ALE 2000 Conference Proceedings

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Leadership Across Disciplines:
A Journey Not A Destination

Dr. Charles A. Beitz, Jr.
Professor of Leadership and Management Studies
Department of Business, Accounting and Economics
Mount Saint Mary's College
Emmitsburg, MD 21727
beitz@msmary.edu

Introduction

Leadership is a fundamental and central process in human organizations. It has come to mean many things to people and has been studied from many perspectives. I believe the following quotation from James MacGregor Burns' 1978 seminal classic, Leadership, provides a very persuasive argument for the study of leadership being a moral imperative:

One of the most universal cravings of our time is a hunger for compelling and creative leadership.... The crisis of leadership today is the mediocrity or irresponsibility of so many of the men and women in power, but leadership rarely rises to the full need for it. The fundamental crisis underlying mediocrity is intellectual.... Without a powerful modern philosophical tradition, without theoretical and empirical culmination, without guiding concepts, and without practical experiences, we lack the very foundations for knowledge of a phenomenon - leadership in the arts, the academy, science, politics, the professions, war - that touches and shapes our lives. (pp. 1-2)

John Gardner in his 1990 classic, On Leadership, presents a persuasive justification for the multi-disciplinary approach:

At the college level, the best preparation [for leadership] is a liberal arts education. It is essential to broaden and deepen the understanding of those individuals who will have in their hands the future of our communities and our society. That means covering the whole range of liberal arts, from science to literature, from mathematics to history.... We expect our leaders to function within a framework of values. By absorbing, through literature, religion, psychology, sociology, drama and the like, the hopes, fears, aspirations and dilemmas of their people and of the species; by coming to understand what our ancestors valued and fought for; by coming to know through history and biography the extraordinary outlines of the human story, they may hope to discharge their duties with wisdom. (pp. 164-165)

And finally, Joseph C. Rost in his 1991 paradigm shifting work, Leadership for the Twenty-first Century, reinforces Gardner's argument:

Leadership scholars need to develop an academic presence as an interdisciplinary area of studies serving both undergraduate and graduate students in specialized programs that deal with the study and practice of leadership in organizations and in societies. Looking at leadership through the lens of a single discipline has not worked well in the past, and it will not work any better in
the future. Indeed, a case could be made that organizations and societies in the future, with their collaborative, community, and global orientations, may not be hospitable to a concept of leadership that is grounded in only one academic discipline. With this new kind of thinking, leadership scholars must develop a new school of leadership that is grounded in what is real, what actually happens when leaders and followers do engage in leadership. (pp. 182-183)

I believe that the multi-disciplinary study of leadership can serve as an integrating piece of a liberal education. This belief serves as the reason for my campaign to introduce leadership studies throughout our College's curriculum. The critical question is: how can you go about gaining support for and introducing leadership studies as an area worthy of investigation and dialogue into a liberal arts college?

**Purpose**

The purpose of this session is to present one approach to successfully introducing multi-disciplinary leadership studies into our curriculum. At this time, this includes four different seminars utilizing instructors from nine different disciplines and presented in different programs: College Honors, Gender Studies and Non-Western Studies, and cross-listed in five different majors. The seminars are: A Junior Year Honors -- "The Many Faces of Leadership"; "Profiles of Women Leaders"; "Japanese Leadership Style and Management Practices"; and "Leadership in Organizations." The content and process of the seminars and steps in a continuing journey across campus serve as the central focus of the presentation.

**Context**

Mount Saint Mary's four year core curriculum of 61 hours is integrated by design to bring students to a critical understanding of the distinctive perspective of western culture through a study of literature, history, philosophy, theology, language, the arts, and the social and natural sciences, along with a contrasting experience of non-western culture. It is designed to encourage students to develop a sense of responsibility for social justice, the preservation of human dignity and freedom, and appreciation of social pluralism and cultural diversity. The core focuses on developing critical thinking, writing, speaking, and quantitative skills. The core curriculum and in particular the Honors scholars core curriculum provides the context within which the first Leadership Seminar was introduced.

The College offers a minor in gender studies. This minor supports the mission of Mount Saint Mary's College by helping students to understand and anticipate social change. By examining how gender constructs affect the lives of men and women and how gender roles have changed over time, students can better understand a key factor that drives both change and continuity in our culture. A Leadership seminar has been introduced into the program.

The College offers upper-level non-western courses in various disciplines as part of the seminar core requirement to enhance major and minor programs, and to expand the general choice of electives. A new Leadership Seminar has been approved by the College's Undergraduate Academic Committee for meeting this core requirement.
Description of the Four Leadership Seminars

The content and process strategies of the four leadership seminars are:

Junior Honors Seminar: The Many Faces of Leadership

This seminar is an attempt to create a multi-disciplinary synthesis of the phenomenon of leadership based on multiple modes of inquiry and knowledge bases housed in different disciplines. It is hoped that out of this seminar students will acquire an appreciation of an multi-disciplinary framework that can be used to guide their critical thinking and inform their practice of leadership in a number of diverse contexts. The goal of the seminar is to help students better formulate their own model of leadership by providing them with a variety of useful lenses through which to view and reflect on their own philosophy and practice of leadership. The seminar explores the complex concept of leadership from conceptual, relational and behavioral perspectives using a mixture of concepts and practices presented by scholars from a number of different disciplines, authors in the area of leadership studies, class discussion, research, writing, self-assessment opportunities, case analysis, experiential activities off-campus, and a popular film series.

Profiles of Women Leaders Seminar

The purpose of the seminar is to explore the basic question of whether women lead and exercise power differently than men. This course studies women leaders in an number of diverse contexts: western and non-western cultures, advanced and developing countries, elected national political leaders and leaders of national social and religious causes, in all sectors of society including business, education, and the community. The course examines the complex areas of gender and leadership within social, cultural, and historical contexts and from relational, behavioral and performance perspectives using a mixture of readings, class discussion, primary and secondary research, outside speakers, videos, self-assessment opportunities, and student oral and written reports.

Japanese Leadership Style and Management Practices Seminar

The purpose of this seminar is to expose students to and have them explore the richness and complexity of the Non-Western culture of Japan. This multi-disciplinary seminar focuses on an analysis of leadership style and management practices as a cultural phenomena inextricably linked to values and culture. The basic context of the seminar is Japanese business, but it also includes an examination of Japanese society and the culture's consequences in work-related values. The seminar examines the complex areas of leadership style and management practices in Japanese business within social, cultural, and historical contexts, using a mixture of readings, class discussion, research, off-campus trips, outside speakers, videos, self-assessment opportunities, student oral and written reports, response papers, student taught sessions, and a comparative analysis with western business.
Leadership in Organizations Seminar

The purposes of the seminar are to help students attain a more informed view of formal organizations and to better formulate their own model of leadership by providing them with a variety of useful lenses through which to view and reflect on their own practice of leadership in organizations. This multi-disciplinary course focuses on leadership in formal organizations in the private, public, and not-for-profit sectors. It presents an in-depth view of the organization context within leadership takes place and a broad survey of contemporary leadership theories and practices. The course explores the complex concepts of organization and leadership and the issues created by their connection. This will be done through readings, outside speakers, class discussions, research, oral presentations, self-assessment instruments, structure activities, case analysis, and individual and group projects. The central thread of the course is the development of an expansive organization system model and a personal leadership development plan.

The Journey

In the fall semester of 1993, the campaign to obtain the College's Honors Committee approval of the multi-disciplinary Leadership Seminar began. The design of the content and process of the seminar served as the central pedagogical focus of the campaign strategy, along with the actual consensus building process of getting the seminar approved and finally implemented in the spring semester of 1996. Because of the administrative procedures concerning the approval of the Junior Year Honors Seminar, the seminar was not approved again by the College's Honors Committee until spring of 1998, but this time for four years beginning in spring of 1999.

In the fall semester of 1996, the leadership seminar "Leadership in Organizations" was introduced into the curriculum and approved by Department Chairs for cross-listing in five different majors: Business, Political Science, Government, International Studies and Sociology.

In spring of 1998, the Gender Studies Steering Committee approved the seminar. "Profiles of Women Leaders" for credit toward the Gender Studies minor and scheduled it for spring semester of 1999.

The fourth seminar, "Japanese Leadership Style and Management Practices" was unanimously approved by the College's undergraduate committee for credit in meeting the core non-western requirement and scheduled for fall semester of 1999.

Consensus Building Strategy

The actual consensus building campaign strategy from attempting to gain approval of introducing the seminars throughout the curriculum, to resourcing them, to actually implementing them involved three stages, each with a set of key functions and roles being played by the seminar instructor. The critical focus of each of these three stages involved continuing actions across the entire College Community and with external academic and public institutions. The key functions of each stage will be discussed:
The Before Stage

Proposing - Collaborating - Programming - Integrating - Resourcing

The During Stage

Coordinating - Servanting - Facilitating - Teaching

The After Stage

Evaluating - Enhancing the current offerings - Creating new directions

Implications

Although this session attempts to describe only one approach to introducing multi-disciplinary leadership studies into and across a liberal arts curriculum, I believe the strategy used to create a multi-disciplinary approach to the complex subject of leadership along with the content and process of the seminars would be useful in successfully introducing leadership studies into a number of different contexts and programs.

References


Entering the Social Evolutionary Process:
The Role of Leadership Education in the Emergence of Leadership

by

Chester J. Bowling, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor and Extension Specialist
Community Leadership and Management
Ohio State University Extension

How does leadership emerge in a group, organization or community? Is there a way to accelerate the process? What role, if any, does leadership education play in the emergence of leadership? These are some of the questions raised in this paper.

One definition of emerge is “to come into being through evolution” (Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Edition, 1997). This paper suggests that through the richness of human social evolution leadership emerges. Social evolution, as used here, is the collaborative/cooperative social process that promotes the working out or development of human forms of organizing. This use of evolution should not be confused with the competitive process that Darwin (1936) called natural selection. During the experimental/improvisational social evolutionary process groups, organizations, communities and societies consciously and unconsciously create ways of being together that further their collective goals. Over time these improvisations become habits or practices. Ultimately they become an integral part of the social architecture. The paper further suggests that leadership education and a process known as Appreciative Inquiry can be important ways of accelerating the social evolutionary process.

Institutionalization and structuration are both theories build on the notion that over time organizations and societies create their social arrangements through collective repetitive action. Institutionalization is a description of the ways companies, who do business together, modify their structures, policies and procedures to facilitate their collaborative activities. For a more complete explanation of institutionalization see The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis (Powell and DiMaggio, Eds. 1991). Structuration is a description of how societies and cultures are constructed through the everyday actions-turned-habits of the members of the society. For a more complete explanation of structuration see: The constitution of society: outline of the theory of structuration (Giddens, 1984).

While groups, organizations, communities and societies are actively, although not always consciously,
creating their social infrastructure social scientists are watching. In the early stages of formation the experimental and improvisational activities look like chaos to the scientists. As practices become habitual the scientists begin to notice patterns. These patterns become the base material for their work. They record, reflect on, theorize about and ultimately describe, usually in great detail, the practices and structures they observe. This is one more piece of the institutionalization and structuration process.

Scientists, especially college professors, are some of the most respected members of our society. Hardly a day goes by without a quote or story from a member of the academy in the New York Times or on NPR. This respect comes both by virtue of their advanced degrees and their knowledge. When they speak as experts the populace pays attention and gives credence to the opinion, thus reinforcing or abating the practice depending on the opinion expressed. A good example of almost carte blanche intellectual authority given to social scientists is the example of the business-reengineering craze of the mid 1990’s started by Michael Hammer and James Champy who wrote, *Reengineering the corporation: a manifesto for business revolution*. Just three years after that book was published Michael Hammer wrote, *Beyond reengineering: how the process-centered organization is changing our work and our lives*. The second book is Hammer’s attempt to reverse the almost verbatim adoption by the business community of the material in the first book. Once the practices and structures have been organized into a nice neat theory they are more accessible to the person on the street. It might be argued that the job of social scientists is to take the richness of human interaction and make it accessible. Unfortunately what tends to get lost in the process is the richness of human interaction, but that is the subject of another paper.

Eventually educators, who have been educated by the social scientists and some of whom are now social scientists themselves, teach practitioners the scientific theories about the structures and practices. During the educational process educators use stories and practical experiences to translate what they have learned from the social scientists. It might be argued that the job of a teacher is to translate information for students so that it can be assimilated into the student’s epistemological and ontological system. If the educator is successful the information is converted into knowledge. It is highly likely that the knowledge that is created is knowledge that the practitioners already know. That is to say, it is something they have been doing that the social scientists observed, thought and wrote about, taught to the educator who then taught it to the practitioner. Perhaps when a practitioner most willingly accepts a theory it is because they already have adopted the practice. But isn’t that obvious to them? Yes it probably is and in those cases the knowledge created probably reinforces what the practitioner already thought was true.

There are probably lots of cases where the information does not, for a number of reasons, get translated to knowledge. The main reason might be a major difference between the social scientists’ and practitioners’ epistemological and ontological systems. When the gulf is too great practitioners cannot transform information into knowledge and they ultimately reject or modify the theory. In *Out of Women’s Experience* Helen Regan and Gwen Brooks tell the story of coming through an educational system that was a mismatch with their way of knowing. At first it caused confusion and doubt on their part. Eventually they created their own theories of leadership that fit their experiences. Regan and Brooks point to the richness in human interaction that is often lost in the “either or” translation to theory by social scientists.
The good news is that the groups, organizations, communities and societies are dynamic. They literally refuse to be put in a theory box. Like Regan and Brooks when a theory doesn’t move people they set it aside and look for an explanation that does fit with their experience. It is during this phase that the cycle starts anew. New improvisations and experiments lead to new practices and structures, which are observed by the social scientists and so on.

This evolutionary cycle has important implications for leadership education. Leadership educators have the opportunity to make the process explicit for practitioners. Helping practitioners see their dual role as both the source and consumer of leadership innovations should strengthen practitioners’ sense of agency and efficacy. By raising practitioners’ awareness their ability to experiment/improvise should increase. This should accelerate the social evolutionary process. Making the process explicit should also help practitioners enlarge their image of what is possible in the domain of human social arrangements. Some social scientists (Reason, 1994) have even suggested that there is value in including practitioners in the research process. Doing so should further accelerate the creation of better, more value congruent ways of organizing.

All of the above may have a down side. For the most part researchers have been observing structures and practices. The assumption is that replicating those that work and avoiding those that don’t will bring success. The long-term effects of such type research will lead to the slowing of social evolution and/or practitioner frustration. The slowing will come as a result of reduced improvisation and experimentation if practitioners are only encouraged to replicate structures and practices. The frustration for practitioners will come as they attempt to replicate results in different contexts. Knowing what has worked may be a powerful tool but probably not because it can be replicated. If the group, organization, community or society is a dynamic system replication may be irrelevant. If the system is in a constant state of white water it is likely that what worked last time will not work this time. What did not work last time might be just the thing to do this time. Human systems are far too complex to be reduced to five easy steps of this or six things to avoid of that.

If leadership education is not about teaching people about the five fastest ways to success or the six biggest mistakes to avoid, there must be something else we need to know, what is it? We need to know: What in this particular context or setting is making organizing possible? We also need to know: What are the possibilities, expressed or latent, that provides opportunities for more effective forms of organizing? We need to know: What is giving life to this group, organization, community or society? We need to know how to make more of that happen. The only way to determine what is giving life to a group is to ask about their peak moments. Moments when they felt the most excited engaged or even inspired by what they were doing. From the data will eventually come themes that point to forces, factors, structures and practices that give life to the group. This process is called Appreciative Inquiry (AI). AI was created by a group of people from Case Western Reserve University in Cleveland, Ohio. David Cooperrider (2000) has written the most about AI and has used it extensively. There are four phases in the AI process. They are Discovery, Dream, Design and Deliver. During the Discovery phase you discover and value those factors that give life to the community; for example, what do you value most about yourself, your neighbors, the community organizations of which you are a part? What in your view is making a positive difference to the quality of life in your community? What contribution
are you making that you are especially proud of? When have you been the most excited, inspired or engaged while living in your community? During the Dream phase you envision what might be. When the best of what is has been identified and is valued, the mind begins to search beyond, to imagine new possibilities. Imagining involves "passionate thinking", allowing yourself to be inspired by what you see. It means creating a positive image of a desired future. For example, what small outreach project would make a big difference on your block? In the Design phase you engage in dialogue, discussing and sharing discoveries and possibilities. Through dialogue, individual vision becomes shared vision. And finally in the Deliver phase you create the future through experimentation, innovation and action. Because ideals are grounded in realities, there is confidence to make things happen.

This inquiry process cannot be done in the traditional researcher-subject methodology. To be effective it must begin with appreciation. The primary task is to describe and explain those exceptional moments, which give energy to the organization and activate members' competencies and energies. The inquiry must be applicable. The study should lead to the creation of knowledge that can be used, applied, and validated in action. It must be provocative. An organization is capable of becoming more than it is at any given moment, and of learning how to determine its own future. Being provocative makes space for the organization to move. Finally the inquiry process must be collaborative. This assumes an inseparable relationship between the process of inquiry and its content.

An AI is best done within an intact group or organization. The more members of the organization that participate in the process the better the results will be. Usually a steering committee creates the appreciative questions. This is a critical point in the process. The questions will determine the answers. Therefore the questions must be well thought out and directly focused on what the organization wants to know, not what it wants to avoid or do. If good leadership is the focus, the questions should be about positive experiences of leadership by people in the organization. If the working in teams is the focus, the questions should draw out members best experiences of working in teams. If cross gender relationships are the focus, the questions should prompt people to talk about their best experience of working with a person of the opposite gender. Once the questions have been completed to the extent possible everyone in the organization should be interviewed. Ideally everyone would be interviewed and everyone would do an interview. There are usually five to seven questions in a typical AI interview. Each interview takes about 45 minutes to one hour. Interviewers should be trained if possible. Interviewers who can take on the inquisitiveness of a typical five year old do the best AI interviews. Interviewers should take good notes or audiotape the interview so it can be transcribed. Once all the interviews have been completed the AI steering committee gathers the data and does an initial analysis. They are looking for themes that can be illuminated by direct quotes and stories from the interviews.

The themes are then converted into provocative propositions about the group, organization or community. These propositions are always stated in the present tense i.e. “Ashtabula County is a place where people value the open spaces around them and support the development of a park system to insure their access to those spaces. Ashtabula County residents value the sense of place, the historical character of the architecture in each community is an integral part of this and development addresses this issue.” (The Citizens of Ashtabula County, 1999). As many propositions can be created as there are themes discovered in the data from the interviews.
In the next phase group, organization or community members select propositions that excite or inspire them and collaborate on projects that create even more of the life giving forces, factors, practices and structures. During this phase experimentation and improvisation are the rules of the day. Members are making the road by walking it and must continue to ask these important questions. What in this particular context or setting is making organizing possible? What are the possibilities, expressed or latent, that provide opportunities for more effective forms of organizing? What is giving life to this group, organization, community or society? How to make more of that happen? Asking these questions will not only help the members stay on course, it will inspire them to continue their work and start the AI process all over again. The ultimate result is a collective image of expanding possibility that leads the group, organization or community to continuous renewal.

References


Introduction

Leadership skills are essential for young people to feel satisfaction and contribute to society (Scheer, 1997). In today's large, inner-city schools, leadership positions are available to only a small number of students. Middle school students have even fewer opportunities than their high school counterparts. More opportunities for youth to learn and practice leadership skills are desperately needed.

Service learning projects are one method for increasing leadership opportunities. Service learning projects offer teens the opportunity to practice leadership skills and reflect on the experience to learn more about themselves. Skills such as brainstorming, decision-making, setting goals and working with others can be taught and practiced as teens plan and carry out significant service projects. Many studies support service learning as an effective method for teaching and enhancing leadership skills and positive attitudes in youth (Conrad and Hedin, 1983; Ladewig and Thomas, 1987; Yates and Youniss, 1996).

Experiential learning takes place when a person is involved in an activity, looks back at it critically, determines what was useful or important to remember, and uses this information to perform another activity. In the past few years, research in the area of experiential learning has strengthened this approach by adding several key processing steps beyond simply doing the activity or experience. These steps include:

- having the participants experience the activity--perform or do it;
- having the participants share the experience by describing what happened;
- asking participants to process the experience to identify common themes;
- having participants generalize from the experience to form principles or guidelines that can be used in real-life situations, e.g., life skills;
- asking participants to apply what was learned to another situation.

Providing an experience alone does not create "experiential learning." The learning comes from the thoughts and ideas created as a result of the experience. This is a "learn by doing" or experiential process. Addressing each step in the process assures a purposeful plan to obtain a specific goal (Bonn, 1999).

