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Competencies for Leaders of Volunteers During the Next Decade: A National Delphi Study

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Abstract

More than 109 million Americans volunteered for nonprofit organizations in 1998, carrying out almost one-third of the organization's work. More than 624,000 volunteers assist the Cooperative Extension system in carrying out its 4-H and youth development program alone. Volunteer activities are largely directed by professionals within these organizations. A nation-wide Delphi study was conducted to identify the competencies that will be required by volunteer administrators (VAs) during the next decade. The study also sought to identify barriers that prevent VAs from acquiring such competencies and how those barriers may be eliminated. Thirty-three competencies were identified by a panel of thirteen experts in the field of volunteer administration and categorized into the following five constructs: organizational leadership, systems leadership, organizational culture, personal skills, and management skills. Twelve barriers to acquiring the competencies were identified by the panel, as well as 21 methods for addressing those barriers and motivating volunteer administrators. It is recommended that organizations, especially Cooperative Extension, seek employees with the required competencies or provide resources and opportunities to acquire them. Creating an organizational culture that values the contributions of volunteers and the role of the VA is also recommended.

Introduction/Theoretical Framework

As singer Bob Dylan wrote, "The times, they are a changin'." Because of advances in technology, this seems more true today than it was when Dylan sang those lyrics 40 years ago. This is especially true in the field of volunteerism and volunteer management. Sue Vinyard, a noted author and speaker on leading volunteers, states:

The volunteer coordinator of the next century will have to command a broader and broader range of expertise to be able to meet the challenges of leading volunteer efforts within organizations. Far deeper than knowing how to plan, organize, staff, direct, control, and reward, the Volunteer Program Executive will have to move far beyond these basic functions of management to embrace techniques and strategies that are both complex and interdependent. (Vinyard, 1993, p.129).

Why is volunteer administration (VA) such an important issue? Look at the state of volunteerism in the United States today. The Independent Sector (2002) estimates that in 1998, more than 109 million Americans volunteered for nonprofit organizations and human service agencies, a 17% increase over 1995. These volunteers accounted for an estimated \$225 billion dollars of services to these organizations, the equivalent of over 9 million full-time employees. More than 80% of nonprofit organizations in the U.S. rely on volunteers to accomplish almost one-third of their work (Ericksen-Mendoza & Heffron, 1998).

Volunteers alone cannot improve their communities. Volunteers need the direction of volunteer administrators who can focus their efforts toward solving specific problems. Job descriptions of volunteer administrators typically include the recruiting, screening, training, and recognition of volunteers for an organization (Conners, 1995). In addition, volunteer administrators must assess the need for volunteers within their organization and serve as a volunteer management "consultant" to other employees in the agency who utilized volunteers.

Fisher and Cole noted that most volunteer administrators are initiated into the profession through on-the-job or previous volunteer experience (1993). Few have formal advanced training in the administration of volunteer programs, management, or personnel experience. In fact, a study of the membership of the Association of Volunteer Administrators in 2000 discovered that 77.8% of volunteer administrators surveyed had received no formal training in volunteer administration prior to their first job experience as a volunteer administrator (Brudney & Schmahl, 2002). More than 26% of the members responding stated that at the time of the survey, they still had not completed any formal training in volunteer administration. About 25% had taken some college courses or completed university certificate programs. Almost 65% had taken some non-university courses and 10.6% had a non-university certificate in volunteer administration.

While volunteer administration as a profession has existed since the 1960s, it has been a continually emerging profession (Fisher & Cole, 1993). As with other emerging professions, volunteer administration continues to grapple with a precise description of its knowledge base. As the need for and use of volunteers continues to grow, what will volunteer administrators need to know?

Vinyard states that the volunteer manager of the future will need to do more than just manage volunteers; she will need to empower the entire organization around her to be the best they can be (1993). She emphasizes that volunteer managers will have to manage their time to include the acquisition and assimilation of new knowledge. This may include reading extensively, attending seminars, or enrolling in graduate courses. Volunteer administrators must also be adept at transferring this information to the information users via appropriate communication methods. The VA of the future must be adept at watching trends that may affect how they do business in the future. In addition, volunteer administrators must be adept at creating and maintaining a supportive, ethical, friendly and productive climate for volunteers and paid staff.

Volunteers play an essential role in the delivery of educational programs conducted by the Cooperative Extension program in the United States. In the area of 4-H and youth development alone, more than 624,000 volunteers (National 4-H Headquarters, 2002) deliver educational programs to our nation's youth each year. In other areas of Extension, master volunteers deliver educational programs in such diverse areas as gardening, natural resources, parenting, clothing, and food preservation (USDA, 2002). Volunteers are used extensively in every program area of Extension. This makes every county-level extension agent a manager or administrator of volunteers.

Because of this, many state extension programs have included skills in the management of volunteers in their list of competencies that faculty must possess or acquire in order to be successful as county extension educators (Stone & Coppernol, 2002; North Carolina Cooperative Extension, 2002).

The Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) established a set of competency-based standards for the certification of volunteer administrators in the 1980s. Those standards were examined and revised during the late 1990s. These standards center around five functional areas: commitment to the profession; planning and conceptual design; resource development and management; accountability; and perspective and responsiveness. (AVA, 2002). The AVA describes commitment to the profession as engaging in ethical practices and theories of leadership. Planning and conceptual design involves having knowledge of the organization and the strategic and operational planning process. Resource development and management includes the management practices that involve recruiting, training, monitoring and evaluating volunteers. Risk management and financial resource management are also included in this category. The accounting category includes program evaluation and reporting to stakeholders. Relationships with volunteers, organizational staff, strategic partners, and the public are vital to volunteer organizations. Nurturing these relationships along with skills in cultural competence are part of the perspective and responsiveness competency.

The question remains, are these competencies adequate for the volunteer administrator in the decade to come?

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to develop consensus among a panel of experts regarding the competencies that would be required by volunteer administrators in the year 2010. The specific objectives were to:

- 1. define the competencies required by volunteer administrators in the next 10 years;
- 2. identify barriers that might prevent volunteer administrators from acquiring those competencies; and
- 3. identify ways that organizations might motivate employees to acquire these competencies or eliminate barriers.

Methods/Procedures

This study used the Delphi technique for developing group consensus. The Delphi technique was first developed by the Rand Corporation in the 1950s. It is a technique primarily used for forecasting, policy investigations, and goal-setting (Ulschak, 1983). While the majority of its use in Agricultural Education research has been in the area of curriculum development, it has also been widely used to determine essential competencies in many fields (Martin & Frick, 1998; Shinn & Smith, 1999). The Delphi technique uses a panel of experts in a given field to develop consensus regarding the answer to a specific question or series of questions.

This study involved three rounds to achieve consensus among thirteen experts in volunteer administration. The panel of experts consisted of volunteer administrators, directors of regional volunteer centers, Extension volunteer development specialists, and university faculty members from across the nation. These experts were identified by their reputation among volunteer administrators, their involvement in the profession, or their research and publication record in the field.

Round I – The initial round required the jury of experts to respond to three open-ended questions. The jury was asked to identify three to five competencies that they believed volunteer administrators will need in the year 2010. A competency was identified as a knowledge, skill, motive or characteristic that causes or predicts outstanding performance. They were next asked to identify any barriers that they perceived would prevent volunteer administrators from achieving these competencies. A barrier was defined as anything that impedes the acquisition of these competencies. And finally, the jury was asked to identify ways for organizations to motivate (both intrinsically and extrinsically) volunteer administrators to acquire these competencies or overcome any barriers. Fifteen of the original 20 members of the jury responded to the first round for a response rate of seventy-five percent. Dalky (1969) found that when the size of the jury was greater than 13, mean correlations were greater than 0.80, satisfying questions of process reliability.

Round II – Faculty members with experience in volunteer administration examined the statements identified in Round I to find commonalities among them and to combine similar statements. The original language of the expert jury members was retained without trying to clarify or interpret meaning. Combining similar statements resulted in 33 competency statements, 15 barrier statements, and 21 statements regarding motivation. These statements were used to create the instrument for Round 2. In Round 2, the jury was asked to rate their strength of agreement for each statement on a six-point Likert-type scale with 1= strongly

disagree and 6=strongly agree. All fifteen members of the jury who responded in Round I also responded to Round II.

Round III – The purpose of Round 3 was to begin the process of developing consensus among the jury. Those statements that received a five or six (agree or strongly agree) from at least twothirds of the jury responding in Round II were kept for the third round. Jury members were sent a third revised instrument and asked to re-evaluate each statement retained from the second round using a six-point Likert-type scale. Thirteen of the fifteen jury members responded to this round. Dillman's Tailored Design Method (2000) was used for non-response follow-up. Frequency distributions were again used to select responses based on a two-thirds majority.

Findings

Competencies

In Round I, the expert jury originated 72 competency statements, 33 barrier statements, and 42 statements regarding how to motivate volunteer administrators to attain those competencies. Combining similar statements resulted in the formation of 33 competencies required by volunteer administrators in the year 2010. Group consensus was reached by the third round and all 33 competency statements were retained.

The resulting statements were subjected to an unstructured Q-sorting procedure. Kerlinger (1986) describes an unstructured Q-sort as "a set of items assembled without specific regard to the variables or factors underlying the items" (p. 511). The Q-sorting procedure resulted in the development of five constructs. The constructs and their accompanying statements may be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Core Competencies Required by Volunteer Administrators in the coming Decade.

Organizational Leadership

Commitment to the vision of the organization.

The ability to access the needs of clients, the community, volunteers,

and the organization.

Long-range strategic planning skills.

Articulation of volunteer efforts and accomplishments.

Short-range skills in planning and organizing.

The ability to turn needs into plans and plans into action.

Articulation of organizational vision to stakeholders and others.

The creative use of technology to effect program impact.

Systems Leadership

Understanding the system in which you operate.

Shared leadership – shifting the mantel of leadership to others when the task calls for specific expertise.

