series,* Elizabeth B. Bolton, professor, Community Development, Department of Family, Youth and Community Sciences, Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, 32611, FCS 9065, 2005

http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/TOPIC_SERIES_IFAS_Leadership_Development

Publications/Curricula:

Using Meetings to Develop Consensus: Building Human Capacity – Meeting Planning and Management
> Module 9: ***Improving Board and Organizational Effectiveness: Nonprofit Organization Board and Staff Training for Nonprofit and Faith-Based Organizations,*** Christopher M. Sieverdes, Professor, Department of Agricultural and Applied Economics and Community Development Extension Specialist, South Carolina Cooperative Extension Service, Clemson University and Erin P Hardwick, Owner, Erin Hardwick & Associates, Columbia, SC and Director of the South Carolina Association of Nonprofit Organizations, Southern Rural Development Center, Mississippi State University.

http://srdc.msstate.edu/nonprofit/module09.pdf

Fact Sheets:

The Role of a Meeting Facilitator – Part 2
       Condensed Fact Sheets, Kansas State University
http://www.oznet.ksu.edu/LEADS/Main%20Pages/condensed_fact_sheets.htm

There are currently thirty-seven identified curricula with teaching outlines, visuals and learning activities; forty-one sites for publications and materials which are a part of a leadership curriculum and eleven additional fact sheets.

Future Expansion of *Links to Leadership* - Recommendations:

As other materials become available the *Links to Leadership* web site will provide a place to add new modules, publications and fact sheets. Plans are being made to expand the site with sections on books, research articles, evaluation tools, and articles from magazines. Additional ideas and suggestions for links are appreciated and will be solicited. In the end there will be a continuously evolving web site that provides resources for leadership development programming efforts in a usable, easily accessible format. Ultimately the goal is to provide professionals with resources for leadership development activities designed to create communities where citizens have the wisdom, capacity and passion to assume leadership for strengthening communities and making a difference for the common good.

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Fostering Moral Imagination in Leadership Students
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Introduction

Moral imagination is described as the ability to challenge operative mental models in order to discover new ways of framing ethical problems and providing resolutions (Werhane, 1999). This presentation provides preliminary results of a non-experimental longitudinal study of moral imagination in students enrolled in Gonzaga University's Master of Organizational Leadership Program. This practice session will explain leadership ethics curriculum grounded in the construct of moral imagination. The educational curriculum is divided in four modules, with each module presenting opportunities for dialogue, practice, and writing. Modules are devoted to (1) introspective reflection on worldviews and responses to ethical dilemma, (2) identifying personal values and appreciating diversity, (3) discovering a common ground and developing community, and (4) morality in the organizational setting and solving ethical dilemmas. Participants in this session will depart with tools for each module and an action plan for implementation.

Background of Moral Imagination

Though moral imagination is not a new philosophical concept, it has been the subject of renewed scholarly interest as philosophers and organizational theorists alike have looked at moral imagination in leaders. Werhane's (1999) groundbreaking research on moral imagination explored why ordinarily decent managers and or reputable companies get in [ethical] trouble and why they occasionally repeat past mistakes. Werhane found that some of the rationale is rooted in the fact that individuals form narrow mental models in how they view the world. These models are usually unconscious and implicit; both individuals and organizations make poor decisions by not consciously identifying the limitations of existing mental models. Moral imagination, on the other hand, is the ability to challenge mental models in order to reframe ethical problems and discover new solutions. It is the capacity to imagine something new that diverges from existing ways of thinking and operating.

Moral imagination as an ethical decision-making construct provides a compelling foundation for the ethical training required for leaders. Typically, ethical training has focused on teaching a range of moral theories such as utilitarian, rule based, rights approach, and social contract theory. Knowledge of these theories, however, does not ensure ethical action. Solberg, Strong, and McGuire (1995) explain the need for new ethical training that moves beyond simply being exposed to various ethical theories: "[training] must provide a rigorous and well-developed system in which students can 'live ethics' instead of merely learn ethics. A system must be devised to allow students to discover and refine their own values rather than simply learning ethical theories from an intellectual point of view" (p. 71). Training in moral imagination allows students to go beyond applying moral theories and, instead, focus on the both the limitations in their own thinking *and* the capacity for imagining new solutions when encountering ethical problems.

It is pertinent to explore and study the role of ethics and moral imagination in leadership as evidence continues to show that morality of leaders influence judgments, responses to colleagues, and commitments to personal and organizational goals (Trevino et al., 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Organizational values promoted by ethical leadership serve as a credible compass to inform decision-making and empower employees as they encounter ethical problems and dilemmas. Developing moral imagination also requires re-conceptualizing and applying ethical theory and leadership practice with curriculum that does not merely attach ethics as a mere appendage to leadership development, but with critical thinking content and practice opportunities that become the very essence of leadership.

Leadership Ethics Curriculum

Yurtsever (2006) rigorously reviewed numerous definitions of moral imagination and by highlighting Werhane's (1989) definition that integrates thoughts from Adam Smith, Kant, Kekes, and Johnson developed a three-stage process of approaching moral decisions. These three steps require (1) reproductive imagination, (2) productive imagination, and (3) creative imagination. This leadership ethics course integrates curriculum designed to contribute to developing moral imagination. The course is divided into modules that focus on a specific competency tied to various steps of moral imagination.

Module One

The most immediate skill students develop in the beginning module is to explore and identify their worldview and develop an appreciation for diverse worldviews. Students in leadership studies need the capacity to identify who they are before they can act or identify ethical behavior in leadership and organizations. Students have the opportunity to explore their lifespan development and identify how situations, circumstances, culture, family, and other influential milestones have impacted development of their worldview. Students learn skills to identify their responses to ethical problems. The course is designed to help students monitor their growth and progress in transitioning from expressive responses to responses grounded in philosophical thought. A goal of this course is to achieve a balance in philosophical thought, introspection, and contemplation to help students organize their future responses to ethical problems. In addition, students learn to focus on the values of constituents, appreciate their diversity, and learn to balance personal virtues with values of constituents.

Module Two

The competencies of module two focus on building the capacity to identify personal values and virtues that inform leadership and conduct within the organizational setting. Module video clips present content of how life experiences impacted the worldviews of C.S. Lewis and Sigmund Freud. Online blackboard discussions allow opportunity for self-reflection and discussion of personal wavering and/or constant worldviews. Course readings complement dialogue and charter a path for self-reflection and appreciation for constituents and their diversity. The goal is for students to gain the competency in balancing personal virtues with values of constituents and allow that symbiotic relationship to inform leadership practice. Video

clips describing life events that impacted Lewis and Freud serve as a case study example for student to introspectively reflect and discuss events that have confirmed or changed their worldview.

Module Three

This third module provides opportunities to reflect upon relationships within the organization and how they inform leadership and conduct within the organizational setting. Students gain the capacity to identify how personal worldviews impact or dictate professional relationships, recognize development of personal attitudes and behaviors, identify the impact of personal views on forgiveness, and develop a strategy to create a sense of community in organizational settings. Module video clips provide a contextual background for online blackboard discussions in context relating to the influence that worldviews have on organizational behavior and perception of colleagues. Course readings introduce students to methods of affirming shared values and developing organizational reconciliation.

Module Four

The concluding module provides opportunities for students to reflect upon morality in the organizational setting and practice techniques for solving ethical dilemmas. Students learn to identify and articulate personal views on "moral law" or professional ethics in organizational settings. By identifying moral and professional codes and recognizing how worldviews influence interpretation of organizational problems, students learn to develop a strategy to solve ethical problems and recommend a course of action. Module video clips encourage dialogue on the significance of morality and ethical standards in organizations and the impact of worldviews on interpreting ethical problems. Course readings introduce Coopers (1998) ethical decision-making model to equip students with techniques in identifying and resolving ethical dilemmas.

Conclusion

This leadership ethics course provides opportunities for students to learn to identify and describe their worldview and identify how their background constructed their personal and professional character. Students introspectively analyze and increase their awareness of responses to ethical problems. This basic understanding contributes to identifying personal values and developed appreciation for the diverse values of constituents to achieve a symbiotic balance between personal virtues and constituent values. Leadership students complete this course having struggled through ethical cathartic moments, having gained introspective insight into their own worldview and the worldviews of those around them, and having gained strategies to solve ethical dilemmas while proactively developing ethical leadership in their organizational setting. Session participants will leave with several tools that contribute to development of moral imagination.

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B.A.S.I.C Training:
Building and Achieving Success in Chapters through
Adventure-Learning Focusing on Leadership and Teamwork
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Introduction

Leadership education and training is the foundation of any successful student organization. In student leadership organizations, like the FFA, teacher leaders (advisors) strive to help students develop their potential for premier leadership through a variety of experiences, ranging from classroom instruction to competitive team activities. Students are given the opportunity to hold leadership positions in the form of a chapter office. If young leaders (i.e. FFA chapter officer teams) are to be successful in different areas and on different levels, all members of the team must possess the skills necessary to lead. Leadership ability determines a person's level of effectiveness (Maxwell, 2002).

It has been determined that FFA contributes to leadership development in young people (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Ricketts & Rudd, 2004; Townsend & Carter, 1983) - an attribute that will help an individual throughout life. Leadership may be inborn, but it is more about practice and reflection on experiences than personality or genetic birthright (Bennis, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Perhaps the practice and experience inherent in FFA activities contributes to youth leadership development. In addition to traditional career/leadership development events, adventure-based learning programs can also serve as an exciting environment designed to teach hands-on leadership and team building skills to students and advisors.

Building and Achieving Success In Chapters (BASIC) is an adventure-based camp environment in [State]. The overarching goal of BASIC is to develop successful and effective FFA chapter officer teams and members. It is also used to train other high school student organization leaders, collegiate pre-service teachers, and adult leadership teams. The objectives of BASIC are to:
1. Increase chapter or organizational involvement
2. Develop unity
3. Build trust
4. Improve communication skills
5. Create a team environment and strengthen team concepts
6. Develop confidence, leadership, and cooperation

Background

The BASIC program is housed at the [State] FFA-FCCLA Center in [City, State]. The year-round educational conference facility hosts over 20,000 campers annually. While most FFA members participate in the chapter officer training held at the center during the summer

months, the BASIC program is open to students and teachers throughout the entire year.

In 2002, a local FFA chapter built the Leadership Course, which was used for low-ropes teambuilding programs and as an obstacle course. The BASIC program was developed and launched in 2005, providing a strategic leadership and teambuilding experience for FFA chapter officer teams and the many other organizations that utilize the center. One full-time coordinator and two additional full-time staff facilitate the BASIC program year-round. Of the 25 college students who serve on staff during the summer, five to eight also serve as BASIC trainers.

How it Works

To accomplish their goal of developing effective teams, the BASIC staff leads participants through the following activities:

1. Team Initiatives – These are low-impact activities that present "challenges" and invite the group to come up with a workable solution. Facilitator-led reviewing reveals basic team concepts like cooperation, communication, trust and commitment.

2. Low Ropes Course – These are more physically challenging elements that are supervised by qualified facilitators. Students continue to develop and apply teamwork skills.

3. Obstacle Course - A competitive course that combines the various elements and tests students on the concepts they have learned.

3. Team Recreation - Students have fun playing softball and volleyball while applying the team concepts they have learned.

5. Chapter Planning - A time for advisors to spend with students, applying the concepts learned toward planning the chapter's program of activities.

6. Meals and Lodging - The [State] FFA-FCCLA Center is a full service environment capable of providing meals and comfortable lodging for participants.

The BASIC program is designed for officer teams, entire chapters, or multiple chapters. The program is not limited to FFA or FCCLA organizations - any school organization is welcome. It is recommended that multiple chapters participate in the program together. The BASIC staff can accommodate from 10 people to 100 people. BASIC is available anytime during the year and reservations are required.

There are two standard packages. The day only option consists of team building, team recreation, chapter planning and lunch. The day cost is $15.00 per person. The overnight option consists of team building and obstacle course, team recreation, chapter planning, three meals, and lodging in bunk cabins. The overnight cost is $35.00 per person.

Results to Date

In 2006, approximately 1,200 participants completed the BASIC training program. However, it is estimated that only ten percent of those student were FFA members. According to the program director, most of the participants were mixed groups from a single high school (i.e.: some FFA members, some FCCLA members, some from DECA, etc.). She also saw an increase in sports teams who participated in program.

The BASIC program has expanded to meet the needs of other student and adult groups. For example, members of 2006 [State] Agri-Leaders Forum participated in BASIC for their first meeting of the year, pulling together professionals from different backgrounds to build unity, improve communication, and identify leadership skills needed for their year of service. The [University] Agricultural Leadership, Education, & Communication department regularly uses BASIC to develop teamwork among its student leaders and build relationships among students.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The BASIC program is a unique opportunity for high school FFA officers and members, as well as collegiate and adult teams, to develop positive relationships while learning and growing leadership and team building skills. While the overall participant base is expanding to reach a wider audience, many FFA chapters have yet to take advantage of the BASIC program. Perhaps this is because their chapter officers already experience some training during their summer camp. Some other limiting implications are:

1. Time Constraints - The FFA-FCCLA Center is located in the central section of the state, this results in time away from school (during the week), or family/other activities (on a weekend). While it is not required, it is recommended that students and teachers utilize the overnight accommodations as part of the complete adventure experience.

2. Cost to individual or chapter.

3. Physical Requirements – Students learn through experience and participation in the elements. If a student is not able to physically participate (or chooses not to), it can negatively impact the students' experience and team outcome.

4. Students will also be challenged emotionally to reflect on their feelings. There is the potential for emotions such as fear or insecurity to surface and advisors/facilitators need to be ready to address these emotions in a safe learning environment.

5. Concentrated planning time – Teachers/advisors need to be ready to utilize the energy and awareness generated by the experience and be able to model and apply these principles in the planning time.

Some recommendations for teachers/advisors to help overcome these implications and maximize the BASIC experience include:

1. Schedule BASIC before the school year starts (late summer) as a kick-off activity for your chapter. If chapter officers have already gone through the program, or similar leadership training at camp, allow them to serve as "team leaders". The program will build momentum and excitement for the upcoming school year, as well as help new students get connected and make friends. Or, invite several neighboring chapters to participate with you as a way to develop positive relationships between schools.

2. Consider asking for BASIC sponsorships from alumni, and then including alumni leaders in the training activities. This will allow students to connect and work with adult community leaders, as well as provide tangible feedback for alumni on how their sponsorship is being invested.

3. Make sure everyone has a role on the team. If a student is unable to participate or feels uncomfortable participating because of a physical impairment, consider creating alternative assignments (like team encourager, timer, or process analyst) that allow them to make a contribution to the team without feeling excluded.

4. Overemphasize positive encouragement and the value of trying new activities, even if students "fail" at the task. Perhaps show a motivation movie clip that illustrates principles of teamwork, dedication, or overcoming obstacles before attending BASIC to help set the context for what students will be experiencing.

5. Include BASIC as one piece in an overall chapter leader development plan. It is important to remember that leadership development is process (Maxwell, 2002), not a one-time event. How the principles and practices learned during BASIC are applied and reinforced over the following weeks and months is equally important in the participants' overall leadership development.

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The Leadership Impact of Beef Cattle Projects
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Introduction

Leadership development among youth can be developed and measured in a variety of ways. This study examined the youth leadership and life skills development of youth involved in a beef project. Youth Leadership and Life Skills (YLLS) can be defined as the "development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life" (Miller as cited in as cited in Dormody & Seevers, 1994, p.65). Specific examples include decision making, relationships, learning, management, understanding self, group processes, and communications.

Why would the development of youth leadership life skills be significant to beef cattle exhibitors and to society? Boyd, Herring, and Briers (1992) suggested that "the development of life skills allows youth to cope with their environment by making responsible decisions, having a better understanding of their values, and being better able to communicate and get along with others" (¶ 2). Learning a trade or a technical skill is important, but as Brock (1992) states in the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS), "there is much more to life than earning a living, and we want more from education than productive workers. We want citizens who can discharge the responsibilities that go with living in a democratic society and with becoming parents" (p.4). Brock's (1992) statement impresses upon our society the great need for youth to develop leadership and life skills in order to become productive members of society. Shurson and Lattner (1991) also iterated the importance of presenting young people with opportunities to investigate career options and develop essential life skills so as to become constructive members of society.

This study examines livestock project exhibitors and more specifically, beef cattle exhibitors and their development of leadership life skills. Students with a livestock or beef project care for, feed, water, and show/exhibit the animal(s), which have been entrusted to them. What is particularly significant about livestock project exhibitors as compared to other youth groups? Researchers (Boleman, Cummings, & Briers, 2005) who have studied the effects of livestock exhibition on life skill development have found that there are many benefits for young people who participate in livestock projects. For example, Sawer (as cited in Rusk, Summerlot-Early, Machtmes, Talbert, & Balshweid, 2003) found that Oregon 4-H beef, sheep, and swine members identified key life skills such as responsibility, decision-making, communication, getting along with others, and leadership as being developed by livestock exhibition experiences. Similarly, Boleman et al. (2005) found that livestock exhibitors indicated that they were developing life skills as a result of exhibiting livestock.