Woyach and Cox (1997) identified twelve principles that make effective leadership programs. The first five principles relate directly to the outcomes or content of leadership programs. The remaining seven principles speak to the process of leadership development. The twelve principles state that leadership programs should,

1. Help youth learn specific knowledge and skills related to leadership.
2. Enable youth to understand the history, values and beliefs of their society.
3. Facilitate the development of individual strengths and leadership styles.
4. Facilitate the development of ethics, values and ethical reasoning.
5. Promote awareness, understanding, and tolerance of other people, cultures and societies.
6. Embody high expectations of, confidence in, and respect for the teens served.
7. Emphasize experiential learning and provide opportunities for genuine leadership.
8. Involve young people in service to others—to their community, their country and their world.
9. Facilitate self-reflection and processing of learning both individually and cooperatively.
10. Involve youth in collaborative experiences, teamwork and networking with peers.
11. Involve youth in significant relationships with mentors, positive role models, or other nurturing adults.
12. Be developed around stated purposes and goals.

Woyach and Cox state that few if any leadership programs can be expected to address all twelve principles, yet these principles represent an appropriate set of standards against which programs can be assessed.

4-H Youth for Community Action

Nine of Woyach and Cox’s twelve principles for effective leadership programs were addressed in the creation of a teen leadership program in Fort Worth, Texas. With the support from a grant from the Texas Family and Youth Initiative, and in collaboration with the Fort Worth Independent School District and Communities in Schools program, the Texas Agricultural Extension Service in Tarrant County created 4-H Youth for Community Action (4-HYCA). 4-HYCA is an after-school, leadership development program targeting teens in three inner-city middle schools in Fort Worth. The participating schools were chosen for their location and predominantly minority student population. The purpose of the program was to provide opportunities for inner city youth to learn and practice leadership skills in a service-learning environment, emphasizing 4-H’s learn by doing philosophy.

4-H Youth for Community Action used an experiential model to teach youth leadership skills. The three 4-HYCA groups were organized as an after-school program. Hobbs (1999) identified transportation as a barrier to participation in youth activities for many minority youth. While the after school setting eliminated this barrier, it created additional challenges. Participants had just completed a seven-hour day, spent largely sitting at a desk and listening to instruction. Their energy levels were high and their attention span at a minimum. A model that combined experiential education with service learning was chosen to engage the students.

County Extension 4-H Agents and volunteers met weekly with each group of students for twelve weeks. During each weekly session, participants were introduced to a leadership concept, such as decision-making models, and then provided the opportunity to practice that skill using experiential activities. The key to experiential learning is reflection about what was actually learned during the experiential activity and how that skill or knowledge can be applied to real-life situations. Upon completing the activity, such as the Spider Web (Rohnke, 1985), students were asked how they applied the decision-making model previously discussed. Did they brainstorm many possible solutions and discuss them before attempting to complete the activity? Following this period of reflection, the teens were asked to apply the new leadership skill as they planned their service activity. In the program,
students learned to assess a community’s needs, practiced decision-making and problem-solving skills, improving communication skills, setting goals, planning projects and team. Table 1 outlines the skills and experiential activities used in 4-HYCA.

Table 1. Experiential Activities for Teaching Leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Experiential Activity</th>
<th>Application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is leadership?</td>
<td>Ball Toss*</td>
<td>Team members work more effectively if they know each other well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting acquainted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Together</td>
<td>Chocolate River***</td>
<td>Must have an effective team project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are effective teams?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessing Community Needs</td>
<td>Brainstorming Fun</td>
<td>Brainstorming community services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why is community service important?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to look at your community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is brainstorming?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solving Problems</td>
<td>Solving Riddles</td>
<td>Discussion/brainstorming community problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 steps to problem solving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making Decisions</td>
<td>Decision Trees**</td>
<td>Choosing our service project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Steps to Decision Making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Goals</td>
<td>Goal Mapping Activity</td>
<td>Setting and mapping community goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting SMART Goals</td>
<td>- setting and mapping personal goals**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning Projects</td>
<td>Spider Web*</td>
<td>Planning the service project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting organized</td>
<td></td>
<td>What’s needed, when, who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegating tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Silver Bullets: A Guide to Initiative Problems, Adventure Games and Trust Activities, Karl Rhonke
** Leadership: Building Skills for Life, 4-H Life Skills Curriculum, Purdue University Cooperative Extension
*** Cows Tails & Cobras: A Guide to Games, Initiatives, Ropes Courses & Adventure Curriculum, Karl Rhonke

Participants were evaluated using the Leadership Life Skills Inventory (Carter, 1989) in a post- then pre-test design. Kohn and Rockwell (1989) suggest that when assessing self-reported behavior changes, the traditional pre-test, then post-test design may fail to demonstrate changes in behavior or knowledge. Participants in educational programs may have limited knowledge at the beginning of a program that prevents them from accurately assessing their baseline knowledge. Asking the post-test question first, then asking participants how they perceived their knowledge level prior to the instruction, eliminates this bias.

The use of experiential activities combined with service learning proved to be a successful model for
teaching leadership skills to early teens. Students significantly increased their knowledge of leadership skills in the areas of decision-making, setting goals, working with others and community service.

The students also successfully carried out three significant community service projects in their neighborhoods. The Meacham Middle School students painted the houses of two elderly women who lived near their school. Students from Dagget Middle School repaired an area of erosion in the park near their school and placed new sod over the area to prevent future erosion. Forest Oaks Middle School received a facelift from its 4-HYCA participants who rejuvenated the landscaping at their school, earning the praise of teachers and parents.

**Implications for Leadership Educators**

Setting goals, solving problems and making wise decisions are not just skills for leaders, but are necessary skills for leading a successful life. Based on the findings of this study, the 4-H Youth for Community Action project had a positive impact on the participant’s perceived level of leadership development. Combining experiential learning with the opportunity to put those skills into action is an effective method for teaching leadership skills. The key to experiential activities being more than mere games to the students lies in thoughtful reflection on the activity guided by adults trained in the process.

4-HYCA is a model that can be implemented by any youth serving organization. It is especially suited to early teens that lack the number of leadership development opportunities of their older counterparts.

**References**


Evaluating the Impact of Volunteer Leadership Programs

Ken Culp, III, Ph.D.
4-H/Youth Development Specialist, Volunteerism
University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40546-0064
859/257-5961 (phone)
859/257-7180 (fax)
kculp@ca.uky.edu

Martha A. Nall, Ed.D.
Extension Specialist, Program & Staff Development
University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40546-0064
859/257-7193 (phone)
859/257-7565 (fax)
mnall@ca.uky.edu

Abstract

A major challenge of volunteer driven organizations is the need to document the impact of volunteer efforts and accomplishments. Assessment and documentation are important to the organization, the volunteer leadership educator, the clientele, stakeholder groups, and the volunteers themselves. Determining the impact of volunteer programs requires assessing the outcomes in terms of both the project and the growth and development of the volunteer. When evaluation is a planned part of program development and goals are determined for both the impact on the community and the individual volunteer it is possible to truly assess outcomes.

Introduction

A major challenge of volunteer driven organizations is the need to document the impact of volunteer efforts and accomplishments. Because volunteer leadership educators expend time, money and resources on volunteer involvement and development, it is essential to assess and document the impact of volunteer accomplishments as well as to justify the expense of volunteer programs (Ellis, 1986). Both assessment and documentation are of great importance and interest to the organization, the volunteer leadership educator, the clientele, stakeholder groups and funders, as well as the to the volunteers themselves. No one wants to give time, energy or resources to something which has no benefit or impact.

One of the most uncreative - and least helpful - questions posed to volunteer leadership educators is: "How many volunteers do we have and how many hours did they give us last year?" (Ellis, 1986). For many volunteer leadership educators, documentation consists of counting numbers: of volunteers, volunteer hours served, program participants, clientele reached and so forth. However, simply presenting the number of hours served without analyzing what was accomplished during those hours is not worth compiling. One of the problems in evaluating volunteer achievement is that certain types of volunteer positions require services which are described in terms of quality rather than quantity (Bradner, 1999) as well as those which have long-term outcomes. These include positions which provide assistance or support which are difficult to quantify, such as mentoring, counseling, roles in youth development and so forth.

The increasing pressure to provide evidence of the effectiveness of social programs and initiatives has led to a strong focus on outcome evaluation. Demonstrating effectiveness and measuring outcomes and impact are important and valuable components of volunteer leadership programs (Curnan & LaCava, 1998.)

Part of the evaluative challenge facing volunteer leadership educators is to help coordinators of volunteer programs to take the first step in moving beyond counting numbers of participants and hours served into understanding other aspects of volunteer program evaluation. A second challenge facing volunteer leadership educators lies in helping coordinators of volunteer programs understand, interpret and articulate the differences between the terminology which is utilized in the profession to describe volunteer program evaluation as well as to determine the value of volunteer efforts. These terms include
evaluation, program assessment and impact. Finally, volunteer leadership educators need to assist coordinators of volunteer programs in determining the level of evaluation which their organization is currently utilizing, as well as determining the most appropriate level for the volunteer leadership program which is being conducted.

**Review of Literature**

The review of literature will be divided into two sections. The first section will focus on defining the terms which are often utilized in volunteer program evaluation. The second section includes a discussion of three different program evaluation models.

**Definition of Terms**

**Evaluation** is defined by Neufeldt and Guralnik (1988) as: (1) to find the value or amount; (2) to judge or determine the worth or quality; (3) to find the numeric value; expressed in numbers; (4) estimate.

**Assessment** is defined by Neufeldt and Guralnik (1988) as: (1) to set an estimate or value; (2) to estimate or determine the importance or value.

**Impact** is defined by Neufeldt and Guralnik (1988) as: (1) the power of an event or program; (2) to produce changes, move the feelings.

A comparison of terms finds three key similarities in the definitions of evaluation and assessment. These include the words "value," "estimate" and "determine." Impact, however, has a different meaning. Whereas the definitions of evaluation and assessment involve establishing relative or immediate worth, or placing a value on the project, activity or program; the definition of impact focuses upon programmatic strength and the ability to produce change. Impact therefore is likely to involve an assessment or evaluation in the future.

Evaluation consists of gathering information to determine value and make decisions about the effectiveness of the program. Data is often collected in order to make immediate adjustments in a program. This is called process evaluation. Collecting data for use in long-term decision making is called impact evaluation. Impact evaluation provides information which will assist the volunteer leadership educator in determining the current value or worth of a program or activity, as well as making a judgement about the power of the program and its ability to produces intended changes in the target audience (impact.)

**Evaluation Models**

**Targeting Outcomes of Programs (TOP) Model**

Rockwell and Bennett (1999) proposed a seven-step model which integrates the activities and both the number of participants and their level of participation into evaluation, assessment and impact. The data collected at each level provides greater evidence of the program's effectiveness than the proceeding level (Rennekamp, 1998). The Rockwell and Bennett Model is represented in Figure 1.
Resources focus on resources expended. These may include the number of volunteers who staff the activity, the number of volunteer or staff hours contributed, the number of dollars (either actual or in-kind) spent, etc. Resources may also include educational materials provided, communication costs and transportation (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999).

Activities include those things which are done to engage the participants (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). Activities include educational programs, workshops, conferences and events, service, etc. Activities must be linked to KOSA, Practice and SEEC in order for a successful evaluation to be conducted and for any impact to be gathered.

Participation focuses on the target audience, program deliverers as well as actual attendees (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). Simply stated, participation is who comes, who is expected to come and who delivers the program. This may include individuals, organization, families or communities.

Reactions are an immediate participant response to the activity (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). Reactions are often collected quantitatively via a written questionnaire or qualitatively by responding either in writing or verbally to open-ended questions. Reactions may also be collected qualitatively by debriefing or collecting feedback at the conclusion of the activity. The key information being sought in this level is "What is the participant's reaction to the activity?"

KOSA (Knowledge, Opinions, Skills & Aspirations) provide initial impact data (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). This data is collected at the conclusion of the activity and focuses on four key questions:

"As a result of participating in this activity...
what new knowledge did the participants gain or learn?"
what opinions did the participants change?"
what skills did the participants develop?"
what aspirations do the participants have?"

Practices are a modification or change in a practice in the participant's behavior or lifestyle. Practices are intermediate outcomes which are determined with some type of follow-up evaluation (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999).

Social, Economic or Environmental Conditions (SEEC) which are improved as a result of having participated in the activity (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). These are long term outcomes. The three foci of this impact level will not be obtainable for every activity. However, at least one foci (social, economic or environmental) should be addressed during program planning in order to arrive at a measurable outcome in the future.
Strategy for Accountability:

Ladewig (1999) described three performance measurement categories. These three categories include relevance, quality and accomplishments. Each performance measurement category will be described in detail.

Relevance includes the processes used to identify issues and develop educational activities. Program relevance would include a description of the factors which led to the identification of the issue or need as well as the creation of the program or activity. Describing the target audience, involving planning groups, creating collaborations, conducting needs assessments, establishing priorities and projecting outcomes all provide data related to program relevance. Examples of measurable program relevance include: describing the situation which led to needs identification; the specific people or groups involved in developing and/or conducting the educational program or activity; and the process utilized to develop and implement the educational program or activity (Nall, 1999.)

Quality measurements include a variety of data. These include the frequency and types of participation of target audiences; the importance of the educational program or activity to the participants and stakeholders; the educational methods utilized to deliver the educational activity; demographic information about the participants (including race, gender, age and economic status); the level of appropriateness (age and educational) of the educational activities for the participants; standards, criteria or goal achievement in certification programs or curricula; and participant reactions (Nall, 1999).

Accomplishment measurements provide evidence and data which answers the question: "What difference did this activity make to the participants?" The accomplishment performance measurement determines if a behavioral or practice change occurred with the participant(s). Questions answered may include: Did the public benefit? Was capacity built through knowledge gained, skills developed or opinions changed?" (Nall, 1999.)

Stages of Volunteer Program Evaluation:

Culp (1999) identified four stages of volunteer program evaluation. (See Figure 2.) These four stages included: inputs, outputs, outcomes and impacts. Each stage will be discussed in brief.

Figure 2: Four Stages of Volunteer Program Evaluation (Culp, 1999).

Inputs are the initial stage and include those resources which are necessary to obtain the desired outputs. Examples of inputs include: the number of volunteers, the number of hours which the volunteers devoted to an activity, the value of the volunteer's time and specific volunteer performance (Culp, 1999).

Outputs are the second stage of volunteer program evaluation and are needed in order to achieve the expected outcome of the activity. Output examples include: the numbers and demographic profiles of program participants which were reached or served through volunteer efforts and the specific programmatic or activity offering which was delivered by the volunteers (Culp, 1999).

Outcomes are the third stage and are the output results. Outcomes are necessary in order to impact the participants. Examples of outcomes include: tangible results which are expressed in numbers; the number of homes built; tons of food collected for a food drive; the number of people who received a benefit as a result of participating in the activity; the amount of money raised from an activity; the dollars
realized in salary savings as a result of volunteer contributions; the economic value or impact of a purchase which resulted from the activity (Culp, 1999).

**Impacts** constitute the fourth stage of volunteer program evaluation. Impacts document the resulting impact of the program or activity upon the participants, the volunteers and the sponsoring organization. Examples of impacts include: the number of homeless people who received housing and improved their lifestyle and standard of living; the number of people who learned how to prepare a balanced meal and continued to do so six months after the learning activity; the number of cases of pre-cancer identification and initial treatment from patients receiving cancer screening (Culp, 1999).

**Discussion**

As volunteer and leadership educators our job is often two-fold. On the one hand, we are teaching concepts related to the task or project; on the other hand, we are teaching program management, organization and leadership development. We are providing an opportunity for individuals to gain subject matter knowledge and skills to reach a goal and organizational/management skills to facilitate a process also needed to reach the goal.

Volunteer and leadership educators develop curriculum and teach topics such as: organization, planning, delegation, communication, collaboration, meeting management, parliamentary procedure, group decision making, critical thinking, active and reflective listening, teamwork, group work and dynamics, conflict management, boardsmanship, community structures, creative thinking, etc. This infinite list of topics reflects the knowledge and skills needed to serve in various volunteer and leadership roles. There is a body of knowledge and experiences which lead to skill development that the leadership educator facilitates. This is usually in addition to the subject matter content related to the project or activity. Thus, the impact of our educational programs include what the volunteer leader knows and does (KOSA and Practice) and the social, economic or environmental conditions that are changed (SEEC) as a result of their work (practice).

The challenge in determining the impact of volunteer leadership programs is in determining what happens as a result of the educational program. Accountability requires that we know what happens as a result of the professionals educational efforts and what happens as a result of the volunteer leader's efforts. At best, we need to determine the accomplishments related to our programs. We know that this volunteer may utilize the skills and knowledge which they learned from our educational efforts while later giving leadership in the community but we can't always document it.

Volunteer leadership educators in all roles feel the pressure to determine the outcomes and impact of volunteers who have participated in our educational programs. Accomplishments described in terms of what was taught, who participated and participant reactions may help volunteer leadership educators to determine cost effectiveness, appropriateness of methodology and the degree to which target audiences were reached (Rennekamp, 1995). However, for many stakeholders and program administrators, this is considered insufficient. Most want additional information related to knowledge gained, practices changed and social, economic or environmental conditions that are changed as a result of the volunteer leadership educator's efforts. To truly evaluate the program and determine impact, higher level data is required.

The Rockwell and Bennett hierarchy (1999) is a model for targeting outcomes of programs and has been adapted for the Kentucky Cooperative Extension Service as a program development model used in planning and evaluating programs. Data may be collected at each level of the hierarchy. The data collected at the KOSA level provides stakeholders some evidence of impact and is a "stepping stone" to determining practice change (Rockwell and Bennett). As volunteer leadership educators work toward assessing impact at the SEEC level, the resources which are necessary in order to collect data and determine impact also increase. As the hierarchy is climbed it becomes increasingly difficult to ascertain program outcomes which directly result from educational efforts. Because of the time lag required to
determine practice changes and SEEC outcomes, it is difficult to separate program impacts from other sources of change.

The following statements are examples of data at each level for three types of volunteer development efforts: a series of workshops, a day camp and an advisory council.

Inputs:

- Fourteen staff days went into planning this event.
- A grant of $5,000 provided resources to use with the youth.
- Two hours of planning and preparation went into each of twelve mini-lessons.

Activities:

- A series of four workshops were held to teach skills related to the task.
- A day camp brought youth together to learn team-building skills.
- A mini-lesson on communication skills was provided at each monthly council meeting during the year.

Participation:

- There were 25 participants in each of the four workshops.
- Thirty youth participated in the team-building day-camp.
- Fifteen council members were present for all 12 lessons on communication skills and another 10 were present for 7-9 lessons.

Reactions:

- Following each workshop the participants indicated the material was helpful.
- The teens all said they enjoyed the day and asked for other day camps.
- The council members said they liked the mini-lessons and learned a lot.

KOSA:

- Following the workshop on *Parliamentary Procedure*, the participants completed a questionnaire. All participants could correctly order items for an agenda and make and amend a motion.
- All teens were able to identify six characteristics of effective teams and indicated they planned to use these skills in other groups.
- Following each mini-lesson, the council members were asked to identify three things they planned to do to improve communication.

Practice Change:

- Utilizing the planning, organizational and collaboration skills taught in the workshop series, the participants conducted a county-wide food drive to collect canned goods to be donated to the Salvation Army.
- Ten teens form a school club to implement a recycling program. The club has six principles of effective teams as their operating guidelines.
- All council members were observed using active listening techniques of restating, clarifying and questioning to improve communication within the council.

SEEC:

- The county-wide food drive resulted in 25 tons of canned goods being donated to the Salvation Army, thus saving them $15,000 in food costs and feeding 100 families for 10 weeks.
• The school recycled aluminum cans and paper. This reduced the amount of trash in the land fill, saving the community $5,000 and raised $1,400 which was used to landscape the building.

Getting to Impact:

Determining impact begins with the planning process. In order for any program evaluation or assessment to be effective, the initial step must be an identification of measurable goals and objectives. If measurable goals and objectives are articulated for the volunteer leadership program in the beginning, it will obviously be possible to ask whether these have been met (Ellis, 1986). If it is important to know what the participant's learned, the volunteer leadership educator must determine what is to be taught. This determination must be done as a part of program planning. Writing goals and objectives is not a new or unfamiliar activity for most volunteer leadership educators.

What is new, however, is that volunteer leadership educators must write plans, set goals and determine objectives with the end result (outcome) in mind. Using the KOSA, Practice Change and SEEC levels in program planning provides a framework for determining program outcomes. If participants learn this concept or develop these skills, then they can make these changes in what they do. If they change what they do (practices) then these changes in social conditions (SEEC) may result.

All three models of evaluation share some similarities. Each model provides a vehicle to reach and begin measuring impacts. Although the vehicle names are different, their destination is similar, whether they are called KOSA, Practice or SEEC, (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999); Accomplishments, (Ladewig, 1999); or Outcomes and Impacts, (Culp, 1999). In order to measure any impact, leadership educators must begin with what knowledge is gained or skills, opinions or aspirations are developed.