"One purpose of the 4-H animal projects is to teach young people how to feed, fit and show their animals. The more important purpose is to provide an opportunity for personal growth

and development of the young person" (Hammatt as cited in Rusk and Machtmes, 2003, ¶ 1). But does involvement in youth livestock projects, specifically beef projects, really enhance and contribute to leadership and life skills development? In addition, does leadership and life skills development really make a significant difference in an individuals' ability to function in society? Why do parents, young people, and agriculture education professionals spend great amounts of time, money, and resources investing in youth livestock projects? Although several studies have been conducted regarding youth leadership and life skill development (YLLSD) in youth organizations (Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Rusk, Martin, Talbert, & Balshweid, 2002; Boyd et al., 1992), very little research has been conducted that specifically addresses the impact of livestock project exhibition on YLLSD, and even fewer studies have focused on the influence of beef projects.

The development of leadership and life skills in youth is very important to ensuring the preparation of future leaders. Fox, Schroeder, and Lodl (2003) said that one of the most imperative issues facing the 4-H organization and other youth organizations is how they can best influence youth to become productive and useful members of society. It has been estimated that 25% of United States' youth participate in high-risk activities which include heavy alcohol consumption, drug use, tobacco use, and failing to attend school or perform poorly at school (Boyd et al., 1992). Boyd, et al. (1992) said that the high percentage of delinquent youth indicates a lack of leadership and life skills such as working with others, communication, and other skills needed for adulthood.

Some researchers contest that enrollment in programs like 4-H, which is a main avenue for youth livestock project involvement, and others which are founded upon experiential learning are needed for youth to acquire life and leadership skills (Boyd, et al., 1992). The National FFA Organization, which is another avenue for youth livestock exhibition, has claimed the development of agricultural leadership skills as one of its chief aspirations since its establishment in 1928 (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). Since a primary aim of organizations like 4-H and FFA, who offer beef project exhibition programs, is youth leadership and life skills development, this study was conducted to explain the youth leadership life skills development impact of youth participating in the exhibition of beef projects.

Literature Review

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is one of the key theoretical bases for this study. The 4-H youth organization realizes the development of life skills through experiential learning (i.e. livestock projects) as the foundation of its programming (Boyd et al., 1992). Young people must be presented opportunities to investigate career options and develop essential life skills to become constructive members of society (Shurson & Lattner, 1991). 4-H and other youth organizations like the National FFA Organization recognize experiential learning activities such as livestock projects as an avenue to the development of life skills.

Experiential education is not a new idea to the realm of education. Numerous individuals in academia have proposed learning models that resembled experiential learning. John Dewey, who is perhaps the most influential scholar in education of the twentieth century (Smith, 1997),

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strongly believed in offering experiential learning opportunities to learners (Richardson, 1994). Dewey (1938) stated:

> …all principles by themselves are abstract. They become concrete only in the consequences which result from their application. Just because the principles set forth are so fundamental and far-reaching, everything depends upon the interpretation given them as they are put into practice in the school and the home. (p. 6)

In addition, Dewey believed that a worthwhile education should entail purpose for society and the student learner. The value of an experience is determined by present and future impacts on an individual and the degree of societal influence (Neill, 2005). Furthermore, Dewey (1938) remarked that "there is an intimate process of actual experience and education" (p. 7). John Dewey was an educator who believed, rather than teaching abstract content, individuals should be given learning opportunities which are expressly in touch with reality (Wulff-Risner & Stewart, 1997).

Leadership and Life Skill Development

In addition to experiential learning, the body of research in leadership and life skills development was also a theoretical anchor for this study. As is mentioned above, Miller (as cited in Dormody & Seevers, 1994) defined youth leadership life skills development (YLLSD) as the "development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life" (p. 65). In addition, Miller separated the leadership life skills students developed through involvement in the 4-H program into seven categories which include decision making, relationships, learning, management, understanding self, group processes, and communications. Using Miller's categorical breakdown of leadership life skills, Dormody, Seevers, and Clason (1993) developed the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS).

Hendricks (1996), using the Targeting Life Skills model defined life skills as "abilities individuals can learn that will help them to be successful in living a productive and satisfying life (¶ 3)." Boyd, et al. (1992) described examples of leadership life skills as communication, decision making, and self-understanding. These skills and others are those which will enable youth to transition and function as an adult.

Impacts of Livestock Exhibition

Many youth leadership organizations have worked to instill life skills in young people through various activities. The 4-H organization desires its members to receive more than just trophies and money for their achievements, but also gain essential life skills that will enable them to become better citizens (Rusk, et al., 2003). One of the chief aims of the National FFA Organization has been to develop agricultural leadership skills in its members (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). School administrators, parents, and youth organizations have raised the question of the legitimacy of youth raising livestock projects as a means to develop leadership and life skills. Proprietors of the Cooperative Extension Service have also investigated the idea of life skill development in youth who exhibit livestock (Boleman, et al., 2005).

Rusk, et al. (2003) developed a study to determine project and life skills as a result of 4-H member's involvement with the beef, sheep and swine projects. The Rusk et al. study surveyed Indiana youth who exhibited 4-H animal projects. Results of the study indicated youth were able to accomplish project skills in the categories of sportsmanship, safety, animal grooming, and animal selection. The study's results also showed that 4-H members used responsibility skills developed from raising 4-H animal projects to complete homework (2003).

In a similar study Boleman, et al. (2005) found that livestock exhibitors indicated that they were developing life skills as a result of exhibiting livestock. The study used a questionnaire to survey 4-H members exhibiting beef, swine, sheep, and goats. Those surveyed indicated that accepting responsibility, setting goals, and developing self-discipline were the top three life skills influenced by exhibiting the beef project. Those involved with the swine project reported accepting responsibility; developing self-discipline; and self motivation as top life skills influenced by the project.

Davis, Keith, Williams, and Fraze (2000) developed a qualitative study that sought to validate the benefits of livestock exhibition. After conducting interviews of 4-H youth exhibitors, parents, advisors and show officials, the researchers identified six themes that resulted from competition through the exhibition of livestock. They were: social relations; character; family; competition; new cultures and environments; and finance for education. A similar study was conducted using a case study of an autistic child who exhibited livestock (Davis, Akers, Doerfert, Keith, & McGregor, 2005). The research reported similarities between the special needs exhibitor studied and main stream exhibitors who participated in earlier research studies. Such themes regarding the benefits of livestock exhibition emerged as social relations, family, and responsibility/knowledge and care of animals.

Shih and Gamon (1997), in a study to assess the educational needs of the extension's 4-H beef program found positive results concerning life skill development. The study showed that among life-skill topics rated by more that 50% of experts as Very Important (VI) or Extremely Important (EI), honesty, money management, pride in a job well done, and self-confidence were at the top of the list.

In a study conducted by Carol K. Ward (1996), New Jersey 4-H alumni were asked to respond to perceived impacts of exhibiting livestock projects on life skill development. Life skills such as spirit of inquiry, decision making, ability to accept responsibility, maintain records, and public speaking were surveyed by respondents. The life skill *ability to accept responsibility* received the highest score by respondents. The study indicated that participation in the 4-H animal science program does have a positive affect on life skill development.

Sawer (as cited in Rusk, et al., 2003) conducted a study involving Oregon 4-H beef, sheep, and swine members which identified key life skills being developed. Responsibility, decision-making, communication, getting along with others, and leadership were all life skills that were reported as being developed by livestock exhibitors.

Research examining the Iowa 4-H swine project effects on life skill and subject matter skill development (Gamon & Dehegehus-Hetzel;1994) reported that swine exhibitors perceived

that participation in the project had a positive effect on their life skill development. Parental support may play a role in life skill development of youth involved with livestock projects. Gamon and Dehegehus-Hetzel (1994) also discovered that respondents rated parents as their top source of information regarding the swine project. The researchers also stated that parents played a strong part in swine project participant's decision to enroll in the project.

Relationship between Livestock and YLLSD

A greater number of studies have been published that have considered relationships between related livestock activities and youth life skills development. Rusk, et al. (2002) said that the 4-H livestock program not only benefits youth in teaching proper livestock evaluation, but also profits youth by the development of life skills. The Indiana study surveyed 4-H livestock program alumni on the influences of the program on personal growth and career preparation. Alumni rated the ability to verbally defend a decision, livestock industry knowledge, oral communication, and decision making as skills having been most influenced by the 4-H livestock judging program.

A study conducted by Nash and Sant (2005) investigated the Idaho 4-H livestock judging program, and life skill development results were again positive. The participants involved in the study rated the influence of the 4-H livestock judging activity on specific life skills. The surveyed population consisted of those who had participated in livestock (including dairy) or horse judging in Idaho. Data concluded that the program was greatly influential in animal industry knowledge development and showed at least moderate influence on development of beneficial life skills as related to workforce preparedness.

Shurson and Lattner (1991) surveyed swine project members in Ohio about swine production knowledge, career knowledge, and life skill development. In measuring life skill development, respondents revealed they learned the most about sportsmanship and working with others. Accepting responsibility, communicating with others, and making decisions were also listed as life skills developed by swine project participants.

Predictors and Correlates of Life and Leadership Development

Two of the primary objectives of this research study were to determine the livestock exhibition variables and exhibitor demographic variables that may influence youth leadership and life skills development. Figure 1 serves as a conceptual model of variables that the literature indicated may influence youth leadership life skills development among livestock project exhibitors.

According to the literature, YLLSD is affected by the years an exhibitor is involved with a livestock project. Sawer (as cited in Rusk et al., 2003) determined that 4-H livestock members demonstrated an evolution of development the longer they were involved in a project. A study assessing the impact of exhibiting beef, swine, sheep, and goat 4-H projects on life skills development found low, positive relationships between years of exhibition and 13 specified life skills. Additional species has also been a variable influencing YLLSD. According to Boleman,

et al. (2005) different leadership skills were apparent depending upon the type of species shown (i.e. beef exhibitors scored higher than goat exhibitors on organizational skills and goal setting).

Age and gender have also been variables of interest in leadership development studies. While attempting to describe significant relationships between self-perceived leadership life skills development of Iowa FFA members and age, Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) reported that age ($r = .27$) ranked third in significance behind FFA leadership activities ($r = .37$) and years of membership in the FFA ($r = .31$). Gender is variable that is sometimes found to be related to leadership development. In terms of gender as a correlate of leadership development, Seevers and Dormody (1994; 1995) found gender explained 0.9% and 1.8% of variance in YLLSDS scores when controlling for self-esteem, years in 4-H, age, ethnicity, and place of residence in two separate studies. However, researchers concluded that gender, along with other demographic variables, was not related to leadership life skills development.

The FFA and 4-H organizations have been popular activity-based groups in which researchers have found evidence of leadership life skill development. Boyd, et al. (1992) found that participation in the 4-H program was positively correlated to perceived leadership life skill development of Texas 4-H members. In addition, they found that 4-H youth rated their leadership life skills development higher than youth who were non-members. In their 1994 study, Seevers and Dormody found that leadership activities participated in by senior 4-H members proved to be an important predictor of youth leadership life skills development. The National FFA Organization and its activities has also been a contributor of leadership and life skill development among youth (Ricketts & Newcomb, 1982; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). For example, Dormody and Seevers (1994) found that participation in FFA leadership activities displayed a weak positive relationship with youth leadership life skill development, which explained 2.3 percent of the variance in YLLSDS scores.
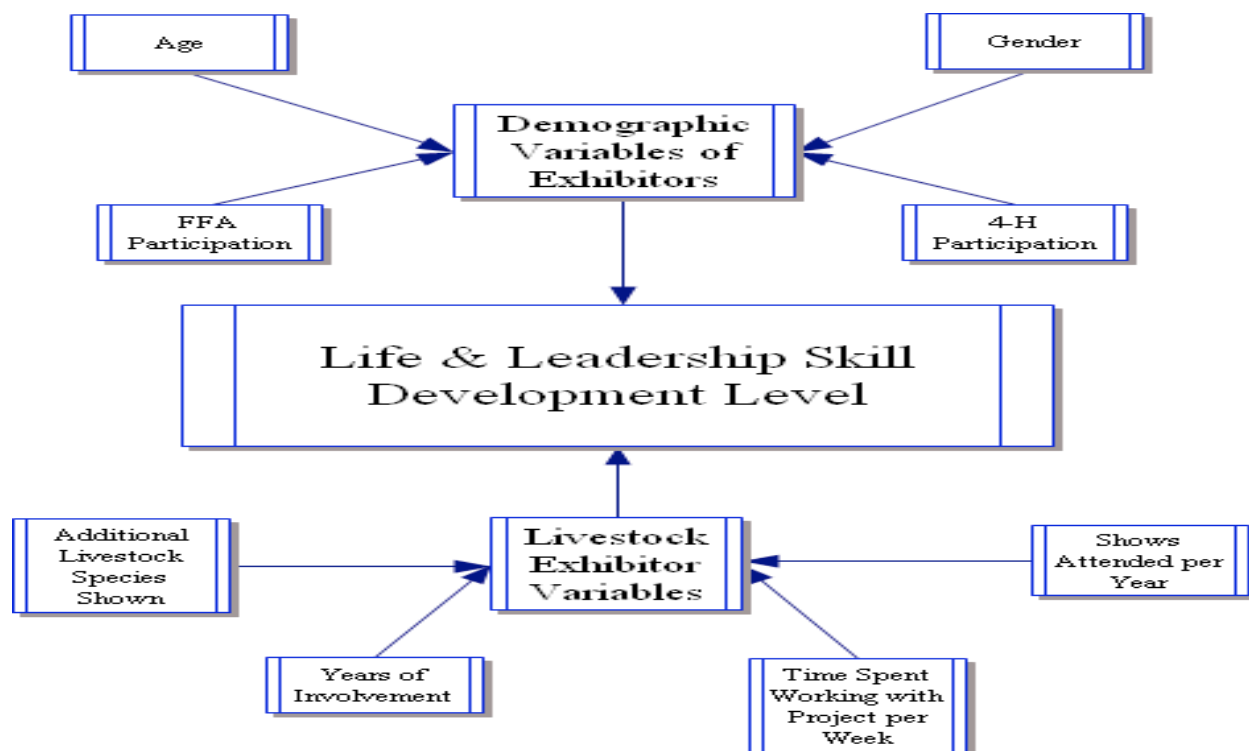
Figure 1.
Conceptual Model of Factors Impacting YLLDS Development of Beef Cattle Project
Exhibitors (Walker, 2006).

Methods

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the youth leadership and life skill
development of beef project exhibitors. This study specifically sought to:

- Describe National Junior Angus Association members by their age, gender, FFA
  participation, 4-H participation, and influence of significant individuals on members'
  decision to participate in the beef project.
- Describe the self-perceived youth leadership life skills development of National Junior
  Angus Association members as a result of involvement in the beef project.
- Determine the relationship between the self-perceived youth leadership life skills
  development of National Junior Angus Association members and the livestock exhibition
  variables; additional species shown, shows per year, years of involvement, and time spent
  working with project.
- Determine the relationship between the self-perceived youth leadership life skills
  development of National Junior Angus Association members and their age, gender, FFA
  participation, and 4-H participation.

This study was conducted with the authorization and support of the American Angus
Association. This study was conducted with members of the National Junior Angus Association.
Implications and conclusions from this study could benefit both the National Junior Angus

Association as well as young people around the nation. Leadership development is a primary focus of the National Junior Angus Association (NJAA). The Junior Activities Department of the American Angus Association (AAA) began in 1956 in an effort to encourage young people's involvement and increase proficiency with Angus steer and heifer calf projects. Today the Junior Activities Department of the AAA has enlarged its' purposes by helping junior members develop character, skills, and leadership potential through the offering of a variety of activities, services, and projects for members to participate in. The leadership nature of the NJAA and its large population size were primary reasons for targeting the Association for this study.

This descriptive and *ex post facto* study contacted the National Junior Angus Association (NJAA) and contractually obtained a population frame of NJAA members ($N = 4,228$), ages 18-21. A sample size of 374 was needed for the decided upon confidence interval of ± 4.84 in order to represent the population. A simple-random sample was taken from the accessible population of NJAA members ($n = 374$) using the random sample generator function of SPSS.

Given the literature review and subsequent conceptual model of factors impacting the YLLDS of beef project exhibitors, the independent variables in this study were gender, age, FFA participation, 4-H participation, additional species shown, shows attended per year, years of project involvement, time spent working with project, and level of influence specific individuals had on youth's decision to exhibit a beef project. The dependent variable represented in this study was total self-perceived youth leadership life skill development (YLLSD).

Survey implementation followed Dillman's (2000) system of five compatible contacts. The pre-post card mailing was conducted on May 17, 2006 (1st contact). Twenty-three days later the first survey packet was sent out containing YLLSDS (Dormody, et al., 1993) survey, demographic survey, consent forms, and a stamped addressed return envelope (2nd contact). Approximately three weeks later a reminder post-card was mailed (3rd contact). On October 2, 2006 a second survey packet was mailed (4th contact). The final data collection was administered, again by mail, on November 3, 2006 (5th contact). The complete duration of the study lasted from May 10, 2006 to December, 2006.

The total youth leadership life skills development level was determined by participants scores obtained on the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) (Dormody, et al., 1993). The instrument listed 30 specific leadership life skills and used a four-point summated rating scale ranging from 0 to 3, to measure the amount of leadership skill improvement gained as a result of their beef project experiences. YLLSDS scores were totaled by determining the percentage correct out of a possible score of 90. According to the authors, the YLLSDS was assessed for face and content validity by University of New Mexico faculty representing a broad spectrum of professional backgrounds. In addition, the assessment tool was field tested on 262 New Mexico senior FFA members using a stratified random sample. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient generated from the field test was .98.

The second tool used in the study was a researcher-developed demographic survey which consisted of questions pertaining to livestock exhibitor variables (species, shows per year, years of involvement, level of competition, time spent working with project/week, and influence of specific individuals on youth's decision to exhibit a beef project) and further leadership

involvement and personal characteristics (gender, age, FFA participation, 4-H participation). Because the demographic instrument mostly analyzed personal attributes, which is known to produce "very little measurement error" (Salant & Dillman, 1994, p. 87), reliability was not established for the demographic questionnaire.

There were 102 respondents from the sample of 344 possible participants resulting in a response rate of approximately 30%. Due to specific regulations given by the NJAA, neither email addresses nor phone numbers were obtainable. Therefore, follow-up contacts were restricted to reminders and additional surveys through the mail. According to Miller and Smith (1983), one can control for non-response by comparing late respondents to early respondents to determine if they are similar. Late respondents ($n = 26$) were analyzed and compared to early respondents ($n = 76$) who had completed and returned surveys. Key variables of the study were analyzed using Independent sample t-tests and there were no significant differences between early and late-respondents ($t = .440, p > .05$).

Descriptive statistics were used to report the demographic data of survey respondents. Means and standard deviations of YLLSD scores were reported. Independent samples t-tests and one-way analysis of variance procedures were used to identify differences in youth leadership life skills development scores as a function of age, gender, FFA participation, and 4-H participation. Pearson's product moment (r) statistics were conducted to identify relationships between youth leadership life skills development and various independent variables.

Findings

Objective One: Describe National Junior Angus Association Members by their Age, Gender, FFA Participation, 4-H Participation, and Influence of Significant Individuals on Members' Decision to Participate in the Beef Project.

NJAA members' reported age ranged from 18-21, $M = 18.98, SD = .88$. Of the 101 respondents, 37 (36.6%) were 18 years old, 32 (31.7%) were 19 years old, 29 (28.7%) were 20 years old, and 3 (3%) were 21 years old. The 18 year-old group was represented as the highest percentage age group (36.6%). Additionally, the majority of participants in this study were male ($n = 57$) 56.4%. Females ($n = 44$) made up 43.6% of the sample.

Respondents ($n = 101$) reported a range of zero to seven years of participation in FFA with an average of $M = 3.19, SD = 2.22$. The highest frequency ($f = 32$) of FFA participation reported by respondents was 4 years at 31.7%. The second highest frequency ($f = 27$) of FFA participation was that of non-participants at 26.5%. 16 respondents (15.8%) reported 5 years of FFA participation (See Table 1). Years in 4-H reported by respondents ($n = 101$) ranged from zero to sixteen years with an average of $M = 8.52, SD = 3.42$. Almost 29 percent of respondents ($n = 29$) reported 10 years in 4-H while 14.9% ($n = 15$) reported 9 years in 4-H. Seven respondents reported zero years in 4-H.

Table 1. Frequencies and Percentages for Years in FFA and 4-H ($n = 101$)

	f	%
Years in FFA		

1	1	1.0
2	5	5.0
3	7	6.9
4	32	31.7
5	16	15.8
6	8	7.9
7	5	5.0
Total	101	100.0
Years in 4-H		
0	7	6.9
1	1	1.0
2	1	1.0
3	2	2.0
4	3	3.0
5	3	3.0
6	5	5.0
7	4	4.0
8	6	5.9
9	15	14.9
10	29	28.7
11	14	13.9
12	6	5.9
13	4	4.0
16	1	1.0
Total	101	100.0

On a scale of 1-5 (1 = Not Influential At All and 5 = Essential) respondents reported parents as being the most influential on their decision to exhibit a beef project with an average of $M = 4.41, SD = .87$ (Table 2). Of the 101 respondents, 62 (61.4%) recorded parents as an "Essential" influence on their decision to exhibit a beef project. The influence of siblings was reported as "Moderately Influential" with an average $M = 3.02, SD = 1.56$ (n = 98).

Table 2. Influence of Significant Individuals on Decision to Exhibit a Beef Project ($n = 101$)

Individual	M	SD
Parents	4.41	0.87
Siblings	3.02	1.56
Agriculture Teacher	2.71	1.40
Friends	2.61	1.27
4-H Agent	2.40	1.28
Other	1.65	1.73

Note. Summated rating scale ranged from 1-5 with 1 = Not Influential At All and 5 = Essential

Objective Two: Describe the Self-perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development of National Junior Angus Association Members as a Result of Involvement in the Beef Project

The composite mean YLLSDS score was $M = 73.02, SD = 13.77$. YLLSDS scores ranged from a low score of 40 to a maximum score of 90. Using the scale, 0 = *No Gain,* 1 = *Slight Gain,* 2 = *Moderate Gain,* and 3 = *A Lot of Gain*, individual survey items were also analyzed revealing the top three item means in terms of YLLSD gained were *show a responsible attitude* ($M = 2.71, SD = .51$); *can set goals* ($M = 2.64, SD = .63$); and *can set priorities* ($M = 2.60, SD = .61$). The survey statements receiving the lowest item means were *trust other people* ($M = 2.07, SD = .99$), *can express feelings* ($M = 2.11, SD = .86$), and *am sensitive to others* ($M = 2.13, SD = .83$) (Table 3). All individual survey items reported an average $M = 2.07$ or higher, indicating that there was at least moderate gain as a result of the beef project.

Objective Three: Determine the Relationship between the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development of National Junior Angus Association Members and the Livestock Exhibition Variables, Additional Species, Shows Per Year, Years of Involvement, and Time Spent Working with Project

The overall mean score for years of involvement in the beef project was $M = 8.31$ ($SD = 3.11$) with a range of 1-14 years. A Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, according to Miller (1998), of 0.01-0.09 represents a negligible relationship; 0.10-0.29 represents a low relationship; and 0.30-.0.49 represents a moderate relationship. Years of involvement in the beef project shows a positive, but low relationship with total YLLSDS score ($r = .21, p<.05$).

Forty eight (47.5%) respondents reported working with their beef project either 5-8 hours or 9-12 hours per week. Hours per Week spent working with the beef project was related to YLLSDS scores ($r = .309, p<.01$) revealing a positive and moderate relationship.

Table 3. Ratings of Individual Life Skills items (*n* = 102)

Life Skills	*M*	*SD*
Show a responsible attitude	2.71	.51
Can set goals	2.64	.63
Can set priorities	2.60	.61
Can handle mistakes	2.56	.65
Can be flexible	2.55	.57
Can solve problems	2.55	.62
Can delegate responsibility	2.54	.73
Get along with others	2.54	.68
Have a positive concept	2.52	.62
Have good manners	2.52	.74
Can be tactful	2.50	.60
Respect others	2.50	.70
Have friendly personality	2.50	.74
Use rational thinking	2.47	.71
Can listen effectively	2.42	.70
Recognize the worth of others	2.41	.65
Can clarify my values	2.40	.72
Can use info to solve problems	2.39	.71
Can determine needs	2.38	.68
Consider input from all group members	2.37	.73
Can be honest with others	2.35	.86
Can consider alternatives	2.32	.73
Can select alternatives	2.32	.70
Consider the needs of others	2.30	.76
Created an atmosphere of acceptance	2.29	.75
Am open to change	2.19	.77
Am open minded	2.16	.80
Am sensitive to others	2.13	.83
Can express feelings	2.11	.86
Trust other people	2.07	.99

Note. Summated rating scale ranged from 0-3. No Gain = 0, Slight Gain = 1, Moderate Gain = 2, A Lot of Gain = 3

Table 4. Hours per week spent working with beef project (*n* = 101)

Hours per Week	*f*	%
1-4	13	12.9
5-8	20	19.8
9-12	28	27.7
13-16	17	16.8
17-20	15	14.9
more than 20 hours per week	8	7.9
Total	101	100.0

Forty eight (47.5%) respondents reported attending 1-4 shows per year while 26 (25.7%) respondents reported attending 5-8 shows per year (Table 5). Shows per year was positively and moderately related to YLLSD scores ($r = .376$, $p<.001$).

Table 5. Shows attended per year (*n* =101)

Shows per Year	*f*	%
1-4	48	47.5
5-8	26	25.7
9-12	14	13.9
13-16	10	9.9
more than 20	3	3.0
Total	101	100.0

Over 53 percent of study participants indicated that they exhibited swine; 39.6 percent indicated exhibiting sheep; 31.6 percent indicated exhibiting horses; 21.7 percent indicated exhibiting goats; and 19.8 percent indicated exhibiting dairy (Table 6). Additional livestock species shown was not related to youth leadership life skills development in this study.

Table 6. Additional species shown by beef exhibitors (*n* = 101)

Species Shown	*f*	%
Swine	45	53.4
Sheep	33	39.6
Horse	27	31.6
Goat	17	21.7
Dairy	11	19.8

Objective Four: Determine the Relationship between the Self-perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development of National Junior Angus Members and their Age, Gender, FFA Participation, and 4-H Participation

There were more males (*n* = 57), who participated in this study than females (*n* = 44). The YLLSDS composite mean score for males was *M* = 69.32, *SD* = 14.24 and *M* = 77.84, *SD* = 11.75 for females (Table 7). Overall, females scored significantly, *t* (98) = -3.154, *p*<.01, higher than males on the YLLSDS in this study.

Table 7. YLLSDS and gender differences

Gender	*f*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
male	56	69.32	14.24	-3.15	96	.002
female	42	77.85	11.76			

The average age of the participants in this study was *M* = 18.98, *SD* = .88. The ages of the participants ranged from 18-21. Eighteen year-old participants' (*M* = 73.18, *SD* = 13.23) youth leadership life skills development scale scores ranges from 50 to 90 out of 90. Nineteen (*M*

= 76.41, *SD* = 11.14), 20 (*M* = 68.82, *SD* = 16.78), and 21 (*M* = 73.66, *SD* = 11.01) year-old participants had scores ranging from 45 to 90, 41 to 90, and 61 to 81, respectively. As revealed in Table 8, 19-year-old participants (*M* = 76.41, *SD* = 11.14) scored the highest, and the 20-year-old participants (*M* = 68.82, *SD* = 16.78) scored the lower than any of the other age groups. One-way analysis of variance procedures revealed that YLLSDS score was not dependent on age, $F(94) = 1.51$, $p>.05$.

Table 8. YLLSDS by age

Age	*f*	*M*	*SD*
18	36	73.18	13.23
19	31	76.41	11.14
20	28	68.82	16.78
21	3	73.66	11.01
YLLSDS Total	98	72.97	13.83

Years of participation in FFA ranged from 0-7, with an average *M* = 3.19, *SD* = 2.22. Years of participation in the FFA was not related to YLLSDS, $F(91) = .55$, $p>.05$. Years of participation in 4-H ranged from 0-16, with an average *M* = 8.52, *SD* = 3.42. Years of participation in 4-H and YLLSDS was also not related, $F(83) = .80$, $p>.05$.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

Conclusions

The beef project experience of NJAA members was effective in developing youth leadership and life skills. YLLSDS scores were high. NJAA members scored higher on the YLLSDS than participants in similar studies (*M* = 73.02, *SD* = 13.77). Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) used the YLLSDS instrument to study the self-perceived youth leadership life skills of Iowa FFA members, and they reported an overall YLLSDS mean score of *M* = 62.65, *SD* = 17.83. In comparison, a study by Dormody and Seevers (1994) reported YLLSDS scores having a mean of *M* = 64.2, *SD* = 17.7.

National Junior Angus Association members developed the leadership life skills of *show a responsible attitude, can set goals*, and *can set priorities* to greatest degree of all other skills listed on the instrument. It should be noted that all individual survey items reported an average *M* = 2.07 or higher, indicating that NJAA members showed at least *Moderate Gain* in each area youth leadership life skills development as a result of their beef project exhibition experience. According to Dormody, et al. (1993), YLLSDS values from 31-60 might be determined as moderate development and scores ranging from 61 to 90 as high development.

NJAA members reported parents as an *essential* influence and siblings as *moderately influential* on their decision to participate in the beef project. There was low, but positive relationship between years of exhibiting a beef project and youth leadership life skills development, and there was a positive and moderate significant relationship between shows per year attended and youth leadership life skills development. There was also a positive and

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moderate significant relationship between hours per week spent working with the beef project and youth leadership life skills development.

As with other youth leadership development studies (Ricketts, Osborne, & Rudd, 2004; Zielinski, 1999), there was a positive and moderate relationship between gender and youth leadership life skills development. In fact, females scored significantly higher on YLLSDS than males in this study. Increase in age did not render higher total YLLSDS scores, and the relationship between years of participation in FFA/4-H and youth leadership life skills development was statistically insignificant.

Discussion

Respondents reported parents as being the most influential on their decision to exhibit a beef project with an average of $M = 4.41$, $SD = .87$ using a summated rating scale ranging from 1-5 with 1 = *Not Influential At All* and 5 = *Essential*. Of the 101 respondents, 62 (61.4%) recorded parents as an *Essential* to their decision to exhibit a beef project. This finding was consistent with Gamon and Dehegedus-Hetzel's (1994) study which researched swine project skill development among Iowa 4-Hers. The researchers reported that parents played a highly influential role in the youth's decision to be involved in the swine project. Secondly, siblings was reported as *Moderately Influential* on exhibitors decision to participate in the beef project with an average of $M = 3.02$, $SD = 1.56$. The findings in this study regarding influential individuals may perhaps indicate the importance of family involvement in the beef livestock exhibition projects and subsequent youth leadership and life skill development.

All participants scored 40 and above ($M = 73.02$, $SD = 13.77$) for the possible range of 0-90 on the YLLSDS. NJAA members responses reported a YLLSDS mean value of $M = 73.02$, which is considered by Dormody, et al., (1993) as high leadership and life skills development. The high scores in leadership development may suggest that experiences in the beef project are playing a part in the youth leadership and life skills development that researchers (Brock, 1992; Fox, et al., 2003; Boyd et al.,1992) find highly important.

The top three grand item means were reported as show *a responsible attitude* ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .51$), *can set goals* ($M = 2.64$, $SD = .63$), and *can set priorities* ($M = 2.60$, $SD = .61$. The item *shows a responsible attitude* reveals that beef project exhibitors appear to gain greater responsibility through the exhibition of the beef project. This was consistent with the findings of Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) who found *show a responsible attitude* as one of the top three grand item mean scores in their study. In the Rusk, et al. (2003) study, forty-four percent of respondents indicated the use of the responsibility learned from raising livestock projects to complete homework and school projects punctually. Similarly, Boleman, et al. (2005) found *accepting responsibility* as the highest mean score value in their study of life skills gained from exhibiting livestock projects. In addition, a study conducted by Ward (1996) analyzing the influence of the 4-H Animal Science program on the development of life skills, discovered *ability to accept responsibility* as the highest scored life skill.

The low, but positive relationship between years of exhibiting beef and youth leadership life skills development is consistent with the findings of Boleman, et al. (2005) who found low,

positive relationships for all life skills surveyed and years of exhibiting livestock. The significant relationships between years of involvement in the beef project and the development of youth leadership life skills could be a result of the degree of experiences attained during years of beef exhibition. This relationship also suggests that the longer youth participates in the beef project, the more life skills they are likely to develop (Boleman et al, 2005).

There was also a positive and moderate significant relationship between hours per week spent working with the beef project and youth leadership life skills development. This finding and the positive and even stronger relationship between shows per year attended and youth leadership life skills development could be a function of experiences youth exhibitors are exposed to when participating in livestock shows. Whatever the case, this study insinuates that quite simply, the more shows a young person participants in and the more time a young person dedicates to the project, the more leadership and life skills are developed.

Females scored higher than males on the YLLSDS in the study. It seems that gender may be a variable related to youth leadership life skill development in beef project exhibitors. This is consistent with other studies (Ricketts, et al., 2004; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997; Dormody & Seevers, 1994) that have reported females outperforming males in the leadership development. Conversely, increase in age did not render higher total YLLSDS scores. This is also supported by other researchers who studied the effect of age on youth leadership life skills development (Dormody & Seevers, 1994). It is interesting to note that years of exhibiting beef, hours per week dedicated to the project, and even shows attended was related to leadership and life skill development, but that age and years of FFA and 4-H participation was not related to leadership development for beef exhibitors. This seems to call on parents, educators, and volunteers seeking to develop youth to encourage students to start early and participate in the beef project often as quantity and quality of experiences are important to leadership development.

Recommendations

Since participants perceived that the beef project experience developed their youth leadership life skills at such high levels, and the specific leadership life skills of *show a responsible attitude*, *can set goals*, and *can set priorities* were revealed as being developed to the greatest extent, agricultural education and extension professionals ought to heighten recruitment efforts to increase the level of participation in beef projects.

Findings from this study reported all YLLSDS items as increasing youth leadership life skills development at least moderately as a result of participation in the beef project. Thus, NJAA members are benefiting from exhibiting beef projects and these skills are enabling them to become both productive leaders and members of society. Beef breed organizations (i.e. American Angus Association), county extension agents, and agriculture teachers should consider recruitment strategies and opportunities for growth in their present livestock program to enable more youth to benefit from youth leadership development as result of livestock exhibition.