The failure to specifically articulate goals for the project (content) as well as the individual's growth and development severely limits the evaluation's potential. Volunteer leadership educators tend to focus on the outcomes of the project (i.e., youth who participate in Reality Store will gain knowledge about family financial management) rather than plan for the programmatic benefits or impact upon the volunteers who deliver the program or activity.

The volunteer who brings together twenty-five representatives from local businesses, secures $500 to support the activity, coordinates six teachers, writes newspaper articles and oversees the implementation of the activity in three sites will develop management, organization, communication and delegation skills. But since the articulated goal relates to knowledge gained by the youth participants, that is what is evaluated. The volunteer's growth, development and knowledge gained through the experience is often over-looked. Even follow-up evaluations with the volunteer leadership educator and other volunteers will focus on improving the activity when planning for the next year.

Evaluating volunteer leadership program effectiveness is dependent upon the identification of goals which clearly articulate a benefit to the volunteer leaders who deliver the activities to the target audience. In most cases, the volunteers themselves are not identified as an audience. Rather, the volunteers are seen largely as a vehicle by which activities, educational programs or subject matter are delivered to the target audience.

In order to effectively assess the impact of volunteer leadership education, assessment must exist on two planes. The impact of the program or activity on the target audience as well as the impact upon the volunteer. Volunteer leadership development should not happen by accident. Goals and objectives related to the growth and development of the volunteer should be clearly articulated in the planning process. While it is certainly important to evaluate the outcome of the activity and it's impact upon the target audience, it is equally important to plan for and a benefit to the volunteer. For volunteer leadership educators who plan for and measure the benefits upon both audiences, the impact of a single activity can be doubled!

Effective volunteer leadership educators should make an effort to develop knowledge and skills in those
volunteers who deliver educational activities. An assessment of both the activity ("How well did the activity achieve it's goals with the target audience?") as well as the impact of the activity upon the volunteer leaders who delivered it to the target audience ("Through this experience and the training provided by the professional, what knowledge was gained, skills were developed, or practices implemented?") must be conducted.

This constitutes a key difference between "Volunteer Development" and "Volunteer Management." In Volunteer Development, the Volunteer Administrator/Coordinator/Leadership Educator considers and plans for the growth and development of the volunteers who participate in and deliver the activity or program. Conversely, Volunteer Managers utilize volunteers to deliver programs to target audiences without thought, plan or regard to any potential benefit which the volunteers themselves might gain.

**Implications**

- The impact of the educational activity upon volunteer leaders becomes an intentional, planned component of programs. Anticipated impacts are clearly articulated during the planning process.
- Volunteer leadership educators should focus on evaluating the impact of a volunteer education program while developing program plans (annual plans of work).
- Effective program evaluation is ongoing and continuous, consisting of multiple assessments. Long-term impact requires long-term measurements.
- Each volunteer leadership educator must realize that impact is not measured in terms of quantity or numbers only (number of pounds of food collected, number of participants, or cubic yards of recycling material gathered) but rather in the long-term benefit or impact (number of families or people who were fed for a week due to the food drive or the cubic yards of space saved in a landfill.)

**References**


Introduction

The need for effective leadership for groups, organizations, and communities appears to be universally supported. Academic disciplines have questioned and explored what traits and experiences make a leader and what constitutes effective leadership (Daugherty & Williams, 1997). Rohs (1988) emphasized the importance of leadership development, noting the significant need in rural communities. The challenge is to create leadership development opportunities that meet the needs of emerging community leaders and are readily accessible to a diverse group.

For this study, emerging leaders were defined as persons in the early stages of developing their leadership abilities, including those who had not yet emerged as recognized leaders on a substantive level. Informal needs assessments conducted by a program advisory board revealed that, while emerging leaders were interested in developing their leadership potential, they had yet to do so for a variety of reasons. Those reasons included things such as limited experience in a leadership role, reluctance to commit to an in-depth leadership program, and/or uncertainty about how to become a leader.

To meet the challenge and concern about limited time and other resources to commit to an in-depth leadership development program, the Leadership in Your Community Conference (LYCC) was developed as a one-day regional leadership education event targeting rural areas. Two LYCCs were held in rural northwest and southeast Oklahoma in 1996 and 1998. Approximately 185 persons participated in the two events, and approximately 90 of those could be described as emerging leaders. The events were conducted in response to the need to develop community leaders who can influence the impact and direction of changes as America’s rural communities evolve to meet the needs of changing populations, economic base, and infrastructure. The one-day conference was strongly advocated by a program advisory board as an alternative leadership education methodology targeting individuals in rural areas with limited access to leadership education programs.
The Leadership in Your Community Conferences were conducted by the Oklahoma Family Community Leadership Program (OFCLP), a statewide leadership program. The LYCC format, however, was created to be a separate event in that it was not part of the on-going OFCLP curriculum. Co-sponsorships allowed the OFCLP to offer the educational events for a minimal participant registration fee of $15, including food functions and materials. The conferences had two objectives, which were stated in terms of what individuals would learn through participation in the educational event:

· To increase their leadership potential
· To become involved or increase their involvement in community leadership activities.

On-site evaluations of the educational events were conducted at both events at the end of the conference. A study focusing on the two objectives of the LYCC revealed very positive responses (Daugherty and Williams, 1998a). In addition, retrospective pretests conducted at each LYCC showed that participants had statistically significant knowledge gain in several of the educational sessions (Daugherty and Williams, 1998b).

The researchers and conference sponsors determined, however, that an evaluation of the long-term outcomes was needed. The long-term evaluation would help the OFCLP Board of Directors make decisions about future resource allocations and program refinements.

There is a call for determining the long-term outcomes of volunteer leadership development programming – going beyond the numbers reached and knowledge gained. Curnan and LaCava (1998) pointed out that measuring outcomes was an important part of the leadership development process. Ladewig (1999) cautioned that outcomes were essential to articulating program accountability.

**Purpose and Objectives of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to determine the long-term outcomes of two one-day educational events each called the Leadership in Your Community Conference relative to the conferences’ objectives. *Long-term* was defined as at least 21 months after the conference.

The objectives of the study were to determine to what extent the following had occurred:

· Change in participants’ awareness of their own leadership potential
· Change in participants’ involvement in community leadership activities
· Usefulness of the LYCC to the participating emerging leaders

**Procedures**

**Design.** The study was based on a descriptive design. According to Best (1981), a descriptive study “describes and interprets what is” (p. 93). As a descriptive evaluation, this study was concerned with past events and influences as related to current conditions. Evaluation “adds the ingredient of value judgment of the social utility, desirability, or effectiveness of a process, product or program” (Best, p.
Treatment. The LYCC format featured three general sessions and concurrent sessions on eight topics. The seven-hour conferences were held in rural communities on weekdays during business hours (9 a.m. to 4 p.m.).

Subjects. Subjects were self-selected emerging leaders who participated in either of the two conferences. Of the approximately 90 participants who met the definition of emerging leaders, 59 could be located for the study.

Instrumentation. The researchers developed the instrument for this study for use in telephone interviews. There were 11 items addressing the objectives of the study and four demographic items (gender, age group, ethnicity and community size).

Administration of the instrument. Two weeks prior to the telephone interview, the researchers sent a pre-interview letter to each subject. The letter announced that the study was being conducted, described its purpose and format, requested the subjects’ voluntary and anonymous participation in the study, and provided a list of topics that would be addressed in the telephone interview. The instrument was administered by telephone interview 40 months and 21 months after the 1996 and 1998 conferences, respectively. Trained interviewers with the Bureau of Social Research at Oklahoma State University conducted the telephone interviews.

Findings

Response rate / Interview length. Subjects completed 48 telephone interviews, for a response rate of 81%. The average length of the interview was approximately 12 minutes.

Demographics. Data on demographics reflected the following:

Gender. A total of 71% of the subjects were females, and 29% were males.

Age groups. At the time of the study, most subjects were over the age of 40. The breakdown by age groups was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Born prior to 1930</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born in the 1930s</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born in the 1940s</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born in the 1950s</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born in the 1960s</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Born in the 1970s or after</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ethnicity. Data on ethnicity reflected the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latino/a</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (not of Latino/a origin)</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community size. Most subjects (78%) said the population of their communities was 10,000 or less. The breakdown by community size was as follows:

- 1,000 or less: 27%
- 1,001 – 5,000: 38%
- 5,001 – 10,000: 13%
- 10,001 – 50,000: 23%
- Over 50,000: -

Objective 1: Change in participants’ awareness of their own leadership potential. Most subjects (85%) reported some change. The extent of increase in awareness was reported as follows:

- Increased awareness a great deal: 27%
- Increased awareness somewhat: 58%
- Not at all: 15%

When asked in what ways their leadership awareness increased, subjects reported a variety of things. The more common responses included the following:

- Increased personal confidence: 9 responses
- Increased awareness of need for personal action related to leadership roles: 8 responses
- Increased awareness of local resources and opportunities: 5 responses
- Inspired leadership abilities: 4 responses

Objective 2: Change in participants’ involvement in community leadership activities. Almost half of the subjects reported that they had increased their involvement in community leadership activities since the conference, as follows:

- Yes: 46%
- No: 54%

Subjects were asked to describe briefly the types of new leadership roles, activities, and/or projects with which they had become involved since the conference. Their responses were quite diverse and fell into the following seven categories:

- Citizen development
- Economic development
- Youth development
- Safety and health
- Housing
- Agriculture policy
- Community pride

When asked in what ways their community leadership activities changed as a result of the conference, subjects again gave a variety of responses which fell into the following 10 categories:

- Got more involved (most common response – 14)
- Realized the need for good leadership
- More confident / aggressive
- Able to ask better questions
- Started teaching and/or using leadership on the job
- More aware of people’s feelings
- Inspiration
- Gained expertise in leadership
- Got more people involved
- More positive experiences

Regarding the number of hours per month serving in a community leadership capacity, subjects’
responses ranged from zero to 240 hours per month. The mean was 34.4 hours per month. A total of 19 subjects (40%) said they had increased the number of hours serving in a community leadership capacity as a result of the conference.

Objective 3: Usefulness of the LYCC to the participating emerging leaders. Subjects were asked about the usefulness of three aspects of the conference, as well as the total conference. Their responses predominantly fell into the categories of “very useful” and “useful” (Table 1).

Table 1. Usefulness of the conference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Useful</th>
<th>Useful</th>
<th>Somewhat Useful</th>
<th>Not Useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General sessions</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concurrent sessions</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction with other</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total conference</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked if there was anything else about the conference that was useful, subjects identified the following aspects:

- Sessions on body language / personalities
- Location / site
- Session on parliamentary procedure
- Session on fund raising
- The conference experience built their confidence

Conclusions

The findings of the study provided evidence that the one-day leadership conference format resulted in two outcomes.

1. The first outcome was positive change over the long-term in two areas: awareness of leadership potential and community involvement. Although more than half of the subjects (54%) reported that their involvement in community leadership roles did not increase, a sizeable number (46%) reported that they did increase their involvement as a result of the conference.

2. The second outcome addressed the usefulness of the leadership development conference experience. Subjects overwhelmingly reported (81%) that the conference was “useful” to “very useful”.


References


Abstract

How is communication working within your organization? Developing positive dynamic action in community organizations help move those organizations forward at a faster rate. An exciting tool, Building Dynamic Groups is designed for use with staff, committees, boards, collaborations, partnerships, coalitions, ad hoc groups, task forces, the possibilities are endless. Building Dynamic Groups builds relationships, helps groups become dynamic and function at their best.

Participants in this workshop will participate in interactive activities in the areas of communication, facilitation, visioning, teambuilding, and collaboration that can be completed in 30 minutes by a group or team. These simple activities can be completed at the onset of team meetings to encourage positive
energy and interaction among team members. These activities are structured to build a team in business or community settings. A facilitator of the activities may be able to identify emerging leaders as the participants are doing these interactive activities.

Building Dynamic Groups is a leadership education tool used in Northwestern Ohio. This project was created as a way for OSU Extension to meet the needs of audiences such as United Way, and Family and Children First Councils to build better collaborations and teams. Building Dynamic Groups encourages leaders to undertake the development of their groups, encouraging collaboration and better communication among group members.

Format

Building Dynamic Groups is divided into nine sections, which include introduction, assessments, icebreakers, communication, facilitation, collaboration, team building, visioning, and evaluation. Each topical area in the kit has a variety of activities that can easily be used with a group that is just forming or one that already exists. The kit contains all of the materials you need for each activity. Procedures and guidelines, along with occasional variations are given for each activity. Activities are designed so that activities can be used individually, or several can be used as a series to focus on building your group.

This project is a compilation of simple experiential actives that can be completed by a group or team in thirty minutes. Building Dynamic Groups uses many familiar activities, but the uniqueness of this project is that all the activities and materials that facilitators need are in one kit. It is designed to help community leaders in the development of their group to enhance meeting effectiveness and group outcomes.

**Introduction, Assessment and Evaluation**

1. Introduction
2. Assessment
   - A Way out of the Activity Trap
   - Collaboration Progress
   - The Spider Web
3. Evaluation for both the facilitator and the participant

**Ice Breakers**

1. Are You More Like...
2. Are You Really Looking at Me?
3. Data Processing
4. Feeling Hands
5. Front Lean
6. Giants, Wizards and Elves
7. Imaginary Ball Toss
8. Incorporations
9. Knee to Knee
10. Let's Talk
11. Levitation
12. Partner Interview
13. The Number Game
14. The One-Minute Praise
15. Weather Forecast
16. What's in (on) a Penny?
17. Who Are You?

Facilitation

1. Brainstorming Process
2. Case Studies
3. Fishbowl Activity
4. Games Trainers Play - The Book
5. Multi Voting
6. Nominal Group Technique
7. Open Space Technology
8. Paired Comparisons
9. Story Boarding
10. Town Meeting

Visioning

1. Appreciative Inquiry
2. Community Vision
3. Lincoln Log Activity
4. The Black Spot
5. Values and Visioning Exercise

Collaboration

1. All Over the Map
2. Coat of Arms
3. Diversity Cards
4. Group Sit
5. Human Knot
6. Magic Carpet Ride
7. Swamp Island Maze
8. Values Name Tag

**Communication**

- 1. Back to Back
- 2. Broken Squares
- 3. Bull Ring
- 4. Dolphins and Killer Whales
- 5. Do Your Best
- 6. Drawing Bugs
- 7. Giants, Wizards and Elves
- 8. One Up, One Down
- 9. Telephone
- 10. Towers
- 11. Words Alone

**Team Building**

- 1. Animal Descriptions
- 2. Candy Corn Craze
- 3. Habits and Expectations
- 4. Marble Pass
- 5. Sequenced Ball Toss
- 6. Sherlock Exercise
- 7. Stump Jumping
- 8. Towers
- 9. Win As Much As You Can

**Summary**

Building Dynamic Groups takes on the challenge of helping groups strive for excellence as they function in a dynamic, viable, cutting-edge manner. This project was funded with team development funds provided through the Community Development Group of Ohio State University Extension. Have fun as you take on the challenge of..."Building Dynamic Groups!"
Knock Your Socks Off Creativity
Beth Flynn
Extension Associate, Leadership Education
Ohio State University Leadership Center
109 Agricultural Administration Building
2120 Fyffe Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1084
Phone: 614-292-1251
Fax: 614-292-9750
E-mail: flynn.61@osu.edu

Whether you think you can or whether you think you can't, you're right. -Henry Ford

Are you a creative person? In today's society, we need to be creative thinkers in order to survive. At the age of 5, our capacity for original thinking is at 90%, but by the time we become adults, our capacity for original thinking is only 2% (Ayan, 1997).

If you fear that your creativity has been buried under all of the day to day responsibilities or completely lost, be assured that you can rediscover your creative potential. Increasing your creativity is truly possible. Whatever your current creative experience is, you can achieve far more than you ever dreamed or imagined.

Knock Your Socks Off Creativity is a leadership education program designed to enhance one's creative ability. Created by the Ohio State University Leadership Center, Knock Your Socks Off Creativity is designed as a teaching module for educators to present a 2, 3, 4 or 6-hour presentation. This teaching module is available through the OSU Leadership Center.

Module Abstract

The Knock Your Socks Off Creativity module is designed to enhance the participant's creative abilities. Participants will rediscover their creativity through interactive activities that are designed to expand the participant's creative capacities. This program package is designed for two, three, four, or six-hour presentations.

Participants will capture their creativity through an activity designed to go beyond paper and pencil to remember creative ideas. Through a small group activity, participants will challenge their creativity by looking at issues from different angles. Finally, participants will discover their best creative climate as well as ways to boost creativity through a brainstorming session.

Module Objectives

Knock Your Socks Off Creativity helps participants Rediscover their creative abilities. At the end of a
creativity training session, participants will:

· Discover their creative abilities.
· Be able to identify what "climate" is best for their creativity.
· Discover their creative strengths.
· Expand their creative capacities.

Outline of Knock Your Socks Off Creativity

I. Creativity Adventure
   Using an adapted version of the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking, participants test their ability to make many connections. This test also illustrates how our thinking is very divergent.

II. Creativity Misconceptions
   Many people have preconceived ideas about creativity that can be a hindrance to expanding their creativity. According to Ayan, (1997) these limiting beliefs are putting the cart before the horse. If you have doubts about your creativity, then your attempts to be creative will fail. No matter what your creative experience has been, you have the ability to bring your dreams into existence.

   Some people believe that creativity is something that cannot be learned. Others believe that in order to be creative, you have to be artistic and produce some type of tangible item. Others are afraid to be creative, as they may fear rejection or failure.

III. What are your Creative Smarts?
   Even though everyone is creative, our creativity is expressed in different ways. Measuring the participant's multiple intelligences is one way to allow participants to realize that there are many areas in which we can be creative. The seven intelligences include: verbal/linguistic, mathematical/logical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal.

IV. Capturing Creativity
   Creative people have extensive capturing skills. They know when and where good ideas occur to them, and they stand ready to preserve them. It is important to capture ideas as they occur since ideas are fleeting.

V. Challenging Creativity
   Thomas Edison tried 20,000 different materials before finding one that was suitable to serve as a light bulb filament. So if at first you don't succeed, try, try again. We need to set up a system where risk is rewarded. One where we recognize that failure helps us to increase our creativity. Nothing risked is nothing gained.

VI. Broadening Creativity
   Training is essential to creativity, because the more experiences that you have, the more repertoires you have to pull from. Many great leaps in entrepreneurship, invention and the arts
come from people who bring diverse backgrounds to their fields. Our creativity is also broadened when we can look at things from another perspective.

VII. Creativity Climate
In order to be creative, you need to be in the right setting. This includes what type of food, toys, furnishings, music as well as the proper attire is right for you to feel comfortable to be creative. Every person is unique in what climate helps them to increase their creativity.

VIII. Creativity Busters and Boosters
Sometimes the words we use can inhibit others creativity. Through the examination of famous advice that was fortunately not taken, participants learn how to encourage others' creativity.

Through new and different experiences, we are able to boost our creativity. From looking at the world through the eyes of a child, to finding new ways to be adventurous, we can be open to many new creative ideas.

Summary

The Knock Your Socks Off Creativity module may be used as a workshop to boost your organization's creativity, or as experiential activities that add idea-expanding energy to current programs. Either way it will focus your group or organization on the expanding their creative abilities. To purchase Knock Your Socks Off Creativity, please contact Beth Flynn <flynn.61@osu.edu>

Make visible what, without you, might perhaps never have been seen. - Robert Bresson, French film director

References


Situation

The youth of Bayfield County, Wisconsin did not have an opportunity for a voice in county-wide decisions that affect them outside of the traditional 4-H Junior Leaders Association. A County Youth Board, patterned after the adult County Board of Supervisors and the UW-Extension Rural Leadership Program, was envisioned as solid models for developing youth voices and leadership skills. High school youth were targeted and the 4-H Youth Agent served as the catalyst and advisor for the Youth Board. The Bayfield County Youth Board, started in 1997, has directly involved 25 youth and 10 adults in its first two years through programs such as teen court, Youth for Youth grants, Superior Days and Public Adventures.

Objectives

1. Youth will take action on the county-wide needs of youth.
2. Youth will advise adults on decisions that affect youth.
3. Youth will learn and practice leadership and citizenship action skills.
4. Youth will earn school credit for participation in the Youth Board.

These objectives were evaluated internally through focus group interviews and informal discussions, as well as externally through case studies and interviews.

Methods

The following methods were important for the establishment of the Bayfield County Youth Board:

- Establish local program support with school student councils and their advisors. The agent met one-on-one with the student council advisors and/or guidance counselors or principals to discuss a one page project proposal. This was followed by the agent bringing the proposal to each student council for approval and support. The agent also reported ongoing progress and gained support from co-workers and key County Board members.

- Work with each school to conduct elections or appointments of their Board members. The agent encouraged the schools to make the process student centered.