In this study, a positive and low relationship existed between years of exhibiting a beef project and youth leadership life skills development. Agriculture educators, extension professionals, and parents of livestock exhibitors should seek and encourage longevity among

participants in the beef project to ensure greater leadership life skills development. Because of the relationship between shows per year attended and youth leadership life skills development, parents and agriculture educators ought to consider providing more opportunities during the show season for beef project exhibition. Parents and agriculture extension professionals should also be aware of the possibility that the more hours per week spent working with a beef project, the greater chance of leadership life skills development. This awareness should encourage youth exhibitors to invest greater amounts of time in their livestock project.

Again, females in this study scored higher on YLLSDS than males. From the findings of this study, it may be that female livestock exhibitors develop leadership life skills just as well or better than male livestock exhibitors. Consequently, livestock exhibition professionals, agriculture educators, and parents should be careful to avoid gender-bias when promoting livestock exhibition projects. Lastly, FFA and 4-H members may have developed leadership and life skills in other ways other than through the exhibition of livestock. Future research should determine why FFA and 4-H participation was not necessarily related to YLLSD.

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Leadership Education Strengthens Social Capital in Farming Communities

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Introduction

Our rural communities need more leaders. Our civic organizations are withering away and dying and fewer people are stepping-up to take on leadership positions. Many of our committees are dealing with consistent conflict and their goal-attainment is at an all-time low. Beginning in the 1960's Americans began to join less, trust less, give less and vote less. Over the past thirty years church attendance has gone down over 33%, involvement in community life has gone down over 35%, having friends over to the house has gone down over 45%, and participating in clubs and civic organizations has gone down over 50% (Putnam, 2000).

In many communities throughout rural Arkansas, people seem to be somewhat apathetic and/or overwhelmed when confronted with leadership responsibilities. Many family members state that they are too busy juggling their daily lives to participate in civic engagement, and others admit to a lack of confidence in their leadership abilities. In order to change this growing trend, the University of Arkansas Cooperative Extension Service (UACES) teamed up with the Arkansas Farm Bureau (ARFB) to provide free leadership programming for young farmers and ranchers (those under age 40), as well as their spouses and other interested parties within the community.

Background

The curriculum for this course was developed under the leadership program entitled *ConnectAR. ConnectAR* is a leadership educational program that was designed to help strengthen the skills of lay-leaders and future leaders throughout Arkansas. *ConnectAR* leadership

curriculum is developed for the use of Extension Specialists and County Agents, so that they may offer leadership programming to their clientele. Participants of *ConnectAR* programs learn ways to positively impact their community. They learn how to communicate effectively, inspire trust and cooperation, manage conflict, cope with criticism, identify and adapt to new challenges, and much more.

How It Works

To develop their problem solving and conflict resolution skills, the participants who take the *ConnectAR* leadership course that is offered by the ARFB, meet once a month for three hours in the evening, for three months in a row. While using experts to facilitate a roundtable process of group discussion, participants spend time analyzing local, state, and national issues of the day. They determine who the competing forces are within a particular issue, who stands to gain or lose from different outcomes of an issue, what the underlying motives and agendas are for each party involved, and who benefits from alliances.

- Participants were invited to join the 9-hour program via newsletter mailings, articles and ads within newspapers and local radio stations, and personal invitations from local administrators. Both the Cooperative Extension Service and Farm Bureau *Organization & Member* administrators worked to spread the word to young farmers and ranchers, and interested community residents.

- During the first class, participants have opportunity to work in small group discussions where they discuss economic indicators which are familiar to them, for example: school closings, job loss, need for new industry, and "new Wal-Mart in town." They are then introduced to tools and techniques that can use to assess more unfamiliar economic indicators, such as: population demographics, specific income

levels, teen pregnancy and infant mortality rates, number of female headed households, number of students with free and/or reduced lunches in their county's schools, source of farm income, etc. Through a process of inquiry and discussion, participants learn to sharpen their assessment skills while simultaneously discerning the strengths and weaknesses of their community.

- During the second and third, three-hour sessions, participants are exposed to guest speakers who have specialized knowledge about specific economic indicators. Some examples include: natural resources, infrastructure needs, public health, tourism, and water rights. During these sessions, specialists offer an overview of their specific subject-matter then interface with the group in order to engage them in problem-solving and role-playing activities.

Results to Date

In 2007, there were approximately 170 people who participated in the 9-hour leadership sessions from one of six different locations around the state of Arkansas. During their time together, participants synthesized the given topics, found common interests among the parties involved, and discussed practical ways to address specific problems. Through this type of networking, new dialogues and relationships were established. Participants stated that the program increased their confidence in their leadership abilities. They also stated that their knowledge of community issues and resources, and their ability to take on more leadership roles within their community, had been increased. All of these outcomes will inevitably increase the *Social Capital* within their respective communities.

Conclusion

Social Capital is the byproduct of positive connections among people, which together add value to a society similar to that of financial capital. By increasing the networking capabilities of rural residents, there will be positive interactions and a deeper level of commitment to one another. This heightened sense of community will enable residents to establish or renew their commitment to their community's overall health, which will increase their community development efforts.

Participants of the *Association of Leadership Educators, Inc* conference who attend this session will learn how this type of rural leadership programming can strengthen the health and social capital of farming communities. They will also learn how to replicate the process of collaborating with organizations like Farm Bureau, and the methods for, and successes of, a collaborative leadership program that can be used with rural farm families, lay-leaders and grass-roots participants.

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Searching for Leadership:
Application of Leadership Theory through Orienteering

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Introduction/Background

Experiential education is defined as "a philosophy and methodology in which educators purposefully engage with learners in direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills and clarify values (Association of Experiential Educators, n.d., What is experiential education?). In experiential education, students are provided with an opportunity to explore and create knowledge regarding a certain concept themselves instead of being instructed about it. In addition, true experiential education must involve a reflection component. In fact, the reflection piece is critical; it aids in the development of new skills, attitudes, theories or ways of thinking (Kraft & Sakofs, 1988).

Outdoor education is one form of experiential education. In fact, it has been described as a method of experiential learning that utilizes all the senses (Priest, 1990). However, the concept of outdoor education is not new. Since the early 1900s, educators have recognized the value of educational settings in which students can learn and discover on their own. As early as 1943, L.B. Sharp touted the value of outdoor education with the following statement:

> That which ought and can best be taught inside the classroom should there be taught, and
> that which can best be learned through experience dealing directly with native materials
> and real life situations outside the school should there be learned (p.363).

Indeed, using the outdoors and natural environment is often a way to engage students in learning. Neill (2003) expounded on that belief by describing outdoor education as a way to engage small groups of people, under the direction of a facilitator or leader, in adventurous personal growth activities. Students involved in experiential learning practices "are engaged intellectually,

emotionally, socially, soulfully and/or physically. This involvement produces a perception that the learning task is authentic (Association of Experiential Educators, n.d., What is experiential education?). Rohnke (1989) also identified that adventure component of outdoor education initiatives, citing the effectiveness of such activities in helping to develop team and group skills in both youth and adults.

In effort to capitalize on the benefits of experiential learning, while utilizing the natural environment available, a group-based orienteering exercise was developed for use in a graduate level Agricultural Education course at the University of Missouri. During the Summer 2006 semester, this exercise was conducted, involving a total of 12 students enrolled in a course titled, Program Leadership and Administration. The three-week course in leadership addressed topics such as leadership characteristics and traits, leadership styles, situational leadership, stages of team development and group dynamics. As a culminating application of knowledge learned, a group orienteering exercise provided students the opportunity to personally experience leadership theories and concepts discussed in class.

The activity was inspired, in part, by the use of a compass as a metaphor for values in the book "The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People" (Covey, 1989). In that book, Covey described how well-defined personal values provide consistent guidance as a person navigates through life, just as a compass provides a person with the direction of travel during a journey. In the class, the metaphor was expounded upon to include the map and location markers to represent objectives and benchmarks to be reached as a person works toward achieving goals.

How It Works

Following instruction and class activities related to relevant topics, students were randomly assigned to groups of three or four. In preparation for the orienteering experience the

groups completed a series of team development activities and were provided instruction in orienteering. The activity took place at a local state park with an orienteering course laid out and maintained by the state department of conservation. Each group was provided with a topographical map identifying the orienteering course, an instruction sheet listing the control points to be located by the group and a compass. Each group was instructed to locate a total of six control points of varying levels of difficulty.

Immediately following the orienteering exercise, a celebration lunch was provided by department faculty at the park. During the luncheon, the course instructor facilitated a discussion in which students reflected upon their personal experiences in relationship to leadership concepts and theories learned in class. Specific situations and challenges that arose throughout the orienteering exercise were examined and connected with course content. The thoroughness with which this activity was discussed enhanced its value to students and made the application more relevant.

Results to Date

Based on the reflective conversation conducted at the conclusion of the activity and written feedback provided by students, it was concluded that this activity was educationally effective as well as recreationally enjoyable. Specific comments received from students included:

- "The orienteering exercise was a good leadership and team exercise because it allowed natural leaders to emerge and a team to develop through the course of the activity. In regard to leadership, in a class of many strong leaders, each member of the team had an opportunity to find an aspect of leadership, or a certain trait perhaps, to contribute to the group. Team development began before the orienteering, in class as the teams were formed for the first time. The natural progression of team development continued throughout the experience."
- "While it was hard to believe we were receiving graduate credit while walking around in the woods, the application of this activity and the discussions of leadership that followed proved that this was an effective activity, and one of the most useful applications of this course."

- "I felt like the activity was very effective. As a group we demonstrated many of the leadership traits which we discussed in class, including communication when determining the best path to take, cooperation in making decisions, encouragement and motivation when someone made a good decision or found a marker, and loyalty to the group and our cause."
- "I believe the orienteering experience was a great application of what we have been learning in class. During the actual orienteering we did not consider what our leadership styles were or the traits each of us possessed but when it was time to reflect we were able to look back and see all of these things and how they changed based on the situation."

This activity will continue to be utilized in the Program Leadership and Administration graduate course. Additionally, with slight modifications, this activity may be used in an undergraduate leadership course in the future.

Conclusions/Recommendations

One of the advantages of orienteering, in comparison to other outdoor education opportunities, is that it is relatively inexpensive. Depending upon available community resources and potential partnerships, the cost of such an activity can be minimized greatly. By working with members of local civic groups, youth organizations and environmental foundations, many items could potentially be borrowed. Specifically, Boy Scout Troops or non-profit foundations which support state parks seem to be extremely valuable resources.

The total cost incurred for this activity was approximately $75.00. In order to provide sufficient equipment and materials for each group, it is recommended to allot one compass and map per group of three to four students. For this particular graduate course activity, three compasses were purchased at a local department store ($12.00) and three maps were purchased from Rock Bridge State Park ($5.00). In addition, funds were allocated ($60.00) for a celebration luncheon held in conjunction with the reflection activity. While the luncheon activity would not be a requirement of such an experiential experience, it allowed an opportunity for an extended reflection period and enhanced the team-building efforts of the course.

The success of this activity reiterates the importance of incorporating a variety of instructional methods into courses of higher education. Further, since the group of students involved in this experience had fairly extensive prior experience in leadership education because of their FFA involvement, the orienteering exercise served an innovative means to address important leadership concepts. None of the students had extensive orienteering experience.

Although leadership can be taught in many ways, the "learning by doing" mentality of experiential education seems to be especially effective (Dewey, 1938; Rohnke, 1989). In fact, an ancient Chinese Proverb reiterates that mentality… *"Tell me and I will forget. Show me and I may remember. Involve me and I will understand"* (Association of Experiential Educators, n.d., What is experiential education?). There is no doubt that the 12 students enrolled in the University of Missouri's Program Leadership and Administration course thoroughly understand the leadership concepts they learned and applied in the summer of 2006. The experiences they had while "Searching for Leadership" will certainly stay with them for years to come.

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Leadership Development through Experiential Learning
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Introduction
The United States and the world are facing many challenges and changes. Some of those issues are in the areas of social, technical, demographic, environmental, and economic. Zimmerman said one thing is certain, "the nation's ability to respond and prosper will depend on the quality of leadership demonstrated at all levels of society" (Zimmerman and Burkhardt, 2000, p. 2). One way to develop this leadership is through the use of experiential learning projects and internships. Bringle and Hatcher (1996) believe service learning plays a major role in the development of two things: the individual and the community. They found research that suggests that "service learning has a positive impact on personal, attitudinal, moral, social, and cognitive outcomes" (p. 223). They also believe that "emphasizing service has the potential to enrich learning and renew communities, but will also give 'new dignity to the scholarship of service'" (p. 221). This study attempts to further connect the idea of leadership development through experiential learning.

Purpose and Objectives
The purpose of this study was to conduct a thorough review of literature related to leadership development and experiential learning. The objectives were as follows:

1. Define key terms
2. Establish a need for leader development
3. Describe examples of experiential learning
4. Connect the need for leader development with the outcomes of experiential learning

Methods
Data for this study was gathered through a library search at Texas A&M University. Searches were conducted through databases including Proquest, ERIC, and Academic Search Premier. Search terms included "experiential learning," "service learning," "internships," "leadership development," and "leader development." The databases were accessed online, and articles were collected online. An Internet search was also conducted with the same search terms.

Findings

Leader/leadership development defined

Leadership development and leader development can be defined two different ways. There is much confusion as to which definition matches which term. Leader development is typically an emphasis on individual-based knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with an actual leadership position or a formal leadership role. Day (2000) explains the purpose of leader development as the following:

The primary emphasis of the overarching development strategy is to build the intrapersonal competence needed to form an accurate model of oneself, to engage in healthy attitude and identity development, and to use that self-model to perform effectively in any number of organizational roles (p. 585).

Organizations, businesses, or schools who invest in training for their employees or students are trying to protect their "human capital."

Leadership development, on the other hand, pertains to developing "social capital." This is done by "building networked relationships among individuals that enhance cooperation and resource exchange in creating organizational value" (Day, 2000, p. 586). Day goes on to define social capital as being based on "relationships, which are created through interpersonal exchange" (p. 586).

McCauley defines leadership development as "expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes" (McCauley and Douglas, 1998, p. 161). Leader development is based on the individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with formal leadership roles (Day, 2000).

Skills were one of the first areas of leadership studied. First there was the trait theory, and shortly after, people started to look at particular skills people needed in order to be a leader. Northouse (2004) says that the skills approach focuses on skills and abilities that can be developed. He says "skills imply what leaders can accomplish whereas traits imply who leaders are" (p. 36). He defines leadership skills as "the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals or objectives" (p. 36). It is very fitting, then, that traditionally, leadership development was conceptualized as an individual-level skill. It was thought that one could develop someone's leadership potential through training an individual. Day (2000) says they primarily trained that person in the areas of skills and abilities. This approach fails to show that there is more to leadership than just skills and abilities. It is a relationship between the "social and organizational environment" (Day, 2000). However, with more and more studies, researchers began to see that one could not study the leader without studying the followers and the situation. In his book, Northouse (2004) takes the reader through the history and timelines of leadership theories and models. What began with looking at only traits of leaders, the study of leadership has grown to encompass theories that deal with the situation and followers as well.

Today, leadership development encompasses more than just developing leaders who are believed to have certain desirable skills. Leadership is approached as a social process that engages everyone. In this way of thinking, everyone is considered a leader. Thus the goal of leadership development is to turn a group of individuals in a particular organization or work environment into a team. In order to truly make a difference in an organization or business, both the individual leader and collective leadership

development need to be taken into consideration when establishing training procedures (Day, 2000).

Experiential learning/internships defined

Experiential learning is not a new concept in today's educational world. John Dewey wrote about it early in the 20th century and David A. Kolb outlined an experiential learning model in 1984. Dewey launched the principles of experiential education as an established pedagogy. Kolb's model included four elements: concrete experience, observation and reflection, the formation of abstract concepts, and testing in new situations.
Kolb (1984) wrote:

> The learning process often begins with a person carrying out an action and seeing the effects of the action; the second step is to understand the effects of the action. The third step is to understand the action, and the last step is to modify the action given a new situation.

Kolb defined experiential learning as "a process linking education, work, and personal development" (Stedman, Rutherford, and Roberts, 2006).

Keith Morton said service learning is important because it allows students to get involved with their communities at both the high school and collegiate levels. He said it gives students many opportunities to give back to their communities, while learning at the same time. He said service learning focuses on two issues: the civic engagement of young people and the nature and quality of campus-community partnerships (Morton and Enos, 2002). Morton (1996) described two different types of academic courses involving service learning. One guides students in the process of reflecting on and learning from a project or activity they are already involved in; called service-centered courses. They other type of course has discipline and content objectives. With the inclusion of service, they can be more effectively reached. This type is referred to as content-centered.

Service-learning, whether it is through internships or experiential learning projects is becoming more widely seen and accepted in colleges and universities. Tens of thousands of faculty are engaging millions of college students in some form of service-learning practice every year. Universities are also receiving major federal and private funding to sustain and expand the growing service-learning movement (Butin, 2006). Bringle and Hatcher (2000) said that in the past 10 years, only the World Wide Web has grown faster than the service learning movement.