- Support monthly Board meetings held in the county board room or at a hosting school. Meetings included leadership training in public speaking, writing letters to public officials, developing mission statements, goal setting, writing plans of action, grant writing and political effectiveness.
· Provide leadership and citizenship training opportunities on a monthly basis. This included attending the Wisconsin Prevention Conference, lobbying at Superior Days, developing a county teen court, initiating a Youth for Youth grant program and presenting at the state-wide all faculty and staff UW-Extension conference.

· The agent served as an advisor and resource to the Youth Board including researching resources for leadership development and funding and facilitator of communication between the Board, school officials and the County Board. The agent also facilitated all the educational sessions except those related to Superior Days. As youth took on more voice these roles became less of the agent’s responsibility.

Results

Since the Bayfield County Youth Board’s inception in 1997 until June 1999, the following results have occurred:

· All four Bayfield County school systems have participated.
· 25 youth and 10 adults have been direct participants with the Youth Board.
· 20 cases have been tried in Teen Court.
· One Youth Board member is pursuing political science in college as a result of her involvement with the Board.
· The Board president and vice president stated clearly to a UW-Extension video producer the value of UW-Extension in youth development in Bayfield County.
· The Youth Board representatives from the Bayfield school system were chosen by their principal to introduce and escort Senator Herbert Kohl at an all-school assembly.
· A peer tutoring program, designed by the Youth Board in their work with the Public Adventures curriculum, will begin with the next school year.
· Five youth have lobbied with state legislators two years in a row on youth issues at Superior Days in Madison, Wisconsin.
· Representative Gary Sherman attended a follow-up Youth Board meeting to discuss the graduated driver’s license bill with the Board members.
· Youth Board members are on the County Board agenda once each year.
· The advising agent has provided letters of recommendation for Board members for college scholarships.
· Two visits by the Otto Bremer grant staff have resulted in increased funding.
· The Bayfield County Youth Board was featured in the UW-Extension 1998 Annual Report and as
one of five case studies at the 1999 All-Faculty and Staff Conference. The Board president and vice-president and two other Youth Board members participated in conference leadership roles.

- Ten 4-H Youth Development agents have requested information on the Youth Board and its work.

**Implications**

The following potential implications are envisioned for the Bayfield County Youth Board:

- Youth who participate in the Youth Board are better prepared and will often be called upon for leadership roles.

- Agents who establish and work with Youth Boards will expand the youth development expertise and reputation. They will also be challenged by youth scheduling conflicts and finance issues. Agents may also need to be aware of 4-H clientele being curious about their work with the Youth Board and how that differs from working with 4-H junior leaders.

- Youth Board work builds UW-Extension relations with schools and county government.

- Youth Boards build the leadership and political capacity of youth.

- Teen court can lower the rate of youth crime.

- Meaningful adult and youth relationships are built through Board work.

- Agents who wish to initiate a Youth Board should be prepared to spend important time on the front end getting youth up to speed and connected to run their own program.
COMPARISON OF CAMPUS AND DISTANCE UNDERGRADUATE LEADERSHIP STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES

Susan Fritz, Associate Professor
University of Nebraska

Terri Jo Bek, Associate Professor
Nebraska College of Technical Agriculture

David L. Hall, Graduate Student
University of Nebraska

Abstract
Among the many questions faculty pose about distance delivery are concerns about the quality of students’ learning experiences. Specifically, when comparing distance delivery to classroom delivery, is the education as effective, is satisfaction as high, and can distance delivery accommodate all types of learning styles, classes, and subjects? This study explored some of these questions by comparing the pre and post-test attitudes of students enrolled in a satellite-delivered, undergraduate leadership course and experiencing the course at a distance or on the campus. The results indicate that overall students in the distance class reported less attitudinal change, were less satisfied with their interaction with the instructor and peers, felt the majority of the teaching methods were less effective, and their course evaluations were lower than their peers in the campus class. Recommendations were made for student orientation to distance technologies and instructional design expertise to vary interaction strategies.

Introduction
The public expects education to be accessible in the workplace, marketplace, and home, as well as in traditional educational settings (Nebraska Network 21 Project Team, 1995). These expectations are increasingly met by using technology to deliver both credit and non-credit education via distance. A recent article in the Chronicle of Higher Education reported that distance delivery, as an industry, has moved from barely existing three years prior to an activity level described as “dizzying” (April 9, 1999, A27). Research conducted in 1997 and 1998 indicated 44% of two-year and four-year higher education institutions were offering distance education courses, up 11% from a previous study in 1995 (Lewis, Snow, Farris, Levin & Greene, 1999). With the increase in distance offerings have come concerns voiced by stakeholder groups (e.g. the public, the legislature, and consumers) about the quality of off-campus course offerings (Olcott, 1991; 1999).

Research has determined faculty and students also have concerns about course quality (The Institute for Higher Education Policy, 1999). Miller and Pilcher’s (1999) study of students and faculty in a college of agriculture found both groups perceived off-campus courses to be of lower quality than on-campus courses. They concluded that if off-campus courses are to be offered, emphasis must be placed on “improving the production, quality control, and distribution systems for courses and course materials (p. 375).” A meta-analysis of research studies regarding the effectiveness of distance courses (telecourses) determined instructional features which impacted learner achievement were the kind of interaction during the broadcast, the kind of course and the kind of remote site (Machtmes & Asher, 2000).

In the conversion from classroom based to distance delivery, the instructor must consider a number of issues related to quality, and of paramount concern is the issue of social interaction (Cyrs & Conway, 1997). Social interaction in distance education traditionally described a process between the student and instructor that was mediated via correspondence. Unfortunately, this method of delivery has been plagued with problems associated with the student’s sense of isolation and lack of affiliation contributing to drop out rates in correspondence courses of between 40 to 90 percent (Garrison, 1989).

To combat the problems associated with mail-delayed correspondence teacher-student communications and to capitalize on emerging technology, distance education now encompasses a
broader array of communication forms. One form, the interactive satellite system, is believed to most closely replicate a “real classroom” environment for the off-campus student partially because of the increased potential for social interaction. For the off-campus student, this delivery method greatly enhanced both student-to-student and student-to-instructor interaction. Unlike some other forms of distance delivery it offers the student and teacher the opportunity for synchronous social interaction bridging the gap of distance (Dille & Mezack, 1992). Enhanced social interaction is predicted to have the potential to increase the perception of quality and to lower notoriously high drop out rates because students may not feel as isolated or alienated by the delivery system.

The University of Nebraska, much like other institutions of higher education, is recognizing the need to convert classroom-based courses to distance offerings to meet learner demands for educational opportunities throughout the state (Schauer, Rockwell, Fritz & Marx, 1998a & b). This study focuses on student reaction to a formerly classroom-based leadership course that was converted to a campus/distance offering.

The subject of leadership is one in which the process of teaching the subject, and social interaction of the students is almost as important as the material or medium that is being used (Cini, 1998). For this reason, naturally questions arose regarding whether leadership courses that are taught from a distance are as effective, and students are as satisfied, as when they are taught in a traditional classroom. Therefore, comparisons were made of campus and distance undergraduate leadership students’ attitudes towards the following:

1) The impact of the course on the likelihood of student involvement in the classroom, on campus and in the community;
2) Distance technology;
3) Teaching methods;
4) Comfort level prior to and after experiencing the distance-delivered course; and
5) Course evaluations.
Methodology

Annually, faculty in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communication, University of Nebraska, teach a course entitled “Interpersonal Skills for Leadership” to more than 600 undergraduate students on campus. The course fulfills a communication requirement in several colleges and is widely subscribed. Because of the reputation and impact of the course, Nebraska College of Technical Agriculture, a sister campus and two-year college located at the opposite end of the state, contracted with the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communication to deliver the course to their campus via satellite for credit from their institution.

In the fall of 1998, 23 University of Nebraska students (on campus) and 18 Nebraska College of Technical Agriculture students (distance) registered for the course. The course was delivered via satellite with two-way audio and one-way video transmission, and no distance site facilitation. Synchronous student-to-student and student-to-teacher interaction was achieved through suspended microphones in the campus classroom, and a “push-to-talk” microphone located in the center of the distance students’ classroom. Assignments and course expectations were equal for both groups of students. (For example, students in both classes were expected to submit weekly journal entries to the instructor via e-mail.) Two weeks into the semester, two campus students dropped the course; 21 campus and 18 distance students completed the course.

A quasi-experimental pre, post test design was used to measure campus and distance undergraduate leadership students’ attitudes towards the impact of the course on the likelihood of their student involvement in the classroom, on campus, and in the community, attitudes toward distance technology, teaching methods, comfort level prior to and after experiencing the distance-delivered course, and comparisons of course evaluations (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

One component of the survey was designed by Foster and Fritz (1992) to measure the likelihood of student involvement in the areas of: (1) academic (classroom) setting, (2) university organizations, (3) social organizations, (4) volunteerism, (5) organizations related to their major, and (6) community activities (non-university). Each subscale contained statements that related to dimensions of involvement. A Likert-scale was used, with “1” indicating “not likely” to participate, “3” indicating “moderately likely” to participate, and “5” indicating “highly likely” to participate. These statements were randomly dispersed throughout the survey. Responses were collapsed into six subscales.

A jury of University of Nebraska faculty members reviewed the survey to establish face validity. A Cronbach Alpha of r=. 94 was calculated for the entire survey, indicating a highly reliable data collection instrument.

In addition to the pre-test items, the post-test also contained statements that measured the: (1) attitudes toward distance education, (2) attitudes toward teaching methods used, and (3) comfort level of students before and after the class in regards to distance delivered courses. Attitudes toward distance education were measured with a series of eight statements. The instructions for this section are as follows: “You have just completed Interpersonal Skills for Leadership using distance education methodology. Please think about your learning experience and hypothesize how it would compare to a learning experience in a traditional classroom. In other words, do you feel that the distance education format provided education experiences that were better than, equal to, or less than educational experiences in a traditional classroom?” The eight questions could be answered on a three point scale with “1” being “better than”, “2” being “equal to”, and “3” being “less than”. Two open-ended questions were include that allowed the students to write openly about their feelings toward this learning experience, and to suggest any strategies that might have enhanced their learning experience.

A Likert scale was used to measure the students’ attitudes towards different teaching methods used throughout the semester. Twelve statements were used to measure the attitudes with a “1” indicating “quite unsuccessful”, “3” indicating “somewhat unsuccessful”, and a “5” indicating “not
applicable”. A question was included to give the students an opportunity to make suggestions on different teaching methods that might be helpful.

The students were asked to use a one through five Likert scale to measure the students comfort level at the end of the course, and also asked to answer the same statement on another one through five Likert scale that measured their comfort level at the start of the course. Both of the Likert scales had “1” indicating “very comfortable”, “3” indicating “uncomfortable”, and “5” indicating “not applicable”. A question was included that allowed students to describe any problems they may have had with the distance learning methodology.

Students evaluated the course at the end of the semester using the Course Instructor Evaluation Questionnaire (CIEQ). The CIEQ contains 21 Likert items with “1” indicating “strongly agree”, “2” indicating “agree”, “3” indicating “disagree” and “4” indicating “strongly disagree.” The 21 items are collapsed into five subscales: general attitude, method, content, interest, and instructor. The first four subscales are comprised of four (each) of the 21 items, the fifth subscale, instructor, is comprised of five items.

Collection of the Data

Students completed the survey during the first week of classes. The post-test was given during the final week of classes, prior to final examinations (Fritz & Foster, 1992). The post-test contained the same questions that were asked on the pre-test, with areas added on the post-test measuring students’ attitudes toward distance education, teaching methods, and their comfort level before and after the class in regards to distance delivered courses.

Once the instruments were administrated and collected, coding of the data was done so the information could be entered into SPSS. Students completed the CIEQ at the end of the semester. This information was coded and analyzed as well. Significance for this study was set at .05.
Analysis of Data

Once the data was coded and entered into SPSS, a comparison of overall, campus, and distance pre-test means were computed for the following subscales: (1) academic (classroom) setting, (2) university organizations, (3) social organizations, (4) volunteerism, (5) organizations related to their major, and (6) community activities (non-university). T-test comparisons were made of the overall, campus, and distance post-test subscale means.

The post-test examined the attitudes of on-campus and distance students towards distance education, teaching methods, and comfort level of students before and after the class with regard to distance-delivered courses. Chi-square comparisons of student attitudes toward distance technology were computed.

An ANOVA comparison was used to contrast the comfort level of on campus and distance students prior to, and after the distance-delivered course. ANOVA was also used to compare on-campus and distance student evaluations of the general attitude, method, content, interest and the instructor.

Findings

Student Involvement

Campus student pre-test mean scores were significantly higher than distance mean scores on the subscales of university organizations and social organizations (see Table 1). Campus student post-test scores on the subscales academic involvement, university organizations, social organizations, and organizations related to major were significantly higher than distance student mean scores.

Distance Technology

Distance students reported significantly less learning in the class than the campus students did, and significantly less change in their opinions (see Table 2). Distance students reported significantly less interaction with the instructor than campus students. Distance students also reported significantly less interaction with other participants than campus students.

Teaching Methods

Campus student mean scores were higher than distance student mean scores on all 12 teaching method dimensions. However, their responses were significantly different on the following nine teaching method dimensions: classroom discussion, e-mail journal entries, TA facilitation of group discussions, all written assignments, the video exam, the service project, and simulations (see Table 3).

Comfort Level

No significant differences were found between the comfort levels of both student groups at the start of course, nor at the end of the course (See Table 4). As reported earlier, distance students used a push-to-talk microphone in the center of their classroom. Distance students reported they were uncomfortable interacting over it initially but moved toward being more comfortable at the end of the class.

Course Evaluations

A T-test comparison determined campus students were significantly (.00) more positive about their course experience than distance students on all CIEQ subscale means (general attitude--2.45 campus/3.59 distance; method--2.25 campus/3.30 distance; content-- 2.44 campus/3.37 distance; interest--2.05 campus/2.97 distance; and instructor--2.97 campus/3.79 distance).

Conclusions and Recommendations

The differences in pre-test attitudinal subscale means indicate that differences between student
groups existed at the start of the course. Although hard to discern from the results of this study, these differences may be related to the difference in student populations and expectations at four-year and two-year campuses. Another possible reason for this difference in pre-test attitudinal subscale means could be related to students’ perceiving distance courses are of lesser quality than traditional courses (Miller & Pilcher, 1999). It is possible that students’ preconceived notions of the quality of the distance classes led to them to be more critical, as a whole.

As traditional courses are converted for distance delivery, it is important that instructors realize they may be reaching a student population different than the one on campus, and therefore, these students may have a different set of needs and expectations. In this situation, further research is needed into whether students with a two-year degree objective have a different level of involvement in institutional and social organizations than four-year degree students, and whether distance students initially perceive distance courses to be of lesser quality than traditional courses.

The amount of learning and change in opinions reported by distance students reported parallels the results of the attitudinal instrument. Distance students felt they had less interaction with the instructor and the campus class than they would have had in a traditional classroom, but yet campus students reported they had a better or equal interaction. While interaction strategies are highly important and impact student achievement (Cyrs & Conway, 1997; Schauer et al., 1998a), distance interaction strategies in this course were apparently ineffective. The addition of a site facilitator may have improved distance students’ satisfaction with social interaction. Therefore, when redesigning a course for distance delivery, site facilitation and instructional design assistance should be sought in incorporating a broader mix of interaction strategies than employed in the traditional classroom (Matchmes & Asher, 2000).

Distance students’ reactions to the teaching methods indicate, as a whole, they were less satisfied with the course components than campus students. These results could also be an indicator that as currently designed, this course, and possibly this topic, does not lend itself to distance delivery. This study supports the conclusion of Matchmes and Asher (2000) that distance learner achievement is impacted by the type of the course being delivered.

Just as the instructor of a distance course needs to be comfortable with the technology, so must the students. In particular, distance students need to be fully aware and comfortable with the distance technology (Web, Satellite, and electronic mail) before beginning a class. Preliminary training for these students would have likely assisted all students understand the format and “tools” of the course initially.

Oblinger and Rush (1997) suggested that with regard to distance learning, today’s student choices are complex, and involve a myriad of factors that are not always easily distinguishable. Therefore, it is suggested that comprehensive studies be developed that capture as much information from students as possible about the leadership distance course experience. At such time as a sufficient body of research has been completed, it is recommended that leadership faculty conduct a meta-analysis of the results to determine the appropriateness of teaching leadership courses via distance, and, if found appropriate, ascertain the strategies which increase student achievement.
Table 1

Comparison of Overall, Campus, and Distance Students’ Pre-test and Post-test Subscales and Attitudinal Statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales and Attitudinal Statements</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Campus</th>
<th>Distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=39</td>
<td>T-prob.</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Involvement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask the instructor for clarification on course expectations or assignments</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek out your academic advisor for assistance on an academic problem</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntarily contribute to class discussion</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntarily take the lead in class discussions</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek out the instructor outside of scheduled class time for assistance on a class-related problem</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Organizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek information about a university/college-wide organization</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become a member of a system-wide organization</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.21</td>
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<td>Seek office in a system-wide organization</td>
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<td>Speak up against an issue that is supported by a system-wide organization</td>
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<td>Volunteer for a student government committee</td>
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<td>.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.69 1.31 3.19 1.30 2.11 1.11</td>
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*Significant at the .05 level
Table 1 (cont.)

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<th>Subscales and Pre-Test</th>
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<th>Campus</th>
<th>Distance</th>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
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<td>SD</td>
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<td>Social Organizations</td>
<td>3.21 .99</td>
<td>3.38 1.13</td>
<td>3.02 .82</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.19 3.11 1.40 2.71 .90 .51 .18 Become a member of a university/college-recognized social organization</td>
<td>3.46 1.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.33 1.90 2.50 1.29 (e.g., sorority, fraternity) Seek office in a university/college recognized social organization</td>
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<td>3.14 1.42</td>
<td>2.80 1.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.49 3.14 1.70 2.33 1.01 (e.g., sorority, fraternity) Seek information about a university-recognized organization</td>
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<td>3.43 1.30</td>
<td>2.85 1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.50 3.00 1.70 2.83 1.07 (e.g., sorority, fraternity) Be involved in alumni after graduation</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.26 .59</td>
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<td>Community Service</td>
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<td>.70 3.31 .63 3.02 .72 .32 .24 Contribute time as a part of a group to a community volunteer program</td>
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<td>3.62 .91 3.81 .75 3.39 1.01 Contribute time to an individual client of a community volunteer program</td>
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<td>3.56 .94 3.71 .90 3.39 .98 Contribute money to an individual client of a community volunteer program</td>
<td>2.85 .73</td>
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<td>2.69 .95 2.86 .91 2.50 .99 Seek a leadership role (e.g., committee chair, board member) in a community volunteer program</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.26 1.20 3.43 1.10 3.06 1.20 Contribute money to a community volunteer program</td>
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<td>2.90 .94 3.00 1.11 2.78 .81</td>
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</table>

Note. 1=Not Likely, 3=Moderately Likely, 5=Highly Likely. *p<.05. T-Prob. a=pre-test comparisons between campus and distance, T-Prob. b=post-test comparison between campus and distance, T-Prob. c=comparison of campus pre-test with campus posttest, T-Prob. d=comparison of distance pre-test with distance post-test, T-Prob. e=overall pre-test and post-test comparison.

### Table 2

Comparison of Campus and Distance Students’ Attitudes Toward Distance Technology
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N=39</td>
<td>N=21</td>
<td>N=18</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 % 2 % 3 %</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>Chi-Sq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The amount that you learned</td>
<td>3 .07 28 .72 7 .18</td>
<td>2 .09 18 .86 0 .00</td>
<td>1 .06 10 .56 7 .39 .02 10.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill(s) you gained</td>
<td>8 .25 25 .64 5 .13</td>
<td>5 .24 15 .71 0 .00</td>
<td>3 .17 10 .56 5 .28 .07 7.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinions that changed</td>
<td>6 .15 26 .67 6 .15</td>
<td>5 .24 15 .71 0 .00</td>
<td>1 .06 11 .61 6 .33 .02* 9.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desires that changed</td>
<td>5 .13 26 .67 7 .18</td>
<td>2 .09 15 .71 3 .14</td>
<td>2 .11 12 .67 4 .22 .73 1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practices that changed</td>
<td>4 .10 26 .67 7 .18</td>
<td>2 .10 14 .67 3 .14</td>
<td>2 .11 11 .61 5 .28 .75 1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of your project</td>
<td>6 .15 22 .56 10 .26</td>
<td>4 .19 14 .67 2 .09</td>
<td>2 .11 8 .44 .10 6.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with instructor</td>
<td>7 .18 16 .41 15 .38</td>
<td>6 .29 13 .62 1 .05</td>
<td>1 .06 3 .17 14 .78 .00* 21.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with other participants</td>
<td>10 .26 14 .36 14 .36</td>
<td>8 .38 10 .48 2 .09</td>
<td>2 .11 4 .22 12 .67 .00* 13.60</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Note. 1=Better than, 2=Equal to, 3=Less than. *p<.05
Table 3

Comparison of Overall, Campus and Distance Students’ Attitudes Toward Teaching Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How successful did you feel these methods were in helping you expand your awareness or knowledge level?</th>
<th>Overall N=39</th>
<th>Campus N=21</th>
<th>Distance N=18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using classroom discussion</td>
<td>1.74 .72</td>
<td>1.33 .48</td>
<td>2.22 .65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having students e-mail journal entries</td>
<td>2.21 .98</td>
<td>1.90 1.04</td>
<td>2.56 .78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using teaching assistants to facilitate group discussions</td>
<td>1.74 .64</td>
<td>1.48 .51</td>
<td>2.06 .64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic lecture with overheads</td>
<td>1.67 .66</td>
<td>1.52 .68</td>
<td>1.83 .62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written assignments:</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project outline</td>
<td>1.77 .74</td>
<td>1.48 .68</td>
<td>2.11 .68</td>
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<tr>
<td>Project notebook</td>
<td>1.82 .79</td>
<td>1.52 .68</td>
<td>2.17 .79</td>
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<tr>
<td>Project paper</td>
<td>1.74 .76</td>
<td>1.40 .60</td>
<td>2.11 .76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written assignments:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Research project and presentation</td>
<td>2.16 .89</td>
<td>1.86 .85</td>
<td>2.53 .80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Video exam</td>
<td>1.55 .77</td>
<td>1.18 .64</td>
<td>2.00 .68</td>
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<td>Project</td>
<td>1.56 .88</td>
<td>1.14 .65</td>
<td>2.06 .87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulations</td>
<td>1.91 .85</td>
<td>1.50 .69</td>
<td>2.47 .74</td>
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</table>

Note. 1=Quite successful to 4=Quite unsuccessful  *p<.05
Table 4

Comfort Level of Distance and Campus Students Prior to and After the Distance Delivered Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>At the END of the course I was…</th>
<th>When the course STARTED, I was…</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>N=21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting via telephone during class time</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using handouts provided in the text</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating outside of class electronically</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submitting papers via e-mail</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1=Very comfortable to 4=Very uncomfortable.  * p<.05

References


ICEBREAKERS For Emerging Leaders!
Association of Leadership Educators
July 15, 2000
Toronto, Quebec, Canada

Cheryl Gholar, Ph.D., Educator
University of Illinois Extension
Community Leadership and Volunteerism
6438 Joliet Road
Countryside Extension Center
Countryside, IL 60525
Email: gholarc@mail.aces.uiuc.edu
http://www.urbanext.aces.uiuc.edu/

Larry W. Wilson, Ph.D., Educator
University of Illinois Extension
Community Leadership and Volunteerism
Chicago Extension Center
216 W. Jackson, Suite 625
Chicago, IL 60606
email: lwwilson@uiuc.edu
http://www.urbanext.uiuc.edu/

Icebreakers are activities designed to make learning easier for participants involved in workshops, courses, conferences, skill-development seminars and other educational programs, both formal and informal. As tools to stimulate creative thinking and challenge basic assumptions, icebreakers contain structured activities that span an unlimited range of topics. Workshop activities are selected to promote group interaction and individual learning.

Icebreakers are designed to reduce anxiety and increase group energy. They can provide excellent opportunities for feedback and disclosure. When used as catalyst for exploring thoughts, feelings, perceptions, impressions, and reactions, these activities become tools for reducing barriers to learning. They enhance and impact the relevance and meaning of the course content under study. Demonstrating that learning can be both meaningful and enjoyable, experiential activities set the stage for increased interaction and intellectual curiosity. Creative exploration of personal and professional development is essential for presentations on topics that include leadership, supervision, team building, assessment, motivation, problem solving and more.

Keep in mind that an icebreaker is not an end in and of itself. Icebreakers are activities with training implication when appropriately applied, capture the essence of specific program goals, and become potent aids for teaching and learning.

Learning is a process that involves participants in a variety of strategies and approaches. When used with sensitivity to individual and group needs, these strategies can become effective resources for developing authentic teaching and learning opportunities. Activities that nurture the human needs of participants also strengthen their innate ability to strive and achieve. Icebreakers help ensure that participants understand and are receptive to the information and/or skills presented during the learning program. Icebreakers provide a natural lead into content-based materials. Their effective application can enhance almost any educational event.

The activities contained in this workshop can be used with a variety of audiences. Training applications will vary as the facilitator takes into account the specific needs of an audience, conditions, and appropriateness of an individual activity. Modifying activities as needed to more effectively meet the needs of a particular group or program is encouraged.
used as an effective learning tool, the skill of teaching becomes an art! Teaching that is transformed into an art enables educators to assist in shaping within the learner a new sense of reality, and the discovery of additional possibilities.
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if the act of teaching character education programs, such as Character Counts!, affected the internalization of taught ethical values. Fifty-three Cooperative Extension personnel completed a web-based survey analyzing Character Counts! impact on Cooperative Extension, the personal life of Extension educators and assistants, and society. Results demonstrated that Extension educators and assistants were more likely to make ethical decisions in the areas of Cooperative Extension, personal life, and society as a result of teaching Character Counts!. Collected data also suggested the need for increased implementation of Character Counts! principles in Cooperative Extension programming, broader networking between character education supporters, and increased program evaluation, additional reinforcement, and results analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout a lifetime, there are numerous opportunities to experience character development. Through successes and failures, a moralistic foundation is then created. As one continues to experience life, additional values and character traits are implemented to strengthen this foundation. In many instances, this foundation is continually relied upon as a background for important decision-making processes. As a result of the current ethical trend of society, these processes warp due to outside, unethical influences.

Increased character education is one alternative available to help remedy the mayhem of moral decline in America. Research suggests a correlation between the teaching of character education of youth and its positive ethical results throughout the United States. While these findings demonstrate positive changes experienced by youth audiences, no research to date has been conducted on the effects that teaching Character

INTERNALIZATION OF CHARACTER TRAITS BY THOSE WHO TEACH CHARACTER COUNTS!

Kristyn Harms, Undergraduate Student
Susan Fritz, Associate Professor
University of Nebraska

Figure 1. Kohlberg’s Six Stages of Moral Reasoning.
Counts! has on those teaching the program. In essence, is the act of teaching character education programs, such as Character Counts!, an element of internalizing taught ethical values? Specifically, this research project examined Character Counts! impact on Cooperative Extension, the personal life of Extension educators and assistants, and society. This project also analyzed the following hypothesis and demonstrated how it applies to modern-day character education:

Extension educators and assistants internalize the ethical concepts that they teach via Character Counts!. Their workplace, personal life, and societal life are all affected by this increased character education instruction. Their direct experiences through Character Counts! instruction assist them in applying ethical principles in their everyday lives.

In a recent survey of 20,829 high school and middle school students conducted by the Josephson Institute of Ethics (1997):

- 47% of all high school students said they had stolen something from a store in the past year.

- 70% of the high school students confessed to cheating at least once in the past year.

- 91% said they were “satisfied with my own ethics and character.”

- 97% said “it is important for me to be a person with good character!”

At the same time, throughout 1995, one out of three students surveyed stole something from a store one or more times (Dougherty, 1996). According to a survey done by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 45% of students surveyed agreed that cheating is a serious problem in their schools, while 38% agreed that stealing
was a serious problem (Boyer, 1995).

These statistics are not restricted to the young. According to a recent survey of the Josephson Institute of Ethics (1997), one in five American workers admitted they lied to a superior in the last year. In fact, roughly 25% have lied to a subordinate or a customer. One in three admits that when competitive pressures hit at work, they resort to cheating or lying to make things easier. The honesty quotient does not improve on the home front. Twenty-five percent of adult children lied to their own parent in the past twelve months. One-third lied to their spouse, while one in four lied to their own children (Josephson, 1997).

Crime and violence are also on the rise. For example, in 1960, the total crime rate per 100,000 Americans was 1,890; in 1998, the crime rate increased to 4,620. In addition, the violent crime rate nearly quadrupled between 1960 and 1998. These statistics are not restricted to adults. In 1970, arrest rates for violent offenses of 15-17 year olds were 380 per 100,000 Americans; in 1998, the arrest rates for violent offenses of this same age category were 670 (United States Department of Justice, 1998).

THE NEED FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

The picture painted by these findings suggests the need for a commitment toward enhancing the value individuals place on traits such as trustworthiness and respect. It also suggests the need for an increased emphasis on character training. No longer can we rely on families to be the only, or even the primary, force in shaping the character of children. In the 1995 Survey on the Advancement of Teaching sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation, 70% of the U.S. parents questioned agreed that the family has the primary responsibility for developing values in children (Boyer, 1995). While U.S. families may strongly believe character education should occur at home, given the crime, violence and deception statistics, it is evidence that this “in home” approach needs support from other entities.
HISTORY OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

**Early Teaching of Ethics.** The teaching of ethics and moral development has long been an interest of educators. Character education was often associated with education in general. Throughout history, the two goals of education were to help people become smart and to help them become good (Lickona, 1991). Acting on that belief, schools tackled character education through discipline, the teacher’s example, and the daily school curriculum. The Bible was the public school’s sourcebook for both moral and religious instruction. When struggles eventually arose over whose Bible to use and which doctrines to teach, William McGuffey, in 1836, offered the McGuffey Readers. McGuffey retained many favorite Biblical stories but added poems, exhortations and heroic tales. While children practiced their reading or arithmetic, they also learned lessons about honesty, love of neighbor, hard work, thriftiness, and courage (Lickona, 1991).

**Kantian Theory.** Another major force in the field of character education was the 18th century philosopher, Immanuel Kant. Kant wrote about the duties and obligations of moral people. Kant believed that people should act in such a way that their actions become moral law. Kantian theory, later known as the Kantian Categorical Imperative, stated that each situation should be approached in the same manner, which would result in identical results, regardless of individual circumstances (Benninga, 1997).

**Logical Positivism.** In the 20th century, the consensus supporting character education began to crumble. Darwin’s introduction of evolution led people to see ideas, including morality, as being in discord with real-life issues and situations. No longer did society see issues as being black and white. Long-held beliefs about the real meaning of “truth” were questioned (Kohlberg, 1976).

The philosophy of logical positivism, transmitting from Europe to American colleges and universities, asserted a basic distinction from facts (which could be scientifically proven) and values (which positivism held were mere expressions of feeling, not objective truth). As a result of positivism, morality was relativized and privatized, becoming a subject unfit for public debate or transmission through the schools.
In the 1960s, a worldwide rise in personalism celebrated the worth, autonomy and distinctiveness of the person, emphasizing individual rights and freedom over responsibility. Personalism rightly protested societal oppression and injustice, but also depressed moral authority and weakened social commitments. In addition, the rapidly intensifying pluralism of American society (Whose values should we teach?) and the increasing secularization of the public arena (Does moral education violate the separation of church and state?) became two more barriers to achieving the moral consensus for character education in public schools. Public schools retreated from their once central role as moral and character educators.

**Values Clarification and Kohlberg’s Theory.** The 1970s saw a return of value-laden education, but in new forms: values clarification and Kohlberg’s (1976) moral dilemma discussions. Values clarification stressed not imposing values, but rather helping students choose their values freely. Kohlberg’s theory helped develop students’ powers of moral reasoning so they could judge which values were superior to others.

Values clarification, though rich in methodology, failed to distinguish between personal preferences (a matter of free choice) and moral reasoning (a matter of obligation). The proponents of values clarification interpreted the dramatic changes in youth behaviors as a direct result of adolescent confusion in values. The proposed solution was not to ingrain traditional values into the minds of youth but rather to assist them in clarifying their current values. This method of values clarification involved the instructor merely helping students focus on their own life issues and situations, as well as the surrounding possibilities and solutions (Leming, 1997). The teacher was urged to be only a facilitator of the process and, for fear of influencing students, was to withhold his or her own personal viewpoints. Whatever values the students
Kohlberg posited that individuals proceed through a sequence of six distinct stages of moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1976). Each stage expands ethically in an attempt to reach a final, altruistic way of life. (These stages are outlined in Figure 1.)

According to Kohlberg, as individuals moved through the sequence of moral reasoning, they become more apt to exhibit ethical behaviors in everyday life. By systematically exposing students to moral conflict accompanied by the presentation of moral reasoning one stage above their own, researchers believed that students would be attracted to that reasoning and adopt it as their own (Leming, 1997).

**Character Education in the 1990’s.** In the 1990’s a new character education movement developed, one that restored “good character” to its historical place as the central desirable outcome of the school’s moral involvement.

Thomas Lickona, noted educational psychologist and director for the Center of the 4th and 5th R’s, defined character education as “the deliberate effort to help people understand, care about, and act upon core ethical values” (Leming, 1997). Based on this definition, character education programs continued to develop.

**CHARACTER COUNTS!**

In 1992, the Josephson Institute of Ethics called together more than 30 educational leaders representing state school boards, teachers’ unions, universities, ethnic centers, youth organizations and religious groups. The diverse group discussed how organizations might work together to help young people grow strong ethically. They agreed that a
common language of values, used pervasively and consistently throughout a community, would be the most effective means of reaching young people. They found unanimous consensus in six essential ethical values (now known as the “Six Pillars of Character”) that could be taught by public and private institutions without risk of socioeconomic, ethnic, political, gender or religious offense. These pillars are: trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring and citizenship.

Based on these pillars, Character Counts! became an important part of many communities. For example, in Gaithersburg, Maryland, trainers introduced the program into the curricula of 21 public schools and integrated it into various city and community programs and special events (Josephson Institute, 1998). The mayor decreed that "the City of Gaithersburg logo will not appear without the Character Counts! logo alongside" (Josephson Institute, 1998). The business community started sponsoring various character education projects, and the religious community agreed to stress character development using the language of shared values. The city’s “Vision Statement” was revised to read: “In the 21st century, Gaithersburg will be a city that lives by the Six Pillars of Character Counts!” (Josephson Institute, 1998).

In Bridgeport, Connecticut, nearly 6,000 youth experienced Character Counts! education in the classroom. Bi-monthly program newsletters were sent to area citizens to emphasize the important impact Character Counts! had on society. Corporate sponsorship also came into play as McDonald’s, in cooperation with the City of Bridgeport, presented Character Counts! sessions to children in the surrounding area. Contests and community service activities also stressed the importance of the program in Bridgeport (Gaithersburg City Council, 1998).

In Nebraska, Character Counts! has been a prominent tool in shaping the moral development of youth, families, and their communities. To date:

- 1,900 youth and adults have been trained, equipping them to teach Character Counts! to others.
• 20,000 youth have been reached through Character Counts! programs involving at least 15 hours of programming.

• 123,000 youth have been reached through other Character Counts! programs including day camps, one-on-one contact with Kiwanis members, Family Community Education clubs, religious school classes, employees participating in workforce training programs, etc.

• Over 700,000 have been reached indirectly with information about character education through television and radio broadcasts; newspapers; newsletters provided to child care providers, 4-H members and parents of school children; and other media.

Outcomes of CHARACTER COUNTS!: Preliminary studies of the effectiveness of Character Counts! programming on young people showed significant, positive behavior change. For example, at a West Des Moines pilot school, teachers using Character Counts! reported:

• 26% reduction in time-outs
• 17% reduction in detentions
• 91% reduction of discipline write-ups on buses

A recent survey of Nebraska educators demonstrated that Character Counts! made a difference in the lives of students. Of those who responded:

• 85% reported an overall positive difference in the children they teach,

• 73% reported students using the language of the six pillars (trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring and citizenship), and

• 75% reported changing their own behavior as a result of teaching
Behaviors most frequently seen as changed due to using Character Counts! included:

- Helping each other (61% reported increased frequency)
- Blaming others (55% reported decreased frequency)
- Being truthful (50% reported increased frequency) (Nebraska State 4-H Department, 1999).

**INTERNALIZATION OF CHARACTER TRAITS BY THOSE WHO TEACH**

While these findings demonstrate positive changes experienced by youth audiences, to date, no research has been conducted on the effects of teaching Character Counts! on those implementing the program. Many feel that one's character is permanently formed during childhood. However, character education is, in fact, a lifelong process (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1997). While one experiences real world situations, internal psychological processes are expanded, thus leading to the internalization of taught concepts. Internalization can be defined as the incorporation of values or patterns of culture within the self as conscious or subconscious guiding principles through learning or socialization (Krippendorff, 1995). According to a University of Michigan study, (Constructing knowledge) suggests that individuals create their own new understandings, based upon the interactions of what they already know and believe, and the phenomena or ideas with which they come into contact (Richardson, 1999, 146).

This implies that the internalization of concepts is a direct result of learning based on interactions and experiences. In the same sense, teaching Character Counts! (direct experience) leads to the internalization of ethical principles found directly in character
education. Internalized ethical principles result in increased moral behavior (Rest, 1997). Hence, one would assume that those teaching Character Counts! would be more likely to use the ethical principles and exhibit positive behaviors as a direct result of teaching character education.
PROBLEM STATEMENT and OBJECTIVES

In essence, is the act of teaching character education programs, such as Character Counts!, an element of internalizing taught ethical values? Specifically, this research project examined:

2. Character Counts! impact on personal life of Extension educators and assistants.
3. Character Counts! impact on society of Extension educators and assistants.

POPULATION/SAMPLE

Since Character Counts! is a statewide character education program, all Extension educators and assistants within the state of Nebraska were given the opportunity to participate in this survey, thus creating the study population. Since not all Extension educators and assistants taught Character Counts!, not all of the expected population responded to the survey. Based on the nature of this study, the sample consisted of those educators involved with Character Counts!. Thus, a control group was not formulated, creating a limitation to this study.

INSTRUMENT

The instrument was designed to address the study question. The instrument was composed of four sections. Section one dealt with general demographic and background information pertaining to Character Counts! involvement and programming, and employment within Cooperative Extension. Section two was comprised of questions addressing the effects of Character Counts! education within Cooperative Extension. Section three addressed the impact of Character Counts! education within everyday life. Section four was composed of questions pertaining to Character Counts! impact on society. In sections two through four, participants were asked to respond to each question by rating their level of agreement on a 1-5 scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Participants were also asked to address a major positive change in their lives than may be attributed to teaching Character Counts!.

INFORMED CONSENT and DISTRIBUTION

The informed consent form and survey was posted on the Internet. All Extension
educators and assistants were notified of the study via e-mail on January 14, 2000. This e-mail contained a link directing participants to the survey site. The first page of the survey site consisted of the informed consent form. Thus, participants were not able to complete the survey without first reading and agreeing to the conditions of the study set forth in the informed consent form. The second page consisted of the actual survey. By completing the survey, participants gave their consent to participate in this study.

Follow-up reminders were e-mailed to the study population on January 27, 2000, and February 15, 2000.

DATA ANALYSIS
Data was analyzed using SPSS-PC. Means, frequencies, and standard deviations for all relevant items were run, with significance set at the .05 level. ANOVA comparisons were made to determine any relationships between categorical, job position and gender respondents.

FINDINGS
The educators involved in this study were either Extension educators or Extension assistants. Of the 53 respondents, 18 were employed as Extension assistants and 31 as Extension educators. Four respondents were employed in other positions of Cooperative Extension. Forty-two (79.2%) were female, and 11 (20.8%) were male.

OBJECTIVE ONE: Examine Character Counts! Impact on Cooperative Extension
Survey results indicated that 89% (47 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that they were more sensitive to ethical dilemmas within Cooperative Extension, in general, and within a given county/EPU. In addition, 83% (44 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that they were more sensitive to ethical dilemmas within a particular extension office. This suggests a relationship between teaching Character Counts! and increasing sensitivity levels to ethical dilemmas faced in all facets of Cooperative Extension.

In addition, 91% (48 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! with Cooperative Extension colleagues.
across the state, while 93% (49 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! in Cooperative Extension programs as a result of teaching Character Counts!. In addition, 77% (41 respondents) of the sample agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! within their particular office.

No statistical significance was found when comparing Character Counts! impact on Cooperative Extension and gender. In addition, no statistical significance was found when comparing Character Counts! impact on Cooperative Extension and position.

**OBJECTIVE TWO: Character Counts! Impact on Personal Life**

When analyzing Character Counts! impact on the personal lives of extension staff surveyed, 77% (41 respondents) of the 53 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were more aware of ethical dilemmas within their own personal lives as a result of teaching Character Counts!. One respondent stated, "(Character Counts!) has really changed the way I think about raising my children. I look differently at how my actions affect their behavior.” In addition, 85% (45 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to advocate ethical decision making in their circles of friends and families as a result of teaching Character Counts!. According to one respondent, “In addition to helping me be a person of better character, I try to help others learn how to do that as well.”

According to survey results, 72% (38 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed to being more likely to read character education books and articles, while 70% (37 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed to being more likely to participate in character development seminars/training.

A statistically significant difference (.01) was found when comparing Character Counts! impact on personal life and gender of Extension educators and assistants. The female respondents were more likely to read character education books and articles than males. In addition, females were more likely to participate in character development seminars/training than male respondents.
No statistically significant differences were found when comparing Character Counts! impact on personal life and job position of Extension educators and assistants.