Many believe the growth in service-learning over the last ten years is due to a need and desire to build a stronger relationship between university students and the community with which they are a part of. "Higher education has begun to embrace a scholarship of engagement be it manifested as experiential education, service-learning, undergraduate research, community-based research, the scholarship of teaching and learning movement, or stronger relationships with local communities" (Butin, 2006, p. 473).

Butin (2006) said the service-learning movement "appears ideally situated within higher education" (p. 475). One can see service-learning in many aspects of collegiate learning. An increasing number of faculties are teaching using service-learning in a diverse range of academic courses. It is also being used by administrative positions and

university presidents are making mention of it in their speeches, on institutional homepages, and in marketing brochures.

Butin (2006) goes on to define the service learning factors used by most higher education institutions:

> (a) philosophy and mission (b) faculty support and involvement (c) student support and involvement (d) community participation and partnerships, and (e) institutional support. The objective of using service-learning practices and techniques is to "foster respect for and reciprocity with the communities that colleges and universities are all too often in but not of" (p. 476).

When defining service learning, Bringle and Hatcher (1996) say it is important to differentiate service learning from extracurricular voluntary service. They say service learning is a "course-based service experience that produces the best outcomes when meaningful service activities are related to course material through reflection activities such as directed writings, small group discussions, and class presentations" (p. 222).

Need for leadership

The United States and the world are facing many challenges and changes. Some of those issues are in the areas of social, technical, demographic, environmental, and economic. Zimmerman said one thing is certain, "the nation's ability to respond and prosper will depend on the quality of leadership demonstrated at all levels of society" (Zimmerman and Burkhardt, 2000, p. 2). Zimmerman believes America needs a new generation of leaders who can "bring about positive change in local, national, and international affairs" (Zimmerman and Burkhardt, 2000, p. 2).

Zimmerman and Burkhardt (2000) say that new methods of teaching leadership need to be developed and the definition of leadership needs to be broadened and thought of as a process for effective, positive social change. They say it is also important to look at leadership from different angles and broaden the scope of who exactly can be a leader. There is a great need for more leaders in more positions and there are people who are ready and capable to step up to those positions (Zimmerman and Burkhardt, 2000). Leadership development must become an integral part of a student's college education in order for him or her to be ready and able to take on the leadership roles that will be available when he or she enters the workforce.

Many organizations are using leadership development to gain an advantage on their competition in their selected field. They consider leadership development to be an investment and they are investing large amounts of money to train their employees.

Leadership development is not only taking place in colleges and universities, but in the corporate world as well. Fulmer (1997) says that almost every organization is trying to create leaders who are capable of helping the corporation shape a more positive future. Because of this, management training and education has become a big business. Annual corporate expenditures on training stand at $45 billion annually. Corporations are structuring these trainings to fit the weaknesses and needs of their employees. The highest cost of leadership development training comes from paying the staff who delivers the content. Many universities use their own staff to conduct the training.

Leadership development is changing. Along with having the right trainer, the organizations must be aware of their organizational needs. Organizations are looking for

new ideas and forms of leadership development in order to keep up with the competition in today's economy (Fulmer, 1997).

Gains from leadership development

Julian Barling and Tom Weber conducted a study called the *Effects of Transformational Leadership Training on Attitudinal and Financial Outcomes: A Field Experiment* (1996). In this study, they used a pretest-posttest control group to assess the effects of transformational leadership training.

They chose to use Bass's definition of transformational leadership which includes:

> charisma (providing a vision and a sense of mission, and raising followers' self-expectations), intellectual stimulation (helping employees emphasize rational solutions and challenge old assumptions), and individualized consideration (developing employees and coaching). Transformational leadership elevates leaders and helps followers achieve higher levels of organizational functioning (Bass, 1990).

They found that the subordinates of managers receiving the training perceived their managers as higher on intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration than subordinates of managers in the no-training control group. They also found that the training program exerted significant effects on subordinates' organizational commitments. Barling and Weber's research provides experimental evidence that "transformational leadership can result in changes in subordinates' perceptions of managers' leadership behaviors, subordinates' own commitment to the organization, and some aspects of financial performance" (Barling, Weber, and Kelloway, 1996, p. 831).

Mary Ryan says that some of the most valuable contributions to development in the undergraduate years are those contributions which foster personal and intellectual growth (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996). Undergraduates reach this growth through internships and service learning projects. Often times, they are put in real-world situations and are given much responsibility and freedom. As a result of internships, they leave school as well-rounded individuals, prepared to enter the workforce.

Internships and service learning have many purposes. The main purpose is to create what Ryan refers to as "lifelong learners" (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996, p. 1). Students learn in the classroom, no one is arguing against that. They acquire knowledge needed to perform tasks and come to conclusions when there is a problem. Service learning is focused on showing students how to continue learning once out of the classroom. These projects teach students that learning and knowledge is all around them. It also teaches them skills and abilities needed to be successful (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996).

Most people involved in service learning education say the overarching goal is to connect learning in the classroom through lectures and discussion with the real world experiences school is supposed to prepare them for. Service learning connects the two together and allows students the chance to gain more knowledge and experience than they would in the classroom (Steffes, 2004). Steffes (2004) says undergraduate research opportunities, internships and service learning projects give students "the knowledge and skills that will help them become effective workers and concerned, knowledgeable citizens after they graduate" (p. 43). Higher education critics claim that it is the role of universities and colleges to prepare students for the "real world."   Service learning proponents claim service learning projects and internships provide the connection to the

real world and should be an integral part of education (Steffes, 2004). More and more colleges and universities are adopting experiential education programs as part of the curriculum. Higher education is beginning to see the importance of experiential education, and in fact, some are even making it a degree requirement (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996).

Goals of experiential education

The goal of experiential education is to bridge the gap between the classroom and the "real world." It was designed to bridge the gap between classroom learning and knowledge that is needed in a "knowledge-based society." It has often been thought that college students learn how to learn while in school. Ryan calls the learning a process, not an outcome. She says the internship/service-learning experience teaches students lifelong learning (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996).

More and more research is being conducted to prove that service-learning can positively impact student outcomes. Butin found the scholarly studies show "service-learning to be a statistically significant practice in impacting, among other things, students' personal and interpersonal development, stereotype reduction, sense of citizenship, and academic learning" (Butin, 2006, p. 487). While much of the research is new, service-learning has been proven to positively impact students' development. Proponents of service-learning have taken a qualitative research approach to show that service-learning has "legitimate, consequential, and measurable outcomes in higher education" (Butin, 2006, p. 488).

Negative aspects of service-learning

Researchers are beginning to take a serious look at the benefits of service learning; however, there has only been one examination of the "enduring influence" that service learning has on students' identity development (Jones and Abes, 2004). Although service-learning is becoming accepted and more widely seen in academia, it is hard to tell the long-term effects of service-learning on the education system. Funding is always an issue with new programs and currently, the majority of service-learning programs are funded by "soft" short-term grants. This means that the funding is not permanent and could easily be taken away. Also, many faculty members are still unsure about the significance and worth service-learning will have on students' educational development. Some believe service-learning is too time-consuming and that traditional tenure and promotional committees will not take the impact of service learning seriously. If that is the case, teachers are much less likely to incorporate service-learning into their curriculum. Not only are fewer than half of all service-learning directors full-time, but also 46% of all service learning offices have annual budgets below $20,000. Considering these factors, service-learning is not secure in the educational system (Butin, 2006).

Along with budgeting issues, service-learning also faces a dilemma in regards to the quality or perceived quality of the teachers who decide to incorporate service-learning into their curriculum. It is used by the "least powerful and most marginalized" faculty, such as people of color, women, and the untenured. The fields they are teaching it in are considered the "softest" and most "vocational" disciplined fields (Butin, 2006). What Butin considers to be "soft" disciplined fields are ones such as English, education, or

management. "Hard" disciplined fields would be in the areas of chemistry, physics, and engineering.

Yet another problem with service-learning is that 83% of all faculty members at universities use lecturing as their primary form of instruction. Lecturing is considered to be the traditional form of teaching material to the students and many faculty members believe it is the only way. Because of this, few faculty members are likely to adopt service-learning practices. Service-learning requires projects and hands-on activities. This, as opposed to lecturing from PowerPoint or notes, is a very different way to present material to the students and teachers are often not eager to change their ways (Butin, 2006).

While there is literature that supports the statement that service learning practices helps students better understand themselves, cultural difference, and social justice, Butin says that only a select few students are exposed to service learning. He says they are White, sheltered, middle-class, single, without children, un-indebted, and between the ages of 18 and 24. He goes on to point out that those are not the demographics of higher education today, and that 20 years from now, the student population will be even more diverse (Butin, 2006).

Although data may exist that supports the future of service-learning, there are many more variables involved. Teachers have to be persuaded to accept service-learning. They are not automatically going to start teaching it just because the research says it will aid in student development. It does not take long for an instructor to find a method of teaching that works for him or her. Once they do, it is very hard to convince them to teach using other methods. Many of the faculty members have been in the profession for many years and have plenty of success stories from their former students (Butin, 2006). Service-learning advocates must find a way to fit in today's educational system and not only show teachers why they should use service learning, but how.

Outcomes of service-learning

Many colleges and universities today are looking to experiential learning as the capstone of what the students have learned while in school. John Dewey calls it "learning by doing" (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996). The National FFA Organization calls it "learning to do, doing to learn." Many others call it creating "lifelong learners" (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996).

Learning is not complete when a student passes a test or gets an A in a class. They have completed the requirements for that specific course, but what about the requirements to become an active member of society? Ryan (1996) says the cycle of learning is complete when students can "reframe what they know, the content, and understand how they learned it, the process" (p. 9). She says that it is not very often that institutions fully integrate experiential education into their curricula (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996).

Experiential learning allows students to test what they have learned in the classroom. However, it is not the typical multiple choice, short answer test. This examination tests the foundations of their educational experience. It tests whether or not institutions are doing what they say they are doing; preparing students to be successful adults in society (Steffes, 2004).

Steffes looks at students' involvement in undergraduate research, internships, and service learning. She says many studies have documented an increase in teaching techniques involving internships and or service learning in some way. Those non-traditional educational techniques allow students to connect their "cognitive learning inside the classroom with their affective learning in the lab, on the job, or at the service learning site" (Steffes, 2004, p. 3). What were once seen as instructors to the students, are now mentors who shape and develop young adults' lives. Mentors teach the students how to succeed in their selected field before they leave college. Not only do students have the knowledge required, but they also have the skills, professionalism, and know-how (Steffes, 2004).

Service-learning and internships differ from traditional classroom instruction in that they allow students to translate knowledge into action (Steffes, 2004). While classroom instruction is a vital part of students' educational experiences, it is only a part of their total education. Internships and service-learning also help students decide what field they want to go into and it gives them the freedom to change their minds early into the process. According to a 2001 survey by the National Association of Colleges and Employees, more than 93% of respondents said that their institutions offered internship programs. Many interns leave the internship with a job in the company or organization. They might not get a job immediately, but employers surveyed said they often hire past interns for full-time positions. Internships are one form of experiential learning and they are a major source of experience in many universities. The partnership between academia and the job market allows students to determine their appropriate career path. There is also an opportunity for students to try something they had never thought of before. Internship applications and selections take into consideration the student's skills and interests (Steffes, 2004).

Steffes found studies that suggested internships help students make valuable connections after college. Networking is such a major part of finding a job and just about everything else a person does in life. They say it is not what you know, but who you know. Internships and service-learning projects give students multiple opportunities to build relationships with other people in their chosen field. C.M. Jagacinski conducted a study in 1986 that dealt with a work-to-job connection. He found that new college graduates whose internship positions were related to their course of study were "employed earlier, had significantly higher levels of responsibility, were paid more, and were more satisfied in their current work positions than those with no related internship experience" (Steffes, 2004, p. 26).

Not only are service-learning activities beneficial to the participating student, but they offer much-needed assistance to local organizations and businesses (Steffes, 2004). Many service learning projects involve students giving back to their communities, such as Habitat for Humanity. Unpaid internships are also a way to help non-profit organizations such as the Red Cross. Many organizations depend heavily on the work of their unpaid interns to carry out day-to-day duties.

Janet Eyler and Dwight Gile Jr. did a comprehensive study in 1999 detailing several possible outcomes of service learning for participating students. They found that participating students:

> have an increased sense of citizenship, developed stronger analytical and
> problem-solving skills, enhanced personal development, increased leadership

skills, fostered greater cultural awareness and tolerance, enhanced social development, and improved interpersonal development (Steffes, 2004, p. 31).

In a related study, Barbara Joacoby found that students involved in service learning projects may earn higher GPA's and suggested that the "experience increased self-esteem, increased moral sensitivity and reasoning abilities, and enhanced ethical development" (Steffes, 2004, p. 32).

Students going into service-learning projects do not usually expect to get out of them what they do. Most students entering these programs think they are going to learn about other people, situations, and job opportunities. They come away with that and much more. Many of them have said some of their greatest learning was about themselves (Jones and Abes, 2004).

In a study done by Jones and Abes in 2004, they found that participants in the service learning project were able to gain experience in areas they never would have otherwise. But an even more interesting finding was that they developed a drive to take risks and broaden their range of friends to include people from a diverse group. They also walked away from the study ready to take on more experiences and learned the importance of self-reflection and exploration. The study "facilitated new and more complex thinking about participants' personal and social identities, the construction of identity in relation to serving others, and the kinds of commitments participants wanted to make in their lives" (Jones and Abes, 2004, p. 163).

Specific Programs

There are quite a few service-learning and internship organizations and programs that are already established. One of those internship programs is the Institute for Experiential Learning (IEL). IEL has written standards for an academic internship. They look at the make up of the internship and the specific standards set by that particular program. IEL says they are "committed to the principle that experiential learning should be as challenging and rigorous as any classroom learning experience" (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996, p. 8).

A second program is Campus Compact. This organization has been a leader in service-learning for over 10 years. It is an organization of over 520 college and university presidents "committed to emphasizing the value of student community service. The leadership of Campus Compact has been complemented by Presidents Bush and Clinton, who enacted legislation to involve young people and college students in their communities" (Bringle and Hatcher, 2000, p. 716).

A third program is the Beyond the Classroom Living & Learning Program (BTC). The program is partnered with the University of Maryland's Division of Undergraduate Studies, Student Affairs, and a private housing-management firm. The program works with juniors and seniors and helps them obtain research opportunities, internships, or service learning experiences on the University of Maryland campus and in the greater Washington, D.C. area, (Steffes, 2004, p. 7).

Connecting service-learning with leadership development

Colleges and Universities, more than any other institution, have the ability to truly make a difference in the development of students' leadership skills through internships and service learning projects. Day (2000) says the first thing they must do is come to the

realization that leadership development can happen anywhere. It does not only take place in the classroom or through specially designed programs. "Leadership development in practice today means helping people learn from their work rather than taking them away from their work to learn" (Day, 2000, p. 587).

Universities can accomplish the task Day challenged them to complete by getting students involved in service learning projects and internships. Stedman, Rutherford, and Roberts (2006) believe internships are the key to bridging academic courses with the students' future careers. They say internships give students a glimpse of the knowledge and skills required by future employers.

As stated by Bringle and Hatcher (1996), "Ernest Boyer challenges higher education to reconsider its mission to be that of educating students for a life as responsible citizens, rather than education students solely for a career" (p. 221). Ryan and Cassidy (1996) believe that colleges are only teaching students how to learn. They call the learning a "process and not an outcome… the internship experience is an introduction to lifelong learning" (p. 3).

Bringle and Hatcher (1996) believe universities have what it takes to become the national leaders in developing service learning programs and activities. They say "higher education is in a period of transition from teaching to learning, from independent discipline-based work to interdisciplinary team-oriented work, and from isolation to engagement" (Bringle and Hatcher, 2000, p. 716).

Most people will say that higher education's main objectives should be that the students will leave campus with the knowledge and skills needed to be successful, effective employees and concerned, knowledgeable citizens of their communities and country. Stefes (2004) says undergraduate research, internships, and service learning are aimed at assisting universities with that task. "Faculty who use service learning discover that it brings new life to the classroom, enhances performance on traditional measures of learning, increases student interest in the subject, teaches new problem solving skills, and makes teaching more enjoyable" (Bringle and Hatcher, 1996, p. 222).

Faculty members and experiential educators have the same goal in mind: helping students develop their potential. Faculty members do this often times through delivering an outstanding lecture. Experiential educators want students to practice what they have learned and try to improve their skills. "In experiential learning programs, we want students to be curious about the world around them and to anticipate the next question, to read critically with an eye to practice. We want students to be better practitioners and better human beings, and above all, to learn both while doing and from their experience" (Ryan and Cassidy, 1996, p. 8).

Many of the studies conducted came up with much of the same findings. Service learning projects developed students as individuals and as leaders:

> No longer were they relying on parents, friends, teachers, and texts as irrefutable sources of instruction on what is right for their lives and to what viewpoints they should subscribe. They weighted options, challenged previously held ideas, and ultimately relied on their own thinking to reach conclusions and take action (Jones and Abes, 2004, p. 162).

Many universities and colleges state that cultivating citizenship and social responsibility is just as important of a task as teaching students the skills and knowledge necessary for their future career (Jones and Abes, 2004). Bringle and Hatcher (2000) state

"service learning engages students in community service that is meaningful to the community and to student learning" (p. 715). Service learning gives universities the opportunity to cultivate that citizenship while they are still students and before they are out in the communities on their own.