OBJECTIVE THREE: Character Counts! Impact on Society

After examining Character Counts! impact on society, results demonstrated that 83% (41 respondents) of the 53 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to take a stand in local, ethical situations as a result of teaching Character Counts!. When considering statewide issues, 68% (36 respondents) of the 53 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to take a stand in statewide, ethical situations after teaching Character Counts!. When analyzing global issues, 42% (22 respondents) of the 53 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were more likely to take a stand in global, ethical situations as a result of teaching Character Counts!. Based on survey respondent comments, ethical situations were defined as recycling, gun violence, resource conservation, and domestic abuse.

A statistically significant difference (.01) was found when comparing Character Counts! impact on society and position of Extension educators and assistants. Extension assistants were more likely to take a stand in local, statewide, and global ethical situations.

A statistically significant difference (.01) was also found when comparing Character Counts! impact on society and gender of Extension educators and assistants. Females were more likely to take a stand in statewide and global, ethical situations.

CONCLUSIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

When examining Character Counts! impact on Cooperative Extension, it can be concluded that Character Counts! had a major impact on Cooperative Extension personnel. Relationships were found between teaching Character Counts! and increasing the sensitivity levels to ethical dilemmas faced in all facets of Cooperative Extension in this study. These results served as major indicators of the effects of Character Counts! on those who teach the program, suggesting the internalization of taught, ethical principles.

One may feel more sensitive towards ethical issues in Cooperative Extension as a
result of teaching Character Counts!

However, will one feel more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! within Cooperative Extension? A link was detected between teaching Character Counts! principles and implementing them into various aspects of Cooperative Extension programming, suggesting the internalization of these ethical principles. These respondents suggested an increased amount of Character Counts! awareness within Cooperative Extension, thus increasing the amount of Character Counts! exposure and direct experience available to Extension educators and assistants within various facets of their professional lives. In addition to directly teaching Character Counts!, Michael Josephson’s recent visit (April, 2000) and presentations at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln campus created a wider amount of Character Counts! exposure directly available to Cooperative Extension personnel, providing another avenue of exposure and direct experience available to Extension educators and assistants. This visitation created an increase in Character Counts! publicity and expanded the distribution of Character Counts! information across Nebraska.

Based on this relationship, Cooperative Extension personnel are encouraged to broaden the implementation of Character Counts! principles within Cooperative Extension programming. Without risk of socioeconomic, ethnic, political, gender or religious offense, Character Counts! can be taught to a larger spectrum of audiences, making Character Counts! principles available to a wider, more diverse audience.

When examining Character Counts! impact on the personal lives of Extension educators and assistants, it can be concluded that Character Counts! had a major impact on the personal lives of the respondents. These results suggested Extension educators and assistants are more likely to advocate ethical decision making in their personal lives and among friends and family. Extension educators and assistants have internalized a great deal of the principles they teach via the Character Counts! program. In addition to the internalization of Character Counts! principles, the increased state and national discussion levels of Character Counts! greatly impacted the results of this study objective.
Results indicated extension staff internalized Character Counts! principles following the actual teaching of the program. This internalization was manifested in their personal lives to a much greater extent than their professional lives. This incongruity suggested the gap might be related to a lack of understanding ways to integrate Character Counts! into local programming. Therefore, Nebraska Cooperative Extension staff are encouraged to develop and share strategies for local Character Counts! program integration. Possible methods of sharing Character Counts! strategies among Cooperative Extension staff include developing list servs, phone bridges, web sites, and discussion groups for those already implementing and those interested in implementing Character Counts! principles into various programmatic areas.

In addition to spreading Character Counts! values and principles among friends and family, teaching Character Counts! also led to personal character development; extension staff were more apt to consider themselves role models as a result of teaching Character Counts!. One respondent stated,

(As a result of teaching Character Counts!,) I have become much more aware of the need for character education and the critical need for adults to be good role models for youth. As such, I try much harder to be that kind of role model.

These results demonstrated an increase in the likelihood of professional and personal development as a result of teaching Character Counts!, thus strengthening the processes of internalization of Character Counts! principles. The general continuing education movement of Cooperative Extension also influenced the results of this study objective.

In addition, these results demonstrated an increase in the likelihood of female professional and personal development as a result of teaching Character Counts!. When comparing Character Counts! impact on society and gender of extension staff participating in this survey, responses also demonstrated an increased likelihood of females taking a stand in statewide and global, ethical situations. These results suggested that females are more likely to utilize Character Counts! principles on a grander scheme of events, thus,
demonstrating a stronger female internalization of Character Counts! philosophy. Based on the relational nature of character education and the socialization of females to be highly relational, survey results exhibited a significantly higher rate of internalization of Character Counts! principles among female respondents.

Based on the increased internalization of Character Counts! principles among female respondents, Cooperative Extension personnel are encouraged to seek the inclusion of more males into the instruction of character education programs such as Character Counts! and promote gender balance in character-related initiatives.

When comparing the impact of Character Counts! on society, it can be concluded that Character Counts! had an impact on the societal lives of extension staff participating in this study. However, as the societal context broadened, Character Counts! impact on the societal lives of survey participants declined. As the society level shifted from local to statewide to global, survey results displayed a decline in the willingness to take a stand in ethical situations at these various societal levels. However, overall, these results still suggested an increased application of Character Counts! principles in real-world, ethical situations.

Character Counts! training grew out of concern by Michael Josephson and others that unfortunately has been verified by negative changes in crime rates in this country. The intent of the program was to cause positive societal changes through the character education of youth. Extension staff should be encouraged to consider their local efforts part of grass roots efforts to build a positive future for society.

In the majority of Character Counts! instruction efforts, Cooperative Extension served as the nucleus to all surrounding individuals and communities. However, as Cooperative Extension positions continue to decline, Character Counts! efforts should still increase as violence continues to cripple society. To increase these local Character Counts! efforts, Cooperative Extension personnel should locate the character education catalysts in their
communities to expand the Character Counts! implementation efforts. If this is done, these catalysts will increase the amount of public exposure of Character Counts!, thus shifting the overall local impact to a much wider spectrum of audiences.

When comparing Character Counts! impact on society and job position of Extension educators and assistants, results exhibited the increased likelihood of Extension assistants to take a stand in local, statewide, and global, ethical situations. It can be concluded that Extension assistants were more likely to internalize Character Counts! principles by applying these values to real-life situations. With the continued evolutions of information sources available to the general public, it can also be concluded that this increased availability of information is a catalyst for the increased awareness of local, statewide, and global occurrences, thus effecting study results.

Overall, Character Counts! educators have not regularly conducted the necessary programmatic evaluations of the effectiveness of Character Counts! on the teachers and students of Character Counts!. Cooperative Extension personnel are encouraged to regularly evaluate the progress of Character Counts! educators and students in attempts to provide a more solid background on the effectiveness of Character Counts! on both the teachers and students of the program. This results analysis will provide the necessary research framework for Character Counts!.

While this study shed light on the impact of teaching Character Counts! on Nebraska Extension educators, a much clearer and scientifically stronger approach to studying the question of impact would be replication and expansion of this study using an experimental design.
**Table 1**  
**Character Counts! Impact on Cooperative Extension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudinal Statement</th>
<th>n=53</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Since teaching Character Counts!</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>2 (3.8%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>34 (64.2%)</td>
<td>13 (24.5%)</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more sensitive to ethical dilemmas within Cooperative Extension in general.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>35 (66%)</td>
<td>12 (22.6%)</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more sensitive to ethical dilemmas within my County/EPU.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>3 (7.5%)</td>
<td>30 (56.6%)</td>
<td>14 (26.4%)</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! with Cooperative Extension colleagues across the state.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>2 (3.8%)</td>
<td>37 (69.8%)</td>
<td>11 (20.8%)</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! in Cooperative Extension programs.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>32 (60.4%)</td>
<td>17 (32.1%)</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.64</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to stress the importance of Character Counts! within my office.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>9 (17.0%)</td>
<td>33 (62.3%)</td>
<td>8 (15.1%)</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 2**
**Character Counts! Impact on Personal Life**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudinal Statement</th>
<th>n=53</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Since teaching Character Counts!:</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>2 (5.7%)</td>
<td>3 (15.1%)</td>
<td>4 (50.9%)</td>
<td>5 (26.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more aware of ethical dilemmas within my personal life.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>8 (15.1%)</td>
<td>27 (50.9%)</td>
<td>14 (26.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to advocate ethical decision making in my circle of friends and family.*</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>2 (3.8%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>31 (58.5%)</td>
<td>14 (26.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to read character education books and articles.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>10 (18.9%)</td>
<td>28 (52.8%)</td>
<td>10 (18.9%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to participate in character development seminars/training.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>3 (5.7%)</td>
<td>12 (22.6%)</td>
<td>28 (52.8%)</td>
<td>9 (17.0%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Not all respondents answered this survey question (n=52).
### Table 3
**Character Counts! Impact on Society**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudinal Statement</th>
<th>n=53</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Since teaching Character Counts!:</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>2 (11.3%)</td>
<td>3 (45.3%)</td>
<td>4 (34.0%)</td>
<td>5 (7.5%)</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to take a stand in global, ethical situations.</td>
<td>1 (1.9%)</td>
<td>5 (9.4%)</td>
<td>11 (20.8%)</td>
<td>32 (60.4%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to take a stand in local, ethical situations.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4 (7.5%)</td>
<td>5 (9.4%)</td>
<td>35 (66.0%)</td>
<td>9 (17.0%)</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


What is the economic impact of a leadership development program? Is the return on investment for leadership training significant?

Quantitative measures can be easily used to determine the efficiency of a leadership program, usually related to the program's delivery. Examples include: resources used, activities conducted, the number of people involved, their reaction to the program, etc.

The effectiveness of a program is determined through a higher level evaluation, and might measure the amount of learning by a participant, or the extent and quality of the application of that learning in their "back home" situation. Higher level evaluations consider whether the program produced results, and the highest of all levels focuses on impacts: social, environmental, and economic.

Leadership development practitioners have called for tools and techniques to measure the impact of their work. Their primary need is to measure the economic impact of their programs to help them in their reporting to sponsors, in their marketing, and in their search for funding.

The number of jobs created or the change in income as a result of a leadership program is not easily determined. The changes brought about by leadership development tend to be intangible and hard to trace. Societal level impacts are not generally realized immediately following the completion of a leadership development program, and often times the changes seen over time may be attributed to other sources.

This paper presents the results of two quantitative studies on two separate leadership development programs and describes the approaches used to determine the return on investment for each.

**Programs Descriptions**

The **Advanced Agricultural Leadership Program (AALP)**, established by the Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, the University of Guelph, the Ontario Federation of Agriculture and the Foundation for Rural Living provides an opportunity for emerging leaders in all levels of Ontario's agri-food system to develop the skills, knowledge, broad perspective and positive attitude needed to shape the future of Ontario agriculture. It is formal, intensive and rigorous and includes 2 two week study tours in addition to nine 3 day seminars over an 18 month period. Seminars deal with advanced leadership skills development, decision-making, national and international trade, marketing, economics, business, environment and resources, working with the media, trends in agriculture and society, government and political systems and negotiation skills. In addition the program conducts 2 two week study tours one in North America (Canada and the US) and one international tour outside the North American continent.

**10 Steps to Community Action** is a community based, rural leadership development program. It is based on the belief that increasing the ability of local leaders stimulates rural areas to become more competitive and self-reliant, thereby increasing the chances of developing a prosperous local economy. This program is shorter in duration than AALP, less rigorous in both selection and curriculum content and provides a limited out of area study experience. 10 Steps is locally designed and provides a variety
of experiential learning activities. Participants have the opportunity to develop their individual, organizational and community leadership skills; increase their awareness and understanding of local community issues: and to create a skilled network for community action.

Methodology

Overview

Even though both research studies had similar objectives and operated under the same philosophies the two study groups were different. In their individual situations outside the program, the AALP participants were engaged in activities where much economic information is readily available. 10 Steps participants worked in the volunteer sector where there is relatively less economic related information. In both studies, every effort was made to be as prudent as possible, erring on the side of conservatism. Expert opinion was utilized for confirmation and verification of aggregate impacts of the aggregate impacts of the AALP graduates. This paper provides an overview of the methodology. Detailed methodologies are included in the Appendix.

Data Collection

Participant Interviews

- significant activities the graduate has been involved in since the program
- perceived contribution of the individual graduate to the success/effectiveness of the identified activity
- percentage of the impact due to the program versus other training and experiences.

Secondary Data

- collected from sources that corroborated with the information from the graduate interviews.
- assist in developing assumption for cumulative impacts.

External Perspective

- Persons external to the programs who have knowledge of graduates work to determine their view of the impacts of the training on graduates.

Costs

- Participant Costs = Tuition + Replacement costs related to relief workers, baby sitters, etc., + travel costs to get to and from the seminar sessions + opportunity costs for the lost time either from the farm or from work.
- Program costs + operating + salaries
- Speakers costs - actual + opportunity costs
- Direct administrative and operating expenses (Salaries, room rentals)
- In kind contributions (Board participation, donation of rooms, meals etc.)

Benefits

Individual Contributions

Value of Gain X % Individual Contribution X % Program Contribution

Assessment of Benefits Projected to 2005 for AALP - Estimated that from 1996 to 2005 the amount of benefits that can continue to be attributable to AALP declines to 25% of the original level. Only projections for net societal benefits were calculated,
Aggregate benefits are the result of substantial changes to the general policy environment of the agri-food sector that affect the entire context of agriculture and have widespread effects. A number of AALP graduates, in senior leadership positions, have made significant contributions whose aggregate impacts are the consequence of a more cohesive, proactive agricultural community, which in forming coalitions and various critical partnerships, has increased the control of producers, contributed to more effective programs and helped create a favourable perception of agriculture with the media and the public. A number of experts in different fields within the agricultural and rural sector were consulted to create a scenario in which the viability and size of the agricultural sector with and without the graduates of AALP was created.

**Assessment of Benefits for 10 Steps** - Benefits for the program were calculated for the first year following participation and also for a period of 2 ½ years after graduation. It was assumed that the benefits would have lasted longer than one year but not indefinitely.

**Individuals**
- Attitude/Perspective - increase in confidence and more conscious of their strengths and gained a broadened perspective
- Skills - improved public speaking, clearer writing, improved negotiation and arbitration, ability to lobby, resolve conflict, analyze issues and think critically.
- Knowledge - gained new insights and acquired more general knowledge of markets, agricultural trends and issues pertinent to rural communities

**Institutional development** - organizational viability and efficiency and community viability

**Business development** - greater efficiency of production, increased value-added and employment and business creation

**Environmental impacts** - environmental enhancement.

### Net Present Value of Individual Contributions and Aggregate Benefits from 1987 to 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$1,950,002 (64)</td>
<td>$21,242,536</td>
<td>$16,155,932</td>
<td>$48,267,533</td>
<td>$126,208,800</td>
<td>$423,776,400</td>
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<tr>
<td>$2,366,570 (86)</td>
<td>$22,787,486</td>
<td>$17,807,641</td>
<td>$53,222,707</td>
<td>$142,884,300</td>
<td>$485,097,700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Benefit/ Cost Ratio | 11:1 | 8:1 | 25:1 | 53:1 | 179:1 |

**Annual Value of Economic Activity Impacted by 10 Steps for the 50 Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector Considered</th>
<th>Value of Gain</th>
<th>Individual Contribution in Percent</th>
<th>Value of Individual Contribution</th>
<th>10 Steps Cont’n in Percent</th>
<th>Value of 10 Steps Cont’n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>$57,527</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>$310,812</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>$76,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>$4,037,750</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>$753,000</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>$131,210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services For Seniors</td>
<td>$843,720</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>$282,524</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>$52,413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Employment Services $5,888,050 49% $2,857,455 22% $630,656
Environment $183,650 25% $46,285 40% $18,475
Youth & Children $181,260 33% $59,938 29% $17,111
County Workers $41,030 55% $22,660 30% $6,827
Religious Activities $15,762 29% $4,578 40% $1,841
Other $84,150 49% $41,465 26% $10,985
Total 1 Year $11,854,899 37% $4,379,217 22% $945,758

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit/Cost Ratio for 97 10-Steps Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit/Cost Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total benefits excluding the largest gains in each sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit/Cost ratio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar studies on other processes produce similar results in terms of cost/benefit ratios. For example, expenditures that generate very high benefits over a long period of time include agricultural research (estimated 40:1); meat inspection and grading programs (ranged from 5:1 to 10:1); and seed assurance programs (ranged from 4:1 to 8:1).

Through leadership training graduates of AALP have been able to influence the direction and course of the evolution of Ontario agriculture and have helped the sector develop a competitive position both domestically and abroad.

A 10%-15% return on investment, which translates into 10 to 15 cents for every dollar spent is normally considered is normally considered a favourable rate of return. These two studies point to a return on investment for leadership training programs in excess of $25 for every dollar invested.

The benefits of leadership training through AALP projected to 2005 provide a benefit-cost ratio of 25:1 comparable to the returns on agricultural research.

The benefit-cost ratios of the aggregate measures are extremely high. Benefits from past activities generated a ratio of 53:1 and when projected to 2005 generate a rate of return of 179:1.

The reason these ratios are so high can be explained by the fact that leadership training develops the capacity in individuals to deal with all kinds of situations. The benefits of making the right decision for individuals in senior positions of leadership can be tremendous while the costs of making the wrong decision can also have substantial impacts.
Tools for Evaluating Very, Very Young Emerging Leaders

Shirley B. McNeill, Ph.D.
4-H Youth Development Specialist
N. C. A&T State University
Greensboro, NC 27420
Phone: 336-334-7957
Fax: 336-334-7432
e-mail: mcneills@ncat.edu

Overview:

When I think of evaluation, what comes to mind is our efforts to obtain supporting evidence on the effectiveness of the North Carolina A&T State University Cooperative Extension Program’s K-3rd Grade youth program, guides, and curricula. Mustian (2000) defines evaluation as, “a process consisting of certain key elements: systematic process; collection of evidence; analysis of evidence; interpretation of evidence; and presentation of findings to interested stakeholders.”

The 4-H K-3rd Grade Youth Program encourages cooperative group learning, and continuous leadership evaluations. Frequent, documented evaluation of local youth development efforts benefit educational programs by providing feedback, which can be used to guide processes, curricula, and teaching strategies. Evaluation provides insights into program results, indicates whether or not goals have been achieved, and what, if any, new goals need to be established. Evaluation also holds the potential to enhance the image of youth development, help in gaining community support and sponsorships, and assistance in developing leadership skills at early ages. The development of life-skills at an early age is significant because today’s youth are acquiring concepts, attitudes, and behaviors very early in their development.

The K-3rd Grade Youth program uses evaluation to:

• provide evidence of life-skill development and learning
• provide a framework for recording knowledge gains through experiential curricula
• identify the increases in parent/child interactions

Process & Curricula Evaluations

Process evaluation assists in group planning, management operations, and awards and recognition. Process evaluation documents group performance and progress towards goals. Curricula evaluation focuses on the usefulness of the learning materials and their contents - their age-appropriateness, and application of experiential learning principles. Curricula evaluation helps ensure that youth are obtaining experiential experiences that stimulate learning and critical thinking. Periodically, throughout the year and at the end of the year, the effectiveness of the youth group processes and the curricula should be evaluated.

The K-3rd Grade youth curricula, consisting of youth mini-projects and activity guides, are formatted as how-to manuals to help youth gain new skills experientially. Because most children ages 5-to-8 have not developed extensive language skills or writing skills, the evaluations used in the K-3rd Grade youth program require the assistance of parents/partners.

The checklists found at the beginning and end of each of the K-3rd Grade mini-project books, along with the exercises and experiences in the books, enable parents to reliably identify skills, knowledge, behaviors, and depth of understanding in a specific area or subject. Worksheets, checklists, and activities using paper and pencil are useful in helping groups process what they have learned. Youth use worksheets to circle pictures of activities, check what was learned, draw what was
learned, or draw a face describing how they felt before, during or after an activity. These sheets can be compiled to provide youth and their parents with records of activities, and this becomes a mean of informing county agents and field staffs what was learned and how it was learned. Scrapbooks, pamphlets, teaching bulletin boards, games, scrolls, movies, models, displays, mini-centers, pictorial essays, and learning kits are also strategies that may be used to gain information about the progress of young children.

Helm, et al. (1998) reported that narratives could be written by parents to tell the story of a learning experience. The narratives can take the form of stories for or by youth, records of conversations with other parents, parent/partner journals, and narratives for adults in the form of books and letters, or visual displays. They are usually created over a period of time, marking change and growth in knowledge, skills, and attitudes. For children 5-8, products are the most obvious means of documenting learning. Pictures, musical expressions, constructions, collections, and other hand-made items also produce documentation of youth learning. Self-evaluation is the most meaningful type of evaluation for young children. It is important to ask the learners directly what they learned, and listen attentively. This makes it possible to determine whether the intended concepts or skills were learned, how the youth perceived their learning, and what misconceptions may need to be corrected. Attitude adjustments, behaviors changes, practices modified may also be identified by self-evaluations.

**Evaluation Instruments/Tools**

Although there are a number of evaluation strategies used by the program, three tools for evaluation were designed for The North Carolina K-3rd Grade Youth Program. The *K-3rd Grade Experiential Behavior Checklist* is a structured on notes or other indicators of progress. The K-3rd Grade Experiential Behavior Checklist consists of twenty-seven descriptive statements, using a rating scale of 0-5 to measure how well youth are using experiencing, sharing, processing, generalizing, and applying skills. This tool is designed to be a pre- and post- participation test to measure the cooperation demonstrated, and to identify how well the group is performing experientially. Effective use of the experiential model ensures that youth will find and experience meaning in their learning, and will not be involved in merely rote learning.

A questionnaire is a pen-and-paper instrument for getting similar information from parent/partners, which can be tabulated and discussed numerically. The questionnaires were handed out for completion out on the spot, and a few were handed out and returned at a later time. The questionnaire was used because the format lends itself to gathering information about what people do, have, think, know, feel, or want. Two questionnaires were designed for the K-3rd Grade Program: the *K-3rd Grade Parent Interaction Form* and the *K-3rd Grade Youth Curriculum Evaluation Form*.

The *Parent Interaction Form* is a questionnaire consisting of 10 questions related to parent/child interactions when they used the youth K-3rd Grade curricula. Checklists, notes to parents, and child/parent fun activities are included in the mini-project booklets. This encourages parental interactions with children, and gives participants a place to record them. Strengthening family interactions through planned activities is one of the objectives of the K-3rd Grade Program. Parents are requested to assist youth in understanding the objectives, completing the two checklists in their manuals, and in the completion of selected activities and exercises. As parents assist their youth with these activities, both parent and child will learn together while having fun.

The *K-3rd Grade Youth Curricula Evaluation* is a questionnaire consisting of 13 questions related to educational curricula content. It can be used as a guide for examining curricula to see if it meets the needs of youth, and the overall philosophy and objectives of the k-3rd grade youth program. Curricula for children 5-8 that promote and encourage the development of life skills and family interactions are the most effective. This is true because youth are in need of skill development that helps them feel secure in their environment and they desire interactions with their parents and other family members. Effective curricula will use the Experiential learning model, which includes the following five steps in a learning cycle:

- Experience — completing a hands-on activity
- Share — an opportunity to tell what happened
- Apply — an activity that allows use of learned skills
• Generalize — opportunities to connect activity to other situations
• Process — situations that stimulates, thinking and reflecting on the activity

Formative and Impact Evaluation Results

A pilot study of the *K-3rd Grade Program Guide* was conducted during the 1995 State Annual In-Service Training Conference in Raleigh, with 25 counties participating. The guides were described as helpful, practical, and useful in assisting county staffs in designing programs for children 5-8. All 4-H agents in each of North Carolina's 100 counties have been supplied copies of the *K-3rd Grade Program Guide*, the *K-3rd Grade Parent/Partner Guide*, and a set of the four project books and companion activity guides. As a result of North Carolina A&T Extension's leadership, training, and educational materials for the K-3rd grade youth, county staffs have recruited and involved over 20,000 volunteers, who have in turn served nearly 300,000 hours implementing programs for children 5-8. According to the 1998 and 1999 North Carolina Cooperative Extension reporting systems, all of the states' 100 counties have reported forming at least two 4-H clubs for children 5-8. During this time there were 323 new 4-H clubs formed for children in this age bracket. Of the 323 new clubs formed, more than 85 percent of the participants increased competencies in communication, self-confidence, and decision-making abilities. Additionally, youth have gained skills in using the experiential learning model and increased the quality and quantity of parent/youth interactions.

Life Skill Development

County staffs used two K-3rd Grade Youth program guides, four sets of curricula, a variety of programs, and activities to assist youth in developing life-skills, and to gain knowledge experientially. Life-skill development was in the areas of social interactions, decision-making, health and physical fitness, self-understanding, and learning to learn. Subjects for the curricula were insects, clothing and grooming, birds, and community resources. Through experiential exercises, activities, and strategies youth learned individually about insects: what they are, different types; how they grow and change; and where they live. In the clothing and grooming curriculum, they learn the importance of clothes, clothing in other cultures, clothing care, and storage. The birds curriculum helps youth learn birds' habitats, names, survival needs, and introduces them to bird-watching. The *Community Unity* curriculum discusses family life in communities, similarities and differences in communities, and why community rules are important.

Using the activity guides, parents and adult learning partners extended youth individual learning by conducting learning activities in group settings. Activities in the insect, clothing and grooming, birds, and community unity guides include a wide variety of experiences to help youth learn. The activity guide uses numerous strategies to facilitate learning, such as making paper butterflies, sorting clothing, exploring bird feathers, learning songs, role playing, and learning about community responsibilities. According to parents/partners who have utilized the curricula, they effectively assist children in becoming more competent in the day-to-day life-skill demands of their communities, and school and family environments.

Formative and Impact Evaluation Results

Prior to wide-scale introduction of the curricula, a pilot study was conducted using the K-3rd Grade Youth Program guides and curricula. It was conducted in North Carolina, involving four geographic regions of the state. A summary of the K-3rd Grade Youth Curriculum Evaluation form completed by parent/partners indicated that all activity guides provided background information, which set the stage for the learning activity. It was noted that the guides and project books provided opportunities for youth to use and explore each step of the experiential learning model. The curricula were described as very learner-oriented, with appropriate and relevant subject topics for the youth.

Learning by Experiencing

One of the main advantages of using the experiential learning model is that it helps youth to think critically and use a decision-making process that can be applied to many different situations. Youth have successfully learned and used the experiential learning model in activities, recreational play, and creative expressions. According to formative program evaluation completed by parent/partners using the *Experiential Behavior Checklist*, most of the youth had no trouble in experiencing, sharing, processing, generalizing, or application when learning new subjects. Youth gained new skills in following rules and directions, group dynamics, describing new experiences, making connections between activities and
real-life situations, relating activities to other experiences, and explaining what will be done in the future. Parents/partners reported that a few of the children 5 and 6 experienced some difficulty in processing new information; recalling if they had done anything similar to the activity before. This may be due to a lack of many experiences because of their young age. This will improve as they become more accustomed to using the experiential learning model and gain additional experiences.

**Parent Interactions Increased in Quantity & Quality**

The K-3rd Grade Youth individual mini-projects and group activity guides are designed to encourage and strengthen positive parent interactions through planned activities. K-3rd Grade Parent Interaction Evaluation Forms indicate that parental interaction with children increased as a result of using the K-3rd Grade youth guides and curricula. Parents reported that they have assisted their children in reading project goals, and completing checklists. Almost all parents that completed evaluations indicated that they extended their children’s learning by assisting them in an average of nine additional child/parent fun things to do. (The list of child/parent fun things to do is included in each youth mini-project.) With the assistance of the K-3rd Grade curricula parents increased their interactions with their children an average of 2.2 hours per project.

In North Carolina and across the United States, children 5-8 represent the fastest growing market for 4-H program. But the developmental needs and behaviors of young children are very different than those of older children. These differing developmental needs require different types of evaluation tools. If educators are to recruit and retain youth in youth development at a time when they are beginning their group experience earlier in their lives, educational leaders need to acquire and use relevant methods for providing documentation of progress and learning.

**References:**


Copyright & Intellectual Property: the Fair Use of Someone Else’s Work

Presenter:
Mary Ellen Michael
Center for Educational Technologies

Material adapted from CETUS, (Consortium for Educational Technology in University Systems)
http://www.cetus.org

Purpose of Fair Use
Higher education’s legitimate right to use copyrighted works must be protected:
- To advance & disseminate knowledge
- To do so without unreasonable copyright restrictions
- To explore, analyze, & exchange information
- To make creative & balanced fair use of copyrighted works
- Free of burden of many negotiated transactions

The Legal Framework of Fair Use
In Section 107 of the U.S. Copyright Act – exempts limited use of materials from infringement liabilities
Applicable to teaching, research & scholarship

Four Statutory Factors for Fair Use
1. Purpose and character of use
2. Nature (characteristics of use)
3. Amount of fair use
4. Effect on the market

Four Statutory Factors for Fair Use
These four factors are open to diverse interpretations.
The law offers virtually no details for determining which activities may be safely allowed.
The law’s flexibility is an opportunity & a challenge.

1. Purpose & Character of Use
- Purposes such as:
  - criticism
  - comment
  - news reporting
  - teaching (including multiple copies for classroom use)
  - scholarship, or research
2. Nature (Characteristics of Use)

- Commercial audiovisual works receive less fair use than do printed works.
- Courts favor use of nonfiction more than fiction.
- Consumable workbooks are subject to less fair use than a printed social science text.
- Courts are split on out-of-print works, whether they should receive special treatment.

3. Amount of Fair Use

Quantity is evaluated relative to the length of the entire original.

- Motion pictures are a problem; even short clips may borrow the most creative or extraordinary elements.
- One may also reproduce only a small portion of a work but still take "the heart of the work".
- The "substantiality" concept is a qualitative measure that may weigh against fair use.

4. Effect on the Market

"Effect" is closely linked to "purpose". If your purpose is research or scholarship, market effect may be difficult to prove.

If your purpose is commercial, then effect is presumed.

Occasional quotes or photocopies may have no adverse market effects, but reproductions of software & videotapes can make direct inroads on the potential markets for those works.

Weighing & Balancing the 4 Factors

People differ on interpreting fair use but you can do a reasoned analysis.

If most factors lean in favor of fair use, the activity is allowed.

If most factors lean in the opposite direction, the action will not fit the fair-use exception and may require permission from the copyright owner.

Examples of Fair-Use Cases

Few court cases are directly related to higher education. However, many cases offer guidance for the meaning of fair use.

Here are some examples of such cases with an indication of how the courts apply the four factors of fair use.

Example 1

Basic Books Inc. v. Kinko's

- Kinko's was held to be infringing copyrights when it photocopied book chapters as course packs for students.
The Court’s Ruling

- **Purpose** – Kinko’s copied for commercial purposes and not for educational purposes
- **Nature** – most of the works were factual – a factor in favor of fair use
- **Amount** – court said 5% – 25% of a work was excessive.
- **Effect** – direct effect on the market, competing with sales of original books

Example 2

**Maxtone-Graham v. Burtchaell**

The plaintiff wrote a book based on interviews with women about their own pregnancies and abortions. The defendant wrote his own book on the same subject and sought permission to use lengthy excerpts from the plaintiff’s work. The plaintiff refused permission, and the defendant proceeded to publish his work with the unpermitted excerpts.

The Court’s Ruling

- **Purpose** – although commercial, purpose was to educate public about abortion & author’s views
- **Nature** – the interviews were largely factual
- **Amount** – quoting 4.3% not excessive & verbatim passages were not central to market
- **Effect** – work was out of print and not likely to appeal to the plaintiff’s market

Example 3

**Encyclopaedia Britannica v. Crooks**

For-profit producers of educational videos sued a consortium of public school districts, which was systematically recording programs as they were broadcast on public TV stations and providing copies to member schools.

The Court’s Ruling

- **Purpose** – Court was sympathetic with the educational purpose
- **Nature** – Although the films had educational content, they were commercial products for sale to schools
- **Amount** – Defendant was copying entire work and retaining copies for as long as 10 years
- **Effect** – Copying directly competed with the selling of copies. Court concluded that this was not fair use

Example 4

**American Geophysical Union v. Texaco**

The Court ruled that photocopying of individual journal articles by a Texaco scientist for his own research needs was not fair use. The Court amended its opinion to limit the ruling to “systematic” copying that may advance the profit goals of the larger organization.
The Court’s Ruling

- **Purpose** – Research is fine but purpose was to increase Texaco’s corporate profits.
- **Nature** – The articles were factual which weighs in favor of fair use.
- **Amount** – An article is an independent work, so copying the article is copying the entire work.
- **Effect** – Should have paid license fee, use CCC to obtain permission; 3 of 4 factors weighed against fair use.

Now it’s your turn to decide what is fair use.

1. Form into groups of 4.
2. Select a person to report your findings for each scenario.
3. Because the solutions are not obvious, report the pros and cons of your decisions about fair use.
4. Applying the factors, come up with the most reasonable solution as you see it.
5. Open up the solution. Defend your position about the strengths and weaknesses of the official solution.
SURVIVING AND THRIVING IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Robin A. Orr, Ph.D.  Karen L. Zotz, Ed.D.
University of Illinois  North Dakota State University
Champaign-Urbana, Illinois  Fargo, North Dakota

Association of Leadership Educators
Toronto, Canada
July 14, 2000

Abstract

The world of yesterday is not the world today. Twenty years ago businesses, organizations, and university systems employees expected continuity, stability, and longevity in their jobs. Today, that is not the case. Change occurs daily in our work and community. We are required to adjust, learn, and move forward as individuals and organizations. Or, we move out of the organization. Organizations are looking within themselves for the initiative to move with the technology of the 21st century. Individuals are required to adapt and change. Organizations need to look for new alliances and partnerships to support change and growth. The course of action we take within ourselves and as leaders in our organizations will affect the success of surviving and thriving for ourselves, others, and the organization.

SURVIVING AND THRIVING IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Robin A. Orr, Ph.D. and Karen L. Zotz, Ed.D.
University of Illinois and North Dakota State University

A challenge for organizations in the 21st century will be renewal and revival of the organization and the personnel that address the needs of the organization and the people they serve. The quality of leadership in an organization influences the course of action and acceptance towards change. Warren Benus and Burt Nanus (1998) see the continuance of organizational components as vision, passion, integrity, self-knowledge, empowerment, and doing things right continuing to be important for the survival of the organization. Benus and Nanus expect other factors like technology to influence organizational change.
In the 21st Century, Jean-Lipman Blumen (1996) sees change initiating a new form of connectivity in the wireless, digital world. Dr. Blumen's predictions are for short term coalitions, fast-moving flexible organizations, and connections among organizations that force us to deal with an uncertain future. The fundamental shift in leadership will need to address six areas of change in social, political and economic arenas, including: science and technology; military posture, energy appetites and ecological changes; nuclear power; communication and transportation technology; biotechnology and global economics. Big and small companies, big and small university systems will seek out networks and alliances recognizing they can no longer exist by themselves.

John P. Kotter (1996) notes that the globalized economy is forcing organizations to make dramatic change and improvements in order to compete and prosper and survive. The ramifications are like an earthquake. One organizational change precipitates changes within and outside the organization. Major company lay off employees and the local economy is affected. People limit their use of local goods and services or stop buying those goods and services altogether. People leave the community and the school population is reduced, in turn, reducing the number of teachers needed in the classroom.

To avoid this earthquake effect, how do companies, agencies, and organization guide their employees to positive change? What does it require from the leadership to move the organization forward to meet the needs of a globalized economy?

Peter Senge (1990) introduced the idea of learning organizations ten years ago in the *Fifth Disciplines: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. Change agents soon learned that change was not easy. Some change agents even lost their jobs trying to bring about effective changes in their organizations.

We soon learned that making change within an organization required new skills. Change in an organization requires new ways of thinking about people and organizations. Change is not lead from the top but must permeated throughout the organization and requires an individual effort on the part of all employees.

According to Senge (1999), in his latest book, *The Dance of Change*, change requires a willingness, a sense of openness, a sense of reciprocity, a kind of vulnerability. It requires one person to be influenced by another person.

To enable organizational change, the expectation is for small steps toward change. It's like eating an elephant, one bite at a time and you eventually finish the job. Change requires a new learning process for the leader and the people in the organization.

To enable the process, the leader needs to identify people in the organization that will
take the lead. These individuals will informally build networks or support groups within
the organization to create new practices that change the organization. Senge (1999)
calls these people the “seed carriers.”

For change to occur, people need to be able to understand how they will benefit from
the changes. They have to see the connection to their future. Senge (1999) goes on
to define the 10 challenges of change, sustaining the momentum, and changes of system
wide redesign and rethinking.

David Hutchens' (1998) book, Outlearning the Wolves: Striving and Thriving in a
Learning Organization, uses a metaphor for understanding the issues organizations face
when they learn they must learn differently to initiate change. Hutchens' focus on the
metaphor enables the reader to look at how learning can lead to change in a simple,
entertaining way. It provides an outline to use as you direct a group towards learning
in a new way.

Hutchens' capitalizes on the team work of a flock of sheep learning to adapt and make
changes within their flock to avoid the hungry pursuit of the wolf pack. The sheep
learn about the some of the common barriers that can stifle learning and change within
their flock (organizations). As is common to organizations anticipating change, in the
beginning, the sheep were disabled by false assumptions about the wolves. By working
as a team the flock learns that it can face challenges and achieve success by changing
the way they work.

Using the metaphor takes some of the serious anticipation away from the process.
The metaphor enables people to look outside of their organization and view change
through learning in a new way.

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Lead?


Regaining Public Trust

Viviane Simon-Brown
Extension Forestry Specialist
Oregon State University

*An ethic may be regarded as a mode of guidance for meeting ecological situations so new or intricate... that the path of social expediency is not discernible to the average individual...Ethics are a kind of community instinct in the making.*

*Aldo Leopold, A Sand County Almanac, 1949*

Fifty years after Leopold (1949) penned those words, the human component of natural resource science is "so new and intricate" that the path of social expediency is, indeed, "not discernible."

I’m a biologist. So’s my colleague Tony Faast who works for the US Fish & Wildlife Service. Even though Tony isn’t here today, he came up with the foundational idea for this presentation. You see, besides being biologists, both of us have also become professional facilitators embroiled in high stakes, natural resource issues. We've seen everything from wildly successful public and agency partnerships to dismal failures where litigation seems to be the only solution. We've pondered, time and time again, why some public interactions succeed and others fail; why some proposals move forward and others go to court.

We have analyzed various public involvement models, techniques and processes, such as focus groups, comment periods, public meetings, even charrettes. Employing different models or processes doesn't seem to make a significant difference; effective, positive interactions are possible regardless of the model used. We've come to the conclusion that success is not model-dependent; the question then remains as to what factors make or break a public/resource interaction.

We've found that public involvement processes seem to be more successful when citizens and public agency people trust and respect each other during a public process. It is our contention that ethics, i.e., the way in which we conduct our public interactions -- and in fact, the way we conduct ourselves -- determines the success or failure of our public interaction efforts.

Three foundational principles seem to always be present in successful public/resource interactions. **In this paper, we advance the premise that fair, open and honest are the fundamental principles that comprise the ethics required for successful resource decisions in the public arena.** Fair, Open and Honest are the basic components of ethical behavior. They garner respect, which can lead to trust.

We suggest that, as Leopold stated, a definable ethic is our "mode of guidance" for natural resource decision-making of the future, and second, that a fair, open and honest ethic is that mode.
As Leopold stated,

\textit{No important change in ethics was ever accomplished without an internal change in our intellectual emphasis, loyalties, affections, and convictions.}

As Gov. Kitzhaber mentioned in a speech before the Society of American Foresters (SAF) last Fall in Portland, Oregon, “One big problem with the Eastside Plan was the lack of trust of federal land management agencies ...”. That lack of trust should serve as a wake-up call for an internal change in the way we do business with our publics in the new century!

Only three basic principles to govern these complex public interaction scenarios? You may recall there are only Ten Commandments to govern Christian human endeavor, and most people have a hard time remembering all of those! We're comfortable advancing these three principles as the foundation for an ethical approach to future public/resource interactions.

\textbf{FAIR}

Being fair means several things. For example:

- Providing opportunities for people to participate in ways that work well for them. Of course, this means accommodating special access needs. It also means picking times that are convenient for your audience, and acknowledging that sometimes, the high school playoffs are more important than your public meeting.
- Providing everyone the same information at the same time. This levels the playing field.
- Providing a safe physical and intellectual environment for the exchange of ideas.
- Making sure the people who are affected by your group's decisions, help make those decisions.

A few self-directed questions are the litmus test for this component of our ethic. How fair is it for biologists to spend two years in obscurity writing a species recovery plan, then say to the public, "You have thirty days to review and comment on this 3-lb document, and, by the way, the clock started ticking last Thursday when the notice was printed in the Federal Register?"

How fair is it when we provide information to some and not to others? When the others suddenly "find out" what's going on, agency credibility is in jeopardy. Everyone who cares about the issue needs to be involved in the process, not just the supporters or the locals. One Resource Manager had his predator control program suddenly "blow up" when animal rights advocates found out about it at the very end of the public comment period. When asked why he didn't let national groups know of the process sooner, the answer was, "Well, everyone around here knew about it and thought it was OK."

We need to ask ourselves, "Would you play in a game in which the rules were unclear? ...where the other guys use questionable tactics? ...where you don't trust the players? In a game that is simply perceived as UNFAIR?"