  Bringle and Hatcher (2000) looked at 10 case studies dealing with developing leadership through service learning. They found that each of the 10 case studies demonstrated how "student, faculty, community, and institutional leadership is developed through community engagement and service learning. In this way, service learning strengthens campus and community assets and creates learning communities for all constituencies" (p. 505).

  Bringle and Hatcher (1996) believe service learning plays a major role in the development of two things: the individual and the community. They found research that suggests that "service learning has a positive impact on personal, attitudinal, moral, social, and cognitive outcomes" (p. 223). They also believe that "emphasizing service has the potential to enrich learning and renew communities, but will also give 'new dignity to the scholarship of service'" (p. 221).

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Discovering Leadership through Art

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Introduction

The works of Michelangelo, Degas, DaVinci, and Picasso, captured a moment in time illustrating a poignant struggle or an endearing relationship. The idea of using artwork to examine the nature of being human is not new, in fact much of our first glimpses into human history were through artwork. As early as the 1300's there has been evidence of leadership. The writings of Confucius, Plato and Machiavelli all examine what leadership means.

Filling the Student Development Gap for Undergraduates in Agriculture

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Introduction

Colleges of agriculture in the United States have contributed significantly to the achievements of their graduates, but have not provided enough opportunities for leadership development (Love & Yoder, 1989). Today's agricultural industry demands a high standard from college graduates, and employers are increasingly seeking them out to be effective leaders in their companies and organizations (McKinley, Birkenholz, & Stewart, 1993). Employers therefore desire leadership ability from employees, especially in problem solving and team work (Andelt, Barrett, and Bosshamer, 1997). However, Graham found that teamwork, decision-making, leadership, and initiative were areas in need of improvement among graduates (Graham, 2001). This presents a need for colleges of agriculture to provide opportunities at the college level for students to participate in leadership development activities to more effectively prepare them for success upon graduation.

The College of Agricultural and Life Sciences (CALS) at the University of Florida sought to fill this gap with a program for students that would compliment the opportunities that already exist at the college level, such as participation in student organizations and student governing councils. The program would address the challenges faced by students in their current role as a college student and also prepare them for their future role in a career. In essence, what could we provide the students of our college that will make them more effective individuals and more successful professionals? The answer to this came in the form of a student development series called Solutions Seminars.

Background

Day (2001) states that "the lessons learned from traditional classroom development programs do not last much beyond the end of the program," saying that little change actually occurs as a result of participation in the program. Rather, students ought be engaged in the process of action learning, where individuals can most effectively learn by working on current organization problems (Revans, 1980). In the context of leadership development programs for college students, these problems come in the form of the daily challenges that students face as they progress through their academic program and prepare for a future career.

Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt (2001) described four hallmarks of effective leadership development programs as context, philosophy, common practices, and sustainability. Included in the description of these hallmarks were inputs from many sources, the development of self-awareness, an emphasis on the potential of all people to lead, an evaluation process, and student recognition of growth (Cress et al., 2001).

Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt (1999) found that students who participated in leadership development programs were much more likely to "report significant changes on the measured leadership outcomes of increased self-understanding, ability to set goals, sense of ethics, willingness to take risks, civic responsibility, multicultural awareness, community orientation, and a variety of leadership skills" when compared with non-participants (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999).

How It Works

Solutions Seminars are hosted as one-day conferences offered free of charge to all CALS students. Currently there is one Solutions Seminar each semester. Each seminar's program focuses on different challenge areas for students. The first seminar, held in October 2006, addressed finding balance in one's life. The spring semester seminar, held in February 2007, focused on building effective leadership skills.

Eight workshops are held at each seminar and students choose four of the eight to attend. Workshop topics are created that will achieve the overall focus for the day. Presenters are found within the college, university, community, and industry that are experts in each topic area.

An online registration process is used to plan for the event. CALS students are emailed announcements about the upcoming seminar and encouraged to register. Program staff also visits large survey classes within the college to inform students about the opportunity.

The seminars are held at a nearby conference facility and begin on a Saturday morning with an opening session that welcomes the participants, provides information about the day's event, and provides a time to meet other participants through a networking activity. Students next choose two of four 45-minute concurrent workshops to attend in the morning. A brief lunch program includes a luncheon speaker, either motivational in nature or a CALS alumni who exemplifies effective leadership. Students then attend another two of four concurrent workshops of their choice in the afternoon. The seminar is closed with door prizes that enable students to apply the principles learned that day, such as gym memberships to promote healthy lifestyles and registration waivers to attend advanced leadership training programs. Breakfast, lunch, and refreshments are provided, as well as a certificate of completion from the Dean's office.

The second seminar also included incentives for CALS student organizations to encourage club officers to participate. This approach offered specialized club officer training and development to clubs that registered eight or more executive team members for Solutions Seminar.

Results to Date

Seventy students at the University of Florida participated in the first Solutions Seminar held in Fall 2006. Participation grew to more 110 students in the Spring 2007 seminar. Two

student organizations participated in the specialized training offered to club officers in the spring seminar.

Workshops topics have included financial management, personal brand marketing, time management, decision-making skills, effective professional communication, stress management, program planning, team leadership, healthy lifestyles, career networking, and servant leadership. Workshop presenters have donated their time in facilitating dynamic workshops targeted to student needs.

The following information was gathered from a web-based evaluation completed by participants after each seminar.

		Fall 2006 *n = 30*	*Spring 2007* *n = 62*
Participants by gender	*Female*	66.7%	74.2%
	Male	33.3%	25.8%
Participation by classification	*Freshman*	3.3%	3.2%
	Sophomore	3.3%	11.3%
	Junior	23.3%	27.4%
	Senior	36.7%	29.0%
	Graduate student	16.7%	22.6%
	Other, including all students from other colleges within UF	16.7%	6.5%
Seminar impact	*The seminar was relevant and valuable*	4.45/5.00	4.38/5.00
	The seminar improved my personal effectiveness as a student	4.07/5.00	4.07/5.00
	The seminar aided in my professional and career development	4.28/5.00	4.12/5.00
	Overall rating	4.37/5.00	4.44/5.00

Selected comments from student evaluations:

- *I thought all the speakers and presenters did an outstanding job. I walked out of there with a change of heart in some aspects of my daily life. I have been inspired to work out, write a resume and search my heart for what really matters. I discovered some dislikes and likes about me and want to do the best I can to always be inspired. I don't know how to repay your kindness and opportunity. Thank you very much.*
- *I thought it was a great conference and I am already utilizing some of the practices I learned.*

Conclusions/Recommendations

Based on student evaluations, students feel that participation in Solutions Seminars has increased their personal effectiveness and their career readiness. Students have stated that this seminar model fits a gap they have experienced in their personal and professional development.

Although the program was developed primarily for undergraduates, many graduate students participated in the seminars and found many pieces quite valuable. Therefore, future plans involve assessing the needs of graduate students and how they can be served with such programs. While there were noticeably fewer underclassmen participating in the seminars, it should be noted that underclassmen represent only 23% of the student population in the college. However, more efforts should be placed on encouraging men in the college to participate.

One approach for future seminars may be to provide tracks of workshops that are more focused on the specific development needs of underclassmen, upperclassmen, and graduate students. Another concept involves "add-on's" that would available after the regular program, such as the specialized training for club officers. Other add-ons could include advanced public speaking, practice interviews, personal leadership style assessments, or practice in meeting management techniques.

Other considerations for future seminars will include creative means of advertising and appropriate scheduling. Scheduling an event that intends to reach a broad audience can be difficult. Until the series becomes an institutionalized event for students, recruitment efforts will remain a priority.

While this particular program is offered at the college level, the concepts and structure are easily transferable and relevant to other audiences. This program model could readily be used within a department, for a student organization looking to host such an event, or by academic programs that may integrate pieces into their curriculum.

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The Emergence of African-American Leaders in American Society
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Introduction

Since the study of leadership and the development of leadership theories began in the mid 1800s and the early 1900s, the primary focus was on Caucasian males. The Great Man Theory, Situational Theory, and many other leadership theories are surrounded by white men; they are written by white men; and they are based on white men. Until the Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s, there were very few minority leaders in the forefront. However, in recent decades there has been an emergence of minority leaders. Using history, prominent figures, and early theories, this paper will examine the manifestation of African-American leaders. This writing will also discuss the salient theories and leadership styles that may typically be associated with African-Americans. At the conclusion of this paper, the reader should have a better understanding of how African-American leaders are strong, effective, and are contributing greatly to society.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to conduct a thorough review of the literature related to leadership theory and models from the African American Perspective. The objectives were as follows:

1. To examine the historical perspective of the development leadership theory
2. To consider the influence current theory has on the African American Population
3. To discusses different African-American leaders and their contributions to American society. Contributors include WEB DuBois and Booker T. Washington.

Procedures

Data for this study was gathered through a library search at Texas A&M University. An internet search was also conducted with the same search terms. The databases and most articles were accessed online. Books and additional materials were collected through the library print resources.

Findings

The Emergence of African-American Leaders in American Society

The history of African-Americans in the United States of America is fascinating, yet full of complexities. Originally brought from the continent of Africa by European settlers, African-Americans began their tenure in the U.S. as slaves. However, over time, with the assistance of noted strong-willed African-Americans and the more liberal white American citizens, African-Americans began to realize their value and intellect. This realization brought about a change in the mind-set of blacks in America. Having a new frame of mind, African-Americans began to take a stand against the prejudices and injustices that beleaguered them. Leadership in the African-American community emerged, despite the hardships the minority group faced. Although not seriously studied in leadership theories until after the Civil Rights movement of the

1960s, African American leaders have brought much to American society through education, business, politics, and arts and entertainment.

This paper will focus on the emergence of leadership of African-Americans. However, before an in-depth discussion of leadership can begin, a definition of leadership needs to be identified. Different theorists have attempted to define leadership over the years. "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Bass, 1990, p. 11). Northouse (2004) says the following about the definitions of leadership:

> Despite the multitude of ways that leadership has been conceptualized, the following components can be identified as central to the phenomenon of leadership: (a) Leadership is a process, (b) leadership involves influence, (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment. Based on these components, the following definition of leadership will be used in the text. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (p. 3).

For the purpose of this paper, Northouse's (2004) definition of leadership will be used.

EARLY LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Many of the early leadership theories and leadership styles excluded African-Americans. One of these theories is the Great Man Theory. "The Great Man Theory was studied as early as 1869. Influenced by Galton's study of the hereditary background of great men, several early theorists attempted to explain leadership on the basis of inheritance" (Bass, 1990, p. 37).

> Prior to the mid twentieth century, the Great Man Theory held sway in the minds of those seeking to define that most elusive quality: leadership. Because there was consensus that leaders differed from their followers, and that fate or providence was a major determinant of the course of history, the contention that leaders are born, not made was widely accepted, not only by scholars, but by those attempting to influence the behavior of others (Cawthon, 1996, p. 44).

The Great Man Theory supports the notion that humans cannot develop talents they do not have (Cawthon, 1996). "No matter how great their desire to learn, unless they possess certain extraordinary endowments—unless they possess a talent that can be nurtured and developed—they will not be successful in their attempts to lead" (Cawthon, 1996, p. 45). During the time when the Great Man Theory was initially developed, mid-1800s, racial tensions were running rampant. The thought that a Negro could be a great man, a leader, was almost inconceivable.

For many commentators, history is shaped by the leadership of great men (Bass, 1990). Consequently, the great men that are named in history, articles and studies are Caucasian. Bass (1990) contends that:

> For the romantic philosophers, such as Friedrich Nietzsche, a sudden decision by a great man could alter the course of history (Thomas Jefferson's decision to purchase Louisiana, for example). To William James (1880), the mutations of society were due to great men, who initiated movement and prevented others from leading society in another direction. The history of the world, according to James, is the history of Great Men; they created what the masses could accomplish. Carlyle's essay on heroes tended to reinforce the concept of the leader as a person who is endowed with unique qualities that capture the imagination of the masses. The hero would contribute somehow, no matter where he was found. Dowd

maintained that "there is no such thing as leadership by the masses. The individuals in every society possess different degrees of intelligence, energy, and moral force, and in whatever direction the masses may be influenced to go, they are always led by the superior of few" (p. 37).

All of the aforementioned "great men" are white. Current proponents of the Great Man Theory of Leadership point to Lee Iacocca, John F. Kennedy, and Douglas MacArthur as examples of great men whose innate abilities have been connected somehow with situational forces (Cawthon, 1996). These men are also white. However, in more recent studies of leadership, there are African-Americans that are said to have been great men who impacted the nation and the world by their leadership. These men include Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X, and Nelson Mandela (Cawthon, 1996).

The later inclusion of black men as being representative of the Great Man Theory stimulates the flaws that can be associated with this theory. According to David L. Cawthon's (1996) article Leadership: The Great Man Theory Revisited,

> Many, of course, scoff at the theory. Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus consider the proposition that leaders are born, not made to be myth. They note that leadership is a learned skill and has little to do with natural forces: Biographies of great leaders sometimes read as if they had entered the world with an extraordinary genetic endowment, that somehow their future leadership role was preordained. Don't believe it. The truth is that major capacities and competencies of leadership can be learned, and we are all educable, at least we do not suffer from learning disorders. Furthermore, whatever natural endowments we bring to the role of leadership, they can be enhanced; nurture is far more important than nature in determining who becomes a successful leader (p. 45).

Proponents of the Great Man Theory also believe that regardless of the innate talents potential leaders might possess, without the timely emergence of situational forces they will not becomes leaders: "Without chaos in the Roman Catholic Church, would Lutheranism exist today? Without Hitler, would Churchill have continued rambling his way through life" (Cawthon 1996, p. 46)? This leads to another of the early leadership theories that did not necessarily include blacks: the Situational Leadership Theory.

As the name Situational Leadership implies, it focuses on leadership in situations (Northouse, 2003). In the Bernard M. Bass' *Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research, & Managerial Application,* Bass (1990) ascertains that:

> Situational theorists suggested that leadership is all a matter of situational demands, that is, situational factors determine who will emerge as leader. Particularly in the United States, situationalism was favored over the theory that leaders are born, not made. According to situationalism, the leader is the product of the situation, not the blood relative or son of the previous leader (p. 38).

Northouse (2003) summarizes the situational approach to leadership the following way:

> Situational leadership is a prescriptive approach to leadership that suggests how leaders can become effective in many different types of organizational settings involving a variety of organizational tasks. This approach provides a model that suggests to leaders how they should behave based on the demands of a particular situation. Effective leadership occurs when the leader can accurately diagnose the development level of subordinates in a task situation and then exhibit the prescribed leadership style that matches that situation (p. 106).

Many believed that blacks could not be effective leaders because they did not have the intellectual competence to accurately analyze and assess the various situations that could arise in a given circumstance where they would be called upon to lead. "Lower rates of achievement and leadership for blacks can be attributed to possible personal in-born deficits or to educational or cultural deprivation; or they may be due to blocked opportunities because of cultural conflict and discrimination" (Bass, 1996, p. 740). Many also contribute the lack of leadership of African-Americans due to the fact that blacks have been inferior in the educational settings due to test scores and socioeconomic status. However, Bass (1990) says that the educational gap between blacks and whites has narrowed considerably since 1970. By the 1980s, blacks were actually entering college in greater number and obtaining more years of education than were whites of the same level of intelligence (Bass, 1990).

There are several African-Americans who proved their leadership abilities through the situations with which they were presented. "Without racial tensions in the south, would Martin Luther King, Jr. have remained an obscure minister in the South" (Cawthon, 1996, p. 46)? Without apartheid, would Nelson Mandela have ever become the president of South Africa? Or without being fired because of ethnic features, would Oprah Winfrey be the media mogul she is today? These questions signify flaws that can be associated with studies of Situational Leadership Theory whose subjects were only whites. Excluding African-Americans from studies cannot validate the leadership of the American Society since African-Americans are indeed part of this said society. "Overall, the Situational Leadership Theory's theoretical robustness and pragmatic utility are challenged because of logical and internal inconsistencies, conceptual ambiguity, incompleteness, and confusion associated with multiple versions of the model" (Graeff 1997, p.153).

Even though early situational leadership theorists did not voluntarily study blacks, the theory does have a number of positives. Northouse (2003) recognizes these:

> There are four major strengths to the situational approach. Foremost, it is an approach to leadership that is recognized by many as a standard for training leaders. Second, it is a practical approach that is easily understood and easily applied. Third, this approach sets forth a clear set of prescriptions for how leaders should act if they want to enhance their leadership effectiveness. Fourth, situational leadership recognizes and stresses that there is not one "best style of leadership; instead, leaders need to be flexible and adapt their style to the requirements of the situation (p. 106).

These strengths not only apply to white leaders, but also the African-American leaders that have proved their ability to lead by their assessments and reactions to situations that presented them the opportunity to lead. These black leaders include the previously mentioned King, Mandela, and Winfrey. However, there are others such as James Weldon Johnson and Marcus Garvey. James Weldon Johnson, who became dissatisfied with racial stereotypes propagated by music, was a noted educator and songwriter who later became a United States Diplomat to Puerto Cabello, Venezuela (1999, http://www.sc.edu/library/spcoll/amlit/johnson/johnson1.html). Marcus Garvey, a leader in 20th century Harlem, was a publisher, journalist, entrepreneur (Satter 1996). Garvey was also a crusader for black nationalism, and the founder of the Universal Negro Improvement Association and African Community Leagues (Satter, 1996).

EARLY BLACK LEADERSHIP PARADIGMS

In the early 1900s, there were two prominent figures who were considered to be great leaders within the African-American community. These two men were Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois. Although Washington and Du Bois had contrasting views on how to produce black leaders, their contributions to the African-American community were and continue to be very influential.

Louis Harlan (2005) gives an account of Booker T. Washington's life on the University of North Carolina's web site, *Documenting the American South:*

> Booker Taliaferro Washington was born in 1856 and was the foremost black educator of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. He also had a major influence on southern race relations and was the dominant figure in black public affairs from 1895 until his death in 1915. Born a slave on a small farm in the Virginia backcountry, he moved with his family after emancipation to work in the salt furnaces and coal mines of West Virginia. After a secondary education at Hampton Institute, he taught an upgraded school and experimented briefly with the study of law and the ministry, but a teaching position at Hampton decided his future career. In 1881 he founded Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute on the Hampton model in the Black Belt of Alabama (https://docsouth.unc.edu/washington/bio.html).

"Washington, from 1895 until his death in 1915, was the most powerful black man in America. Whatever grant, job placement, or any endeavor concerning Blacks that influential whites received was sent to Washington for endorsement or rejection" (Hynes, 2002, https://www.duboislc.org/html/DuBoisBio.html). The Atlanta Compromise Address, delivered before the Cotton States Exposition in 1895, enlarged Washington's influence into the arena of race relations and black leadership (Harlan, 2005). Washington argued that Black people should temporarily forego "political power, insistence on civil rights, and higher education of the Negro youth. They should concentrate all their energies on industrial education" (Hynes, 2002, https://www.duboislc.org/html.DuBoisBio.html). Kilson (2000) contends that "Washington's Atlanta Compromise Address was an event that would shape the metamorphosis of African-American leadership processes—and thus the processes of black political incorporation in American life—for the first four generations of the twentieth century" (p. 302).   In short, Washington's address rejected the guidance type or mobilization type leadership model, favoring instead the social organization type leadership model (Kilson, 2000). Washington was favored with white Americans.

> Washington kept his white following by conservative policies and moderate utterances, but he faced growing black and white liberal opposition in the Niagara Movement (1905-9) and the NAACP (1909-), groups demanding civil rights and encouraging protest in response to white aggressions such as lynchings, disfranchisement, and segregation laws. Washington successfully fended off these critics, often by underhanded means. At the same time, however, he tried to translate his own personal success into black advancement through secret sponsorship of civil rights suits, serving on the boards of Fisk and Howard universities, and directing philanthropic aid to these and other black colleges. His speaking tours and private persuasion tried to equalize public educational opportunities and to reduce racial violence. These efforts were generally unsuccessful, and the year of Washington's death marked the beginning of the Great Migration from the rural South to the urban North. Washington's racial philosophy, pragmatically adjusted to the limiting conditions of his own era, did not survive the change (Harlan, 2005, https://www.docsouth.unc.edu/washington/bio.html).

Washington's social organization type black leadership greatly differed from that of W.E. B. Du Bois. William Edward Burghardt (W.E.B.) Du Bois was born in Great Barrington, Massachusetts on February 23, 1868 (Franceschi, 2000). Growing up in the north, Du Bois did not experience some of the hardships that other blacks in the country were experiencing at the time. Although the Civil War had recently ended and the Emancipation Proclamation had passed, many African-Americans were having a difficult time. Poverty, racism, and inequalities in the educational systems were just a few of the hardships that African-Americans were facing. very influential in their time. Both of these men had their own following, and their philosophies have impacted the type of leaders that have been cultivated within the African-American community.

THE EMERGENCE OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN LEADERS

Although the most popular black leaders, those studied during Black History Month, did not emerge until the Civil Rights Movement, there were several African-Americans who were considered to be leaders of their time, prior to the movement of the 1960s. George Washington Carver, Frederick Douglas, and Andrew Young Great Barrington had perhaps 25, but not more than 50, Black people out of a population of 5,000. Consequently, there were little signs of overt racism there (Hynes, 2005).

"While in high school Du Bois showed a keen concern for the development of his race. At age fifteen he became the local correspondent for the New York Globe. And in this position he conceived it his duty to push his race forward by lectures and editorials reflecting up on the need of Black people to politicize themselves" (Hynes, 2005, https://www.docsouth.unc.edu/washington/bio.html).

Du Bois received his bachelor's degree from Fisk University in 1888, and won a scholarship to attend Harvard University. Harvard, however, considered his high school education and Fisk degree inadequate preparation for a master's program. He was registered as an undergraduate student. He earned his second BA in 1890 and then enrolled in Harvard's graduate school. He earned his master's degree and then his doctoral degree in 1895, becoming the first black to receive that degree from Harvard (Franceschi, 2000, http://www.nl.edu/academics/cas/ace/resources/webdubois.cfm).

Du Bois contended that traditional black progress could be achieved through a grounding in arts and sciences education which would result in the development of a black intellectual elite (Kilson, 2000).

The mainstream black leadership as we know it today (what Kilson calls the pragmatic activist strand among the African-American professional class as represented in the leadership of black professional organizations and especially black civil rights organizations) owes a lot—maybe everything—to W.E.B. Du Bois. What Du Bois did between the early 1900s and the 1940s in the leadership realm of African-American life was to put substance into the guidance type or mobilization type black leadership paradigm. Du Bois thereby helped to correct the devastating flaws in Washington's social organization type black leadership paradigm. Du Bois, in challenging the accommodationist leadership paradigm, revolutionized what became the mainline African-American leadership methodology in three special respects:

- He articulated the core attributes of a mobilization type leadership process for African-Americans;
- He fashioned an intellectual discourse that propelled arguments and thinking along mobilization type leadership lines, and thus encouraged thinking that critiqued the sell-out attributes of Washington's accommodationist leadership—its surrender of blacks' citizenship and human rights; and
- He fashioned an intellectual discourage that upheld and defended black honor, which fervently challenged the presumption of most white Americans that defaming African-Americans' cultural presence in American society was their natural privilege as whites—a defamation mania that often resulted in loss of African American lives (Kilson, 2000, p. 305).

Du Bois did not only become a role model of an exemplary persevering black student but also led the way for others to pursue education, equality and ultimately encouraged blacks to fight for civil rights in a society which was then so infested with racism and segregation (Franceschi, 2000).

While these two men, Washington and Du Bois, had very opposing views on the subject of African-Americans and which type of leadership formation blacks should take, they both were are just a few blacks who contributed to the development of African-Americans as leaders. These leaders contributed to the fields of science, education, and politics.

As black leaders are becoming more popular, the need to cultivate their skills as leaders is necessary. There are several predominantly African-American organizations that focus partly on the development of leadership skills. These organizations include African-American fraternities and sororities and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP).

Historically Black fraternities and sororities began to emerge in the early 1900s. There are nine recognized Black Greek Letter Organizations: Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Inc., Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Inc., Kappa Alpha Psi Fraternity, Inc., Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc., Omega Psi Phi Fraternity, Inc., Phi Beta Sigma Fraternity, Inc., Zeta Phi Beta Sorority Inc., and Sigma Gamma Rho Sorority, Inc., and Iota Phi Theta Fraternity (Kimbrough, 1995). The positive effects of fraternity and sorority affiliation on African-American undergraduates have been well-documented by a host of scholars (Cuyjet, 2006).

In *African American Men in College,* Michael Cuyjet (2006) contends that:

Black Greek Letter Organizations (BGLOs) have historically served and continue to serve as valuable social support outlets for African-American students, especially on at predominantly White institutions. This support is especially valuable for African American male collegians, as undergraduate fraternities encourage unity among members and offer early opportunities for leadership, which increases retention. Furthermore, predominantly Black student organizations, including BGLOs, afford African Americans students a sense of belonging, cultural connections, and numerous opportunities to gain transferable leadership and communication skills (p. 136).

Kimbrough (1998) notes that evidence suggests that Greek-letter organizations offer Black students special opportunities for involvement and leadership during their collegiate years. The author also observes that surveys of Black leaders indicate that a large percentage hold memberships in Greek-letter organizations. It is not at all coincidental that many of the most celebrated and influential African-American male leaders—Dr Martin Luther King, Jr., Jesse

Jackson, Johnnie Cochran, Tavis Smiley, W.E.B. DuBois, and Cornel West, to name a few—have been affiliated with one of the five Black Greek-letter fraternities (Cuyjet, 2006). "Black Greek-letter fraternities and sororities provides an important means by which to enhance student involvement and leadership development for Blacks in College and beyond" (Kimbrough, 1998, p. 97).

The National Association for the Advancement of Color People (NAACP) is another predominantly African-American organization that supports the leadership development of blacks. "Founded in 1909, the NAACP was a result of the Niagara Movement, a movement which grew out of 29 black leaders who gathered to discuss segregation and black political rights" (Franceschi, 2000, https://www.nl.edu/academics/cas/ace/resources/webdubois.cfm). To this day, the NAACP continues to assist the African-American community in leadership development, civil rights, and educational issues that may face. It is one of the cornerstones of African-American History.

AMERICAN LEADERSHIP STYLES

Many black leaders have been described as being charismatic—motivators. This type of leadership is called transformational. Northouse (2003) defines transformational leadership as the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. Northouse (2003) also contends that this type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential.

Bass (1990) gives an explanation for the use of transformational leadership in the African-American community:

> The needs and experiences of the black population may dictate a great emphasis on transformational leadership. Jesse Jackson illustrated these charismatic and transformational tendencies in the 1984 and 1988 presidential election campaigns. Leaders of black movements are characterized by their satisfaction of mutual problems and the resulting injustices. They focus much on group identity and the need for a sense of community. While leaders in the white mainstream more often direct their attention to conserving resources and the status quo, leaders of minorities, such as the blacks, must more often be transformational in their concern for social change, as well as for unmet social needs for inequalities in the distribution of opportunities (p. 745)

Although the transformational leadership style is one more readily associated with African-Americans, blacks can also be connected to the early leadership theories as well. As stated previously, black leaders such as Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X, and Nelson Mandela can be consider to be "great men" which links their leadership to the Great Man Theory. Others, such as Oprah Winfrey, George Washington Carver, Harriett Tubman, Condoleezza Rice, and Marcus Garvey, can be linked to the situational leadership theories. These individuals faced difficult situations in their lives where their reactions and analysis of the situations reflected their significant leadership abilities.

CONTEMPORARY AFRICAN-AMERICAN LEADERS

While many of the black leaders emerged during the Civil Rights Movement, there have since continued to be an outpour of African-American leaders in American society. *The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education* (2000) lists several prominent black leaders in America:

Franklin D. Raines, former director of the federal Office of Management Budget, was appointed to the CEO position of Fannie Mae Corporation, which ranks thirty-third overall on the Fortune 500….It was announced that Kenneth I. Chenault would become the next CEO of American Express….Lloyd D. Ward was named CEO of Maytag….Shirley A. Jackson, former head of the Nuclear Regulatory Commission, was appointed president of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, a highly prestigious university in Troy, New York….Donna Brazile was named director of Al Gore's presidential campaign, the first black woman to direct a major party presidential campaign…Vernon Jordan, presidential confidant and attorney at Washington's prestigious law firm Akin, Gump, accepted a position with the Wall Street firm Lazard Freres for a reported annual salary of $4 million (p. 39).

These African-Americans, along with others, continue to show how the black community can and does produce highly effective leaders.

CONCLUSION

The early leadership theory, the Great Man Theory, and the leadership model, Situational Leadership, traditionally excluded African-Americans from studies. Since the initial theoretical foundations of the Great Man Theory and the studies leading to the Situational Leadership Model, Blacks have emerged as leaders in the U.S. and can be connected to both the Great Man Theory and the Situational Leadership Model.

Theorists have pointed to Winston Churchill, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and even Moses as great men, leaders—all white men. More recently Lee Iacocca, Douglas McArthur and John F. Kennedy have been connected to the Great Man Theory. Great leaders are known to have the ability to speak in poetic prose, inspiring and motivating followers to share in their vision and produce the results the leaders want. The aforementioned men did this. However, there are black leaders who are also known as "great men", and whose leadership styles have helped followers transcend and be transformed.

Martin Luther King, Jr. is an example of a great man and leader, whose leadership style inspired the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s. The Civil Rights Movement, led primarily by Blacks, was an effort to establish the civil rights of individual Black citizens. King inspired and motivated followers to stand up for equality and justice through powerful, yet eloquent speeches. The *I Have a Dream* speech, given by King on the steps of the Washington Monument in Washington, D.C., was a pivotal moment in the Civil Rights movement. King's speech impelled not only Black Americans, but white Americans as well, to take action against the injustices that beset the United States. Boycotts, sit-ins, freedom rides, and marches, leading to Congress passing the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the 1965 Voting Rights Act, were direct results of King's leadership. Not only did King galvanize followers through charismatic, moving speeches, he also modeled the actions he inspired by participating in the marches, sit-ins, and boycotts. King's contributions as a leader were solidified in 1983 when President Ronald Regan signed into law the third Monday in January as Martin Luther King, Jr. Day. King's concerns and actions were prompted by the situations African-Americans faced. The situations included discrimination, segregation, and inequality. This leads to the Situational Leadership Model.

The Situational Model of Leadership contends that "leadership is all a matter of situational demands, that is, situational factors determine who will emerge as leaders…the leader is the product of the situation, not the blood relative of the previous leader" (Bass, 1990, p. 38).

Colin Powell exemplifies a black leader whose situation in the military allowed his leadership skills to emanate. Powell became the highest ranking African-American in the executive branch of U.S. government and was the highest ranking African American in the military in the history of the United States, Secretary of State. He was succeeded as Secretary of State by another African-American leader, Condoleezza Rice. Powell's military training and Rice's political studies enabled them to help lead our country in the War on Terrorism and the War in Iraq. The leadership of black leaders such as King, Powell and Rice was not merely a result of their educational efforts, but also from the residue of black leaders such as DuBois and Washington.

Early black leaders W.E.B. DuBois and Booker T. Washington, although they had opposing views of black leadership, affected the African-American community greatly with their leadership paradigms. Washington's model of leading blacks through advances in industry, coupled with DuBois' model of leading blacks through education in the arts and sciences contributed to the study and development of African-Americans as leaders. DuBois and Washington were both great, charismatic men who added much to the leadership styles of today's black leaders, and their legacies of leadership development among black people continue through the efforts of agencies such as the NAACP and African-American fraternities and sororities.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, NAACP, was founded to take on the issues of segregation. The NAACP has grown exponential since its incipiency in 1909. The organization has several programs such as the United Negro College Fund, legal assistance, economic engagement, and educational outreach. The NAACP is passionate about developing leaders in the African-American community. The leadership slogan of the NAACP is "Leaders are not born, they are developed" (2000, http://www.naacp.org). Each year the NAACP hosts conferences and leadership trainings such as the Leadership 500 Summit and the National Religious Leadership Summit. The Leadership 500 Summit is the NAACP's way of taking responsibility to develop a new generation of leaders. Leadership 500 "provides an opportunity to expose this new generation to leaders from diverse backgrounds and capacities. Participants can learn from the leaders' successes and failures, their inspiration and their perseverance to craft strategies for their own leadership destiny" (2000, http://www.naacp.org). Likewise, the National Religious Leadership Summit brings together religious leaders to educate pastors, churches and religious leaders on the history and programs of the NAACP, and present moral and ethical interpretations of the civil rights struggle and the church's relationship to the struggle for all denominations. Several leaders of the NAACP, black religious leaders and black political leaders started developing leadership skills in college through fraternities and sororities.

As Kimbrough (1998) notes, evidence suggests that Greek-letter organizations offer Black students special opportunities for involvement in leadership during their collegiate years. For example, Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Inc., the first black fraternity, has programs such as A Voteless People is a Hopeless People, which is an initiative to make sure African-Americans exercise the right to vote, given in the 1965 Voting Rights Act. Alpha Phi Alpha also has Project Alpha and Youth Institute. Both programs are geared at developing young men into leaders through community service, activism, and education—helping to ensure the continued emergence of black leaders.

Learning from the culmination of leadership paradigms of DuBois and Washington, the leadership style of "great man" Martin Luther King, Jr., and the efforts of black organizations such as the NAACP and African-American fraternities and sororities, black leadership continues to grow and be a strong force. African-Americans are and will continue to be highly effective

leaders in the educational, business, political, and the arts and entertainment industries of America.
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"Facilitating Collaboration among Collegiate Leadership Programs: The Kansas Experience"
Ron Wilson
Huck Boyd National Institute for Rural Development
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INTRODUCTION

"Toto, I don't think we're in Kansas anymore..."
- Judy Garland as Dorothy in *The Wizard of Oz*

A convergence of several interests has brought about an exciting development in

leadership circles within the state of Kansas. An increased interest in facilitative leadership

education, a statewide organization with a desire for improved collaboration, a significant

foundation committed to health and leadership, and innovative faculty members have come

together. For the first time, a Collegiate Leadership Council has been formed to convene the

directors of the leadership studies programs at institutions of higher learning within the state of

Kansas. These programs are modeling and implementing the facilitative leader model.