\textbf{OPEN}

The essence of open is the question: Are you really listening? Is your process designed to receive
information from a variety of publics and deal with that input appropriately? Supreme Court Judge Stephen Breyer in his confirmation hearing responded to the question, "What is the role of the Supreme Court?" He stated eloquently, "To listen...listening gives dignity to the person being listened to."

In one painfully memorable public meeting, we asked the Assistant Director of the agency, five minutes before the meeting began, "What do we tell them about how their input will be used?" The Assistant Director replied, "It doesn't matter, we cut a deal with all the key players at three o'clock yesterday." The meeting was held anyway, but had they known the truth, how would those 38 participants have felt about the fairness of that public agency and its process?

In most cases, fish and wildlife managers and foresters represent public agencies. The public has a fundamental right to provide input on issues that affect them. We need to give them a variety of ways to talk to us -- public forums, solicited and unsolicited surveys and assessments, letters, phone calls -- whatever is the outreach mode of the moment. And then, we need to really listen to their comments and factor them into public decision processes. Yet agencies routinely seek input from the public when a decision has essentially already been made. We often tend to seek validation or acceptance of our plan or strategy, rather than seeking legitimate public input within a truly collaborative process.

We contend that our personal and agency credibility, integrity, and image are on the line every time we go to the public for their input. We simply cannot afford to be unethical in our actions. Leopold said,

*I have purposely presented the land ethic as a product of social evolution because nothing as important as an ethics is ever 'written.'...[it must evolve in] the minds of a thinking community.*

We still have some evolving to do in our thinking!

Other aspects of the Open ethical component include:

- Participants understand their role in the process. They know whether their group is advisory or governing.
- The process is straightforward, understandable (jargon-less) and clearly explained. The only agenda is the one on the wall.
- The agency is willing -- and able -- to accommodate public input.

A question that should be asked before any public meeting unfolds, is "If the public comes up with the greatest idea since sliced bread, can we use it?" In our experience, unfortunately the answer is often, "no." Due to a multitude of political, budget, time and biological constraints, input from the public is often sought too late, and therefore any input is not applicable. If these constraints are affecting the decision, then the only ethical way to proceed is to let the public know.

**HONEST**

It's not that biologists and foresters are fundamentally dishonest. It's simply that we often are reluctant to divulge all relevant information to all parties. This may be for reasons of policy, politics, funding or
even biology! We may believe the information is too complex for the public to understand. But citizens do have a right to know what an agency can — and cannot do — and what kind of information or science we have — and how good it is — that we're applying to the problem.

Honesty includes:

- Not glossing over the amount of time people are expected to commit to the group's effort.
- Acknowledging that some issues are simply so value-laden that large group effort cannot fix them. The social and natural resource issues we face today — abortion, gun control, clearcutting, salmon, old growth forests — have become so value-laden they are unlikely to be resolved in public process arenas.
- Being realistic about what your agency can deliver, whether it's a report, a policy, or an outcome.

**RESPECT**

Honesty is the heart of integrity and, subsequently, a key element of Respect, which is a step along the path to Trust.

Harvard professor Sara Lawrence-Lightfoot, in her recent book *Respect: An Exploration* says “Respect is the single most powerful ingredient in nourishing relationships and creating a just society.” She goes on to define respect in a new way that clearly relates to our business of fish and wildlife management:

> Respect commonly is seen as a deference to hierarchy, often driven by duty and based on a person’s position, age, gender, race, class or accomplishments. But I propose a different view of respect — one derived from equality, empathy and connections of all kinds of relationships, even those often seen as unequal, such as parent and child, doctor and patient [and we would add ‘agency and public’] The image is a circle, not a triangle or pyramid.

When you think about it, lack of respect is one that fuels some of the no-holds-barred opposition we find ourselves up against in natural resource decision-making. Of course we can respectfully disagree with our publics on a lot of issues, but we often don’t — often, we just disagree!

So how did we get to this point where we seem to be in constant conflict with our publics? As resource professionals, we worked hard to learn our craft and to apply ourselves to uncovering the secrets of nature. What caused us to suddenly become mistrusted components of a bureaucracy instead of champions of fragile resources?

We may have contributed to our own dilemma. First, most of us in natural resources, weren't trained for this kind of "people" work. We studied the science of biology or forestry, not the art of skilled communication.

Second, let's admit it. Some of us don't like the public process aspects of our jobs! We don't like conflict, or the hassle, of dealing with the public. Some of us got into the business to "get away from people." Secretly, we'd prefer to be out in the field collecting data, or if we must, hammering out a species management plan behind the closed door of our office, then presenting it to the public, who
would (in our fantasy) congratulate us on our collective wisdom and fund our project immediately!

\textit{As far as I can detect, no ethical obligation toward the land is taught in these institutions. [land bureaus, agricultural colleges, and the extension services]}

\textit{Aldo Leopold}

My old Wildlife Professor of thirty years ago told us solemnly, ‘Wildlife management is people management.” He was more right than he knew. The problem was, we spent the next four years learning only about the wildlife management component!

What we've found in our research and experience in the public arena, are things like:

- Constructive conflict leads to innovative solutions.
- People want to be involved in meaningful conversations which lead to good decision-making.
- People want to be heard (remember Judge Breyer.)
- People who are involved, develop ownership for the ideas.
- People have a stake in the future of public resources.
- The overwhelming thing we've learned is that people care deeply about natural resources — just like we do! If we involve them in an ethical manner in the management of those resources, we can make better decisions critical to the health and sustainability of these natural resources. If we don't, we're going to keep going to court. And if we do end up in court, we just have to believe that the ethical actions and arguments will prevail!

\textbf{TRUST}

You’ve often heard Trust described as a two-way street, something that has to be mutual. The public doesn’t trust government these days for a lot of probably pretty valid reasons! By the same token, agencies often don’t trust the public — again for a lot of pretty valid reasons.

Air Force General Chuck Horner, Gen. Swartzkopf’s Deputy Commander in the Gulf War, had some interesting comments about one of our mutual “publics” — the media! When asked “Why the military had such a distrust of the media?” he could have been speaking for natural resource agencies when he responded:

\begin{quote}
\textit{Fear of the media seems to go with the job description of soldier, sailor, or airman [we can easily include biologist]. Why? God only knows. When you think about it, if you can trust the press and the TV commentator to tell the truth, and I do, then it’s not the media we fear but the American people ... a sad commentary on our military mid-set.}
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
\textit{Sometimes you...we...all of us do asinine things. If you are doing something stupid, pursuing a poor policy, or wasting taxpayers’ dollars, and the press or television paints you in an embarrassing light, that is probably a good thing. In the long run, the exposure, no matter how painful, is good for the military and the nation. If, on the other hand, you are getting the job done skillfully, pursuing a noble cause, or managing a military operation with efficiency, then you have much to gain from media exposure.}
\end{quote}
The American people are quite capable of judging good and bad for themselves. I guess the bottom line is we have little to fear is we trust the judgment of the folks who pay the bills.

Individually, or as agencies, we may or may not trust our many and varied publics, but we’re pretty sure these days it’s safe to say, the public doesn't trust us! This mistrust is borne not necessarily of a faulty process or procedure, but often of fundamentally unethical actions exhibited by agencies and individuals that have preceded us. We can't effectively apologize to our publics for the past; we can only establish our own credibility for the future.

But, in discussing this topic with colleagues, we often hear the complaint, “Why should we be ethical in dealing with the public — they aren’t dealing ethically with us!” Our response is simply “Who’s the professional here? Who should be the first to break the cycle of mistrust, in order to craft a new cycle of trust?” Remember, Sara Lawrence-Lightfoot when she said, “The image is a circle, not a triangle or pyramid.”

Ethics, respect, credibility, truth — factors not often discussed in the long ago training and education of many "mature" biologists and foresters of today, yet they have become an inescapable part of the present management spectrum. We need public support more than ever to do our jobs, yet in many cases, the public doesn't trust us as partners and are suspicious of our agency's credibility when it comes to managing our natural resources.

It's clear then, that we need a new approach in natural resource decision-making, one based on mutual trust between the public and public agencies. We advocate a new approach that learns from the past, recognizes the complexities of our current social and biological interactions, and applies a fundamentally ethical approach to managing our natural resources in the future.

**Conclusion**

Could something as simple as Fair, Open, and Honest be the beginning a solution for all our public/agency process ills? Is it the total answer? Is it the “kind of community instinct in the making” to which Leopold alluded fifty years ago?

We have to start somewhere. We’re convinced that ethical behavior is the place to start toward our goal of mutual trust.

In closing we’re reminded what Leopold said we should do in the absence of clear direction. He said we must:

*Examine each question in terms of what is ethically and aesthetically right. ...A thing is right when it tends to preserve the integrity, stability, and beauty of the biotic community.*

And Chuck Horner has one other telling point regarding that elusive quality we call trust. He says
simply, “Trust takes time, but when you have it you have a wonderful gift.”

This is one gift we can give to ourselves. We should make it so.

LITERATURE CITED

ABOUT THE AUTHORS
Tony Faast is a Staff Biologist with the US Fish and Wildlife Service in Portland, OR. Viviane Simon-Brown is an Oregon State University Extension Forestry Specialist in Bend, OR.

Tony Faast
Staff Biologist
Federal Aid Division
US Fish and Wildlife Service
911 NE 11th Avenue
Portland, OR 97232-4181
Phone: 503-231-6128
Fax: 503-231-6996
Email: tony_faast@mail.fws.gov

Viviane Simon-Brown
Extension Forestry Specialist
Oregon State University
OSU/COCC
2600 NW College Way
Bend OR 97701-5998
Phone: 541-388-8361
Fax: 541-383-8002
viviane.simon-brown@orst.edu

ABSTRACT

An ethic may be regarded as a mode of guidance for meeting ecological situations so new or intricate... that the path of social expediency is not discernible to the average individual. ...Ethics are a kind of community instinct in the making.

Aldo Leopold, *A Sand County Almanac*, 1949
Fifty years after Leopold penned those words, the human component of natural resource science is "so new and intricate" that the path of social expediency is, indeed, "not discernible." The authors suggest that a definable ethic is the "mode of guidance" for effectively meeting the social dimension of natural resource decision-making of the future.

Expanding the philosophy of Leopold's land ethic, the authors define universal principles of being fair, open and honest that underlie the apparent success or failure of current public/natural resource interactions.

Drawing on their extensive public process experience, the authors contend that if natural resource professionals, as a community, embrace the fair open and honest philosophy as the cornerstone of public process, then, Leopold's "mode of guidance" will have been defined for the coming century.

KEY WORDS. Public process, professional ethics, natural resource issues
Emerging Leaders in Context: Developing the Class Project
Presented by: Gretchen Urkov

The University of Arizona offers a class that gives students an opportunity to practice being a leader and become a contributing member of their community. Students can be leaders without being appointed or elected to a leadership position. How is this possible? By taking Leadership Contexts and Concepts taught by Dr. Nancy Huber in an informal classroom setting with extended class time and lots of interactive assignments.

Students start out by getting comfortable in class and around each other. They make name tents to show and talk about during introductions. This allows them to get past the hurdle of speaking in front of the class, begin the process of building relationships, and made it apparent that each will be expected to contribute.

This is a hands on, informal class which engages students to do leadership rather than studying leadership. Students are able to become leaders in their community rather than studying about other leaders in other places! The expectations for the class project are simple: 1. It has to involve everyone in the class, and 2. it has to somehow engage and enhance the campus community.

One of the best tools for this class is journaling. This is an effective way for students to track their learning, react to what is happening in class and help make connections between events or activities and the concepts discussed in class. Journals are not graded nor read by the professor. They are for students' benefit to help them reflect upon what they are learning, what is important to them and what might have touched them. The professor provides the journals for students as well as in-class time to write in them. Students have appointments twice a semester to talk with her about the journaling process and any other topics of concern.

Towards the end of the semester, several class periods are devoted to finishing the class project which is the primary learning activity for the entire semester. Last year's class created and administered a survey assessing the students' awareness of the University of Arizona as a student centered university. At the last class, students did a presentation of their findings and recommendations. Apart from the results of the survey, here is what students had to say about the learning experience:

"Reflecting on the process of creating and implementing a class project, several elements of that context provided opportunity to learn and practice leadership skills applicable to my growth as a leader."

"The class project enabled all of us to practice our skills as leaders. The basic premise of leadership is that it should involve a shared vision that promotes positive change in the community. The class project was just that ... a shared vision of not only the class but also the university as a whole."

"The class project was a hand's on experience, like a snapshot of the lifelong learning process. The assessment and summary brought about the feeling of accomplishment and closure."

Students have the freedom to design a class project that provides an opportunity for everyone in the class to know what it feels like to lead. Through the class project, students have the opportunity to become leaders. This experience is essential to their development individually as leaders as they reflect on what is happening and what they want to do. The project helps students learn to look within themselves and find their reason to lead and then develop their own personal philosophy of leadership. The project also encourages them to learn and practice shared leadership, and contribute to the creation of a sense of community in the classroom and at the university.
We are all called to lead. Leadership is a shared responsibility. Collaborative leadership is successful because no one needs to know everything. Power and resources shared with people is more effective than trying to gain power over them. The notion of followers as passive and in need of constant direction is discarded. Rather than expecting to be told what to do, people are prepared and ready to step in when their particular talent is needed. Leadership and service go hand and hand. Servant leaders have a common purpose—to replace competition with community. Class projects undertaken by students in "Leadership Concepts and Contexts" provide a context for learning and a service to the campus community.
Developing Team Trust

Until the 1980's, most of the thinking in corporate America was competitive, and based on an underlying philosophy of individualism. Only in the sports arena were the concepts of team and teamwork accepted. For years, Edward Deming tried to introduce his 'team theory' as a new way of doing business, but his concepts fell on deaf ears in the United States. So in the 1960's he took his 'team theory' to Japan where participatory decision-making, teamwork and continuous improvement became the bywords. This completely changed the paradigm of products marked "Made In Japan" and Japan discarded its 'cheap-junk' reputation for one of high-tech, high-quality expensive products.

Japanese manufacturing dominance sent a wake-up call to corporate America and by the 1980's, teamwork was being rewarded. Collaboration and teamwork dominate today's work environment. Michigan State University Extension's (MSUE's) Area of Expertise Teams is an example of how self directed work teams have reached into higher education as well as business.

Deming's theory emphasized that the skills, gifts and assets of each individual are valuable contributions to the team's work. The guiding principle is that together, everyone achieves more; no one of us is as wise as all of us. This principle has been developed and applied to community-based work and provides the foundation for the process and content of much of our work.

Developing Team Trust is the first in a series of modules being developed by MSUE'S community leadership development team, called LeadNet. LeadNet is a professional network of Extension Educators sharing an interest in learning about, practicing, and helping others practice community-centered, issue-focused, shared leadership for collective action. One of the ways LeadNet encourages the development of this type of leadership is through 'learning labs'--informal sessions focused on various topics of interest. This module was created for and tested in such a session.

The series of modules will focus on various dimensions of team building, community leadership, and facilitation. The purpose of the modules is to provide MSUE educators with tools to help their teams, groups, committees, boards, organizations, and communities function more effectively. Each module will be presented in a train-the-trainer workshop format. The following is a tentative list of possible future modules; we are open to exploring these and other ideas for modules.

The development, nurturing and maintenance of effective teams. This is often referred to as the team orientation: Why am I here? Do I want to be here? What do I have to contribute? What is our purpose or meaning? Can we make a difference? This is the dimension that creates the sense of belonging, ownership, and acceptance. It is the 'table setting'.

Defining team goals and making effective decisions. Sometimes the team has a specified charge, but often the team has freedom to choose what it will do. There has to be a way to generate those ideas, prioritize, clarify, and make decisions. The central task here is to decide what the team will do. Getting consensus assures that everyone feels ownership of the work of the group.

Developing effective action plans. How will we get things done? How can we plan, track, and evaluate what we do? Who does what by when? Answering these questions avoids confusion and
misunderstanding, and frees us up to do the work rather than wonder.

*Managing differences and conflict in teams.* Not everyone is going to be happy with every decision and even the best functioning teams need to learn strategies to deal with conflict. Facing conflict and working through differences takes honesty, openness, and courage, but it will ultimately bring the team closer together.

*Facilitative leadership.* How can we share leadership? How can we work together most effectively? What works for a newly formed team may be totally different for a high functioning team. Many LeadNet members and others have immersed themselves in the area of facilitation and facilitative leadership techniques Using them within the team and community context will be explored.

**The Importance of Trust in Teams**

Teamwork is a challenging venture in which members with diverse knowledge, experience, opinions, and values face complex, often ambiguous tasks requiring a high degree of interdependence and cooperation. To be successful, teams must learn to develop a vision and goals, work through conflict to overcome differences, share leadership, make decisions, carry out coordinated action, and assess their performance. The foundation of all of this difficult work is **trust**. Trust is an interwoven thread throughout the stages and cycles of a team's life, and must be continuously monitored and nurtured.

In "The Team Performance Model" Drexler, Sibbet, and Forrester describe a seven stage model based on the four basic concerns people bring to all social interaction: acceptance, communication, goal formation, and procedures for accomplishing goals. The model clearly shows that teams do not progress through the stages in linear fashion, but rather cycle back to earlier stages as unresolved issues block effective performance. Trust building, the second stage, can be interpreted as the key to moving through the first stage and essential to all other stages.

Trust can be defined as: "a state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk". In other words, trust is expecting good from another (or others) who could potentially cause harm. Trust exists between people, in *relationships*, and is a reflection of their quality, strength, and effectiveness.

Among team members that trust each other, communication, consistency, and action are indicators as well as builders of trust. *Communication* is open and honest, information flows freely, and power is shared. Members are committed to facing and working through conflict while respecting their differences. *Consistency* is an indicator of individual trustworthiness and integrity. It is evidenced in follow-through: members share responsibility and keep their commitments. Coordinated, competent *action* is both the outcome of clear communication and consistent follow-through, as well as an important reinforcer of trust. A team that accomplishes something worthwhile can enter a powerful synergistic 'zone' which leads to an upward spiral of motivation and trust.

On the other hand, trust is not always possible and may even be dangerous. Sometimes conflicting interests, motives, and agendas cannot be aligned. We learn from experience when to distrust, and to guard against the potentially destructive and harmful actions of others. In the community groups
Extension Educators work with, members need to think strategically and work collectively to develop common ground with opposing groups and power structures.

**Developing Team Trust Module**

Trust is slow to develop and quick to lose. Trust is built in a team over time, through shared experiences in which members show themselves trustworthy by communicating openly, following through with commitments, and acting effectively with and for the team. This process can be supported by engaging a team in activities and processes specifically designed to enhance trust. This module consists of five types of trust-building activities: exploring the concept of trust, physical activities, building relationships, creative problem solving, and team self-assessment.

1. **Exploring Trust.** Having team members consciously think about their experience with trust in groups they have been a part of can be a very powerful learning experience. Each person has a wealth of knowledge about trust, and examining and sharing this knowledge can lead one to more deliberate application to current situations. The activities included in this section all explore various ways of looking at trust in teams, and involve participants in thinking, brainstorming, and sharing.

2. **Physical Activities.** When team members find they can trust their peers for safety in a physically demanding challenge, it often becomes easier to have faith in them in many other settings. Then overtime, the evolution of trust, trustworthiness, and confidence in each other can fully develop. Providing for the development of these qualities can propel a team rapidly forward in their ability to efficiently interact on a daily basis. The activities included here require no special physical ability and are suitable for adults.

3. **Building Relationships.** Team work approached from a 'business only' perspective often leaves members feeling unconnected and depersonalized. As team members come to know each other on a more personal level, their respect for each other grows, and therefore so does their trust. Relationship building activities allow members to share things about themselves, and often get them laughing together, an important element in creating a sense of community. The activities included here range from more superficial (sharing hobbies, likes dislikes) to deeper (sharing passions and values).

4. **Creative Problem Solving.** Creativity involves sharing ideas and passions, which requires a fairly high level of trust. Knowing that their ideas are not going to be shot down frees people to be spontaneous and intuitive. Problem solving also requires team members to rely on each other and value the contributions of everyone. Creative problem solving requires members to overcome limiting expectations and competitiveness, and to develop accepting and encouraging attitudes. The activities included in this section are either fairly quick discussion simulators, or longer, more elaborate challenges leading to rich debriefing discussion.

5. **Team Self-Assessment.** A team's openness in its assessment of its own functioning can lead to a very high level of trust. The exercises included in this section help a group clarify expectations, diagnose weaknesses, bring concerns into the open, and rate their effectiveness on any number of variables. All of these activities are critical factors in the development and maturation of an effective, empowered team.
Included in this module are complete instructions for trust building activities of varying complexity and time needs. All are appropriate for use with adults, and most could be successfully used with youth. Some of these activities are original or of unknown origin, but many are adaptations, variations, or reformatted copies of published materials. Reference information is given for any taken from published sources.