The purpose of this paper is to review the literature relating to leadership and facilitation

and to describe how these theories at work have produced a nascent structure for collaboration in

higher education leadership studies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Formalized leadership programs in Kansas date back to the creation of Leadership

Kansas in 1978. Inspired by a former Governor and a prominent business leader, the program

was created by and is still sponsored by the Kansas Chamber of Commerce and Industry. Each

year the Leadership Kansas program selects 40 individuals who are exposed to a variety of

recognized experts and engaged in educational and informational training sessions in six

different Kansas communities. The diversity of the discussion topics, including business, education, agriculture, public policy, societal health and development, economics, and government, help to further shape each class member's personal and professional development.

In ensuing decades, a number of locally based leadership programs were created in communities across the state following the Leadership Kansas model. The 2004 Directory of Kansas Leadership Programs contains 91 listings for state and community based leadership programs. The directory also lists 16 leadership events, seven collegiate leadership studies programs, and 10 statewide youth organizations.

Alumni of the Leadership Kansas program and local programs, plus leadership educators at the university level, were interested in networking together. The first effort to network Kansas leadership educators came in May of 1991 in Salina at the Local Community Leadership Workshop sponsored by Leadership Kansas. A year later, Fort Hays State University began the process of researching and inventorying Kansas leadership programs. This led to a series of leadership meetings bringing together key leadership educators from all areas of the state. A second state workshop for local community leadership programs, co-sponsored by Leadership Kansas and the Kansas Chamber of Commerce Executives, was held in Lawrence in May of 1993 and provided yet another opportunity for networking.

An ad hoc committee met that same month to assess interest and to discuss the process for formulating a formal network. A steering committee was established to plan a conference for Kansas providers of leadership programming. In July of 1993, *The Kansas Directory of Leadership Education 1993-1994* was published by Fort Hays State University and The Kansas Rural Development Council. In October of 1993, the Executive Committee was formed and adopted a Constitution and Bylaws. The result was a new statewide organization of professionals

and volunteers involved in leadership development and education. The name of the organization was the Kansas Leadership Forum.

KLF's first state conference was entitled "The Kansas Leadership Forum '94: Building Leadership Capacity" and was held in May 1994 in Salina. The organization has held an annual conference and regional meetings annually, along with electing officers and producing a newsletter.

Another key development was the advent of a new foundation. In 1985, the Wesley Medical Center in Wichita was sold and a foundation was created with part of the proceeds. That foundation is now known as the Kansas Health Foundation. The foundation's mission is to improve the health of all Kansans. The foundation engages in a strategy of investment in four key categories: Children's health, policy, public health, and leadership. The emphasis on leadership was derived from a listening tour by foundation administrators in 1988. Here is what they indicate they heard:

> "In every corner of the state, in towns large and small, we heard a similar cry. People needed more leaders. They wanted individuals with a clear vision for their communities, the ability to bring people together to achieve common goals, and a deep love for their fellow Kansans."

The foundation went on to create a Fellows program for key leaders, an endowment program to grow and sustain community foundations, a Master Facilitators training program, and the Kansas Community Leadership Initiative to transform locally-based leadership programs. The foundation's assets currently total $480 million, with approximately $23 million in grants paid out in 2006. The desired transformation that the Foundation was seeking in leadership

programs was to transition them from teaching an elite, traditional model of leadership to a facilitative, shared model.

Higher education leadership programs were also growing during this time. Regional universities were the first to create leadership studies programs as such. Some of the research universities and the landgrant university also developed programs. In fact, the leadership studies minor at Kansas State University is the largest and fastest-growing minor degree at the university.

Community-Based Leadership Programs

"Change requires leaders; if we didn't need to change, we wouldn't need leaders."

– David Mathews

Kansas communities face many challenges and changes, ranging from urban sprawl to rural depopulation resulting from various causes. While the circumstances affecting communities may differ, a common factor affects the communities' varied responses to those circumstances: Leadership. The success or struggle of a given community is often attributed to leadership (or lack thereof) in its varied forms and manifestations. As Williams says, implicit in the definition of community development is "the need for leadership to ensure the success of efforts to develop a community" (2002).

A key finding from various local, state and national needs assessments is the need for a "broader, better trained leadership base" (Langone, 2002). Fear said specifically, "Leadership development programs that help ensure an adequate supply of effective leaders are an important and continuing need in community development" (1985). Such programs have expanded and proliferated across American society, as schools, professional development associations, trade

associations, businesses and communities have adopted various forms of leadership development programming.

But what about the results of these programs? Langone notes, "Documenting the program impact of many of these community development programs has been lacking" (2002). Williams and Wade wrote, "Further research, including case studies, should be conducted to investigate the critical factors required for successful partnerships in sponsoring community leadership development programs" (2002).

Procter (2005) describes community in several dimensions: Community as territory, as relational, and as symbolic. While certain leadership programs are organized around a community of interest, such as the Kansas Environmental Leadership Program or Kansas Agriculture and Rural Leadership, most locally-based leadership programs are oriented to a particular locale or community of place.

In a broad sense, the process we are considering at the community level is "social interaction theory" as articulated by sociologist Kenneth Wilkinson. Wilkinson writes, "Social interaction is the dynamic, creative force that defines and articulates the relationships among actors [that comprise] the structure of the community." He argues that rural communities depend on purposive social interactions that express a "locality-orientation" which ultimately encourages and cultivates community development. Within a given locality, however, Pigg, Langone, Williams, Zacharakis, Williams and many others have identified a need for educational initiatives to build community capacity – specifically, local leadership.

This leads us to a second fundamental theoretical base: Civic engagement theory, as expressed most clearly in Putnam's *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community* (2000). Putnam argues that social capital – just like physical capital or economic

capital – is a fundamental building component for strong communities. He argues that social capital is positively correlated with an individual's belief in community and government and urges that individuals be socialized into the shared norms and cooperative societal actions of local communities. This is a fundamental premise and purpose of most community leadership development programs.

The next step is an identified need for an intentional, educational program for leadership development and involvement. Walker (1999) wrote, "Leadership is a body of knowledge that can be taught and learned. Leadership and citizen involvement are key ingredients in addressing many problems which communities face today." The Cooperative Extension Service has identified leadership development as an important priority, helping "people and communities acquire the attitudes, skills, and abilities for active participation in creating meaningful futures and dealing with community issues" (2005).

Certain other theoretical elements underpin this work as well. One has to do with asset-based community development as pioneered by Kretzman and McKnight (1993). This approach focuses on "building communities from the inside out," through identifying and building on existing human and other indigenous assets to strengthen communities from within. This is another key element of leadership programs. A related tenet has to do with civic, collaborative leadership as described by Chrislip (1994). Chrislip states, "In most places, leaders and citizens simply do not know how to collaborate. Community leaders and citizens can learn to design, initiate, and sustain collaborative initiatives to address issues of shared concern in their cities and regions." Coming together in constructively designed, collective educational leadership programs can be a step to bringing about such collaborative communities.

"Learning is the making of meaning."
- Robert Kegan

"The facilitator also serves as a teacher..."
- Roger Schwarz, The Skilled Facilitator

Common themes among the community based and collegiate leadership programs would include the importance of collaboration and the use of facilitation.

What is Facilitation?

Facilitate: To make easier, to help bring about.

- Websters New Riverside University Dictionary

Facilitation has been defined as a process through which a person helps others work effectively (Bens, 2006). Walker described facilitation in this way: "By providing non-directive guidance, the facilitator helps the group arrive at the understandings and decisions related to its task. The facilitator focuses on the group and its work. The role is one of guidance and assistance, never control." (1999) According to Schwartz, group facilitation is a process in which a person whose selection is acceptable to all the members of the group, who is substantively neutral, and who has no substantive decision-making authority, diagnoses and intervenes to help a group improve how it identifies and solves problems and makes decisions in order to increase the group's effectiveness (2002).

Curtin makes a distinction between teaching and facilitating. He termed Teaching to be "the transfer of ... information to groups or individuals by instructors who are to some degree experts." He describes Facilitating as "the development of ... information by aiding groups or individuals to discover the knowledge and skills ... within a process; the process is always experiential in nature and involves action." (2002)

Schwartz indicates that the facilitator's main task is "to help the group increase effectiveness by improving its process and structure." *Process* refers to how a group works together and *Structure* refers to the ongoing organization of the group. These are contrasted with *Content*, which refers to the substance of what a group is working on. Thus, the facilitator's role is somewhat circumscribed to deal only with process and structure. This makes the facilitator's role more universal, but less in depth.

However, Schwartz goes on to identify two different types of facilitation and several related roles in what he terms the Skilled Facilitator approach. In his taxonomy, there are two types of facilitation: Basic and Developmental. In the basic type, the facilitator helps a group solve a substantive problem by essentially lending the group his or her process skills. Once the facilitation is complete, the group has solved its substantive problem, but by design it has not learned how to improve its process. In the developmental type, the facilitator helps a group solve a substantive problem and learn to improve its process at the same time. Here the facilitator also serves as a teacher so the group can eventually become self-facilitating. Developmental facilitation, according to Schwartz, requires significantly more time and facilitator skill and is more likely to create fundamental change.

Related facilitative roles are depicted in Table I. The elemental *facilitator* role is to be a third party who is substantively neutral and an expert in process without a stake or part in decision-making. Unlike the facilitator, a *facilitative consultant* is used for expertise in a particular area to help the client make informed decisions. A *facilitative coach* may work one-on-one with a client, jointly designing the learning process with them. The *facilitative trainer* integrates facilitation skills into his or her responsibilities for teaching a particular topic. The *facilitative leader* may have strong views or responsibilities on a given topic but uses facilitation

to enhance the core values, principles, and effectiveness of the group. (Schwartz, 2002). Bens focuses on the latter category, describing facilitative leadership as "a skilled approach to leading that's based on the core beliefs and practices of group facilitation. It makes extensive use of process tools in order to provide structure and casts the leader in the role of helper and enabler." (2006)

Table I - Facilitative Roles

Facilitator	Facilitative Consultant	Facilitative Coach	Facilitative Trainer	Facilitative Leader
Third party	Third party	Third party or group member	Third party or group member	Group leader or member
Process expert	Process expert	Process expert	Process expert	Skilled in Process
Content-neutral	Content expert	Involved in Content	Content expert	Involved in Content
Not substantive decision-maker nor mediator	May be involved in content decision-making	May be involved in content decision-making	Involved in content decision-making in class	Involved in content decision-making

Bens indicates that facilitative leaders share the core beliefs of facilitation:

People are intelligent and capable and want to do the right thing.

Everyone's opinion has value, regardless of an individual's rank or position.

Groups can make better decisions than individuals acting alone.

People are more committed the ideas and plans that they create.

People will take responsibility and assume accountability for their actions and can become partners in the enterprise.

The role of the leader is to evoke the best possible performance from each member of the team.

Leadership styles and roles have changed with time. This has application to those people working as administrators in a college or university setting. Bens describes the traditional directive leaders' role as a command-and-control style that was created for a bygone era when a great deal of work was deliberately reduced to its simplest components and mechanized. Traditional directive leaders:

Are task focused

Set direction and make strategic decisions

Control work assignments

Work with people individually

Control information

Retain the right to make decisions

Place a minor emphasis on people skills

Have rank and privileges

Relate in a distant and formal style

Communicate down

Have few meetings

Rarely give or receive feedback

Feel that staff work for them

Retain accountability for outcomes

Work to meet the expectations of their managers

According to Bens, today's more engaging leaders are still highly involved with directing tasks, but they combine this with an increased focus on both improving how work gets done and enhancing interpersonal relations. These more involved leaders:

Are open, informal and friendly

Possess interpersonal skills

Value teamwork and collaboration

Are customer focused and quality conscious

Are interested in continuous learning

Are willing to engage and empower their people

Have meeting management skills

Are receptive to change

Are communicative and open to feedback

Are highly involved in improving both work processes and staff capabilities

Are still involved in directing tasks

Remain accountable for results

Still feel that staff work for them

Still work to meet the expectations of their managers

These new roles place new demands on facilitative leaders. As Schwartz indicates, facilitative skills are increasingly becoming a core competency for those working with groups. But what about in the realm of education?

<div align="center">Group Learning</div>

A similar transition from centralized control to group facilitation can be found in higher education. Foyle wrote:

> "Higher education faculty members usually see their roles as that of information givers and skill builders. Variations of the traditional lecture-discussion method are widely used in many academic settings. In recent years, instructors have been turning to more interactive learning approaches in order to stimulate student thinking, motivate student involvement, and enhance student learning."

McManus takes a more pessimistic view, writing, "Slow as the change in teaching is in higher education, it is conspicuously slow in research universities."(2005) Curtin noted the value of group work, writing that when facilitation engages groups and individuals in real problems, it fuels effective learning (2002). Davis summarized, "Students learn best when they are actively involved in the process."(1993)

Schwartz advocates a mutual learning model, guided by these four assumptions: (1) I have some relevant information and other people also have relevant information; (2) each of us may see things the others do not; (3) differences are opportunities for learning; and (4) people are trying to act with integrity, given their situation.

Mutual learning is consistent with the approach which Foyle (1995) termed a collaborative model:

> "The collaborative model builds on Cooperative Learning strategies but extends beyond having the students work together to complete a predetermined task. In collaborative learning, professors and students actively and mutually engage in the learning process. Together they define and create a body of knowledge that informs and transforms our world."

Cottrell (1966) described several functions of teachers, of which one is to be a builder of community among people. Cottrell writes, "Nothing is learned in isolation, for knowledge is defined by relationships." This would seem consistent with the notion of group work. In fact, Cottrell writes that organized societies "only accomplish their educational purposes in programs conducted through groups of individuals." Grippin notes that learning is a process of reorganizing accretion learning into more meaningful structures, sometimes accomplished through group work.

Such group work and facilitation thereof needs to take into account the dynamics of the relationships between and among participants in the group. Knowles defined group dynamics as the complex forces that are acting upon every group throughout its existence which cause it to behave the way it does (1972).

In Leaving the Lectern: Cooperative Learning and the Critical First Days of Students Working in Groups (2005), McManus describes his journey from a traditional, lecture-centered model to a highly successful cooperative learning approach at a research university.

The National Research Council study, How People Learn (2000), notes the value of community-centered environments involving norms that encourage collaboration and learning. Fullan (2001) wrote that leadership must create conditions that value learning as both an individual and collective good. Similarly, Knowles indicated the application of such group work in the education of adults years ago. He noted that adult education is a multidimensional and highly interactive social system (1962): "The methodology of adult education tended to move away from traditional classroom methods in favor of methods that would make greater use of the experience of the adult learners, such as group discussion, role playing, case method, book-based discussion, the unstructured group method, and various combinations."

METHODS

As leadership educators at the community level as well as in higher education worked through the transition in leadership models, they came to recognize the similar challenges which they were facing. One leadership studies faculty member commented, "There are multiple leadership studies programs at the colleges in our state. We all teach our students to collaborate, but we don't collaborate among ourselves." The officers of the Kansas Leadership Forum came to a similar recognition. The KLF officers were seeking to re-engage the collegiate segment of

the organization's membership and to enhance the state of leadership studies across institutional lines.

In spring 2006, KLF was cosponsoring a one-day leadership seminar at one of the state universities. Invitations were sent by the KLF officers to the directors of leadership studies at every one of the colleges in the state plus the Kansas Health Foundation to attend the seminar and participate in a luncheon with their peers at no charge. Personal followup was conducted by telephone and email. Fourteen people participated in the luncheon. That discussion led to a sharing of information and ideas and a willingness to continue a dialogue. Subsequent information and scheduling matters were exchanged by email. In October 2006, at the Kansas Leadership Forum annual conference in Newton, Kansas, a more formal convening of this targeted audience was conducted. The new group became known as the Collegiate Leadership Council of KLF.

FINDINGS

The Collegiate Leadership Council is in the initial stages of its organization and development. To date, participants include representatives of the following institutions: Fort Hays State University, Kansas Health Foundation Leadership Center, Kansas State University, Kansas Wesleyan University, Southwestern College, University of Kansas, Washburn University, and Wichita State University.

The focus, scope, and purpose of the programs at these universities have certain commonalities and some significant differences, which are in the earliest stages of being explored. The incipient dialogue has focused on three purposes: 1) share information about each others programs; 2) discuss assessment strategies and student outcomes; and 3) share classroom experiences and pedagogies.

CONCLUSIONS

Committed facilitative leaders in institutions of higher learning and in the statewide leadership organizations have taken the initiative to create a new structure to enhance dialogue among and between those Kansas colleges and universities engaged in leadership studies. This collaborative, facilitative model might not have been able to take root and flourish - or at least germinate - without the groundwork which had been done by the Kansas Health Foundation, the Kansas Leadership Forum, and others investing in new models of leadership development. More nurturing will be needed if this new organization is to succeed. The participants in the CLC will need to develop their own shared understanding of the role and function of the organization. Is it simply to be a place for occasional sharing and commiseration among peers, or can it be a transformative entity to advance scholarship, pursue civic engagement, and make an impact at a higher level? The purpose of the CLC and its very value and sustainability are open questions. However, the organization has made a promising start at creating sharing among peers. The process of building social capital within the group has begun. The CLC itself must be described as a work in progress.

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