Understanding and utilizing group dynamics, personality type, and team building strategies.

Willingness to share power and give up control.

Collaborating with others.

Organizational Culture

Acting as an internal consultant on volunteer management within the organization.

Creating a positive environment in which volunteers can learn and operate.

Relationship skills – the ability to motivate and work with others effectively.

Inspiring commitment and eagerness to learn by volunteers.

Trusting volunteers to get the job done.

Positive attitude and energy – seeking success and helping others.

Personal Skills

People skills: The development of the total person.

Good conflict resolution skills.

Communication skills: verbal, non-verbal, listening.

Creative thinking to accomplish goals and meet growing demands.

Ability to predict and manage change.

Management Skills

Understanding the functions and operationalization of an effective advisory system for volunteers.

Competent in recruiting volunteers.

Competent in screening volunteers.

Competent in matching volunteers to agency needs.

Competent in orienting and training volunteers.

Competent in protecting volunteers, clients, and the organization.

Competent in evaluating volunteer efforts and accomplishments.

Competent in recognizing volunteers.

Competent in retaining volunteers.

Competencies falling under the *organizational leadership* heading include skills in planning and needs assessment, a commitment to and communication of the organization's mission and vision to volunteers, clientele, and the general public. *Systems leadership* competencies involve understanding the agency's organizational system, and sharing leadership and power within the organization through delegation and collaboration. It also involves understanding others and the ability to build and sustain teams to more effectively address problems. Competencies identified under *organizational culture* include helping others within the organization understand the philosophy of volunteerism and how volunteers contribute to the mission of the organization. Creating an atmosphere of trust between employees and volunteers, and the ability to inspire and motivate volunteers through a well-communicated vision are also essential. The *personal skills* category not only includes skills that build better relationships with volunteers, but also the ability to creatively solve problems, and predict and manage change. *Management skills* include those functions necessary to creating and maintaining a volunteer program: recruiting, screening, training, recognizing and evaluating volunteers.

<u>Barriers that discourage volunteer administrators from acquiring core competencies</u> The original 33 barriers identified during Round 1 were reduced to 15 in Round II. Consensus was reached on twelve of those barriers by the third round. These barriers are listed in Table 2.

Table 2. Barriers that Discourage Volunteer Administrators from Acquiring Core Competencies in Volunteer Administration.

Barriers

Lack of organizational commitment/support to volunteers Volunteer administrator has too many other responsibilities other than volunteer administration Volunteer administrator lacks a personal philosophy of volunteerism Unwillingness of volunteer administrator to learn or change Lack of basic understanding of volunteer systems and the drivers of those systems Lack of pre-service or in-service training for volunteer administrators Lack of knowledge of volunteer management skills needed Lack of importance given to the role of volunteer administrator Organizational hiring practices Lack of access to necessary training/education to acquire the competencies Other professionals in the agency are threatened by volunteers An organization that doesn't foster a positive environment for the development of the individual

Many of the barriers identified deal with organizational cultures where the use of volunteers to achieve the organization's mission isn't valued. This can be attributed both to the organization's culture and the volunteer coordinator's commitment to the job assignment. Lack of knowledge on the part of the volunteer administrator is also a barrier. How can volunteer administrators seek skills that they don't realize they need?

When asked to identify ways to motivate volunteer administrators to develop these competencies and remove any barriers, the panel identified 21 methods. The panel retained 20 of those methods through the third round. These statements are listed in Table 3.

Table 3. Motivation Factors and Management Practices to Encouragethe Attainment of Volunteer Administration Competencies.

Motivating Factors

Require adequate pre-service training before hiring volunteer coordinator Require additional training as part of the job requirement and performance Review

Recognize the importance of volunteer contributions to the agency's Mission

Acknowledging and rewarding volunteer administrators for attaining the competencies

Including the volunteer administrator in key decision-making and management meetings

Recognizing the professionalism of the volunteer coordinator position both internally and externally to the organization.

Expressing how management skills learned related to volunteer

management are transferable to other jobs and personal life.

Profile success stories.

Create an environment and desire for life-long learning.

Removing Barriers

Orienting volunteer administrators as to the complexity of the position.

Organization provides appropriate levels of guidance and support.

Organization reimburses staff for training/professional development.

Refocus positions to focus only on volunteer administration.

Offering graduate courses in volunteer administration.

Making sure volunteer program's goals and activities support the organizational mission/vision.

Allow flexible work schedules and official time to obtain needed training.

Realistically advertising for the required knowledge, skills and attitudes. Providing access to professional development materials in volunteer

administration.

Making technology and applications accessible to help volunteer administrators do their job.

Offer an exciting array of professional development opportunities.

Organizational culture is implicated in both motivating volunteer administrators to acquire the competencies and in removing barriers to their attainment. Recognizing the importance of volunteer contributions to the agency's mission, acknowledging and rewarding volunteer administrators for acquiring the competencies, and recognizing the professionalism of the volunteer coordinator position both internally and externally to the organization all require an organizational culture that values the contributions of volunteers.

Conclusions and Implications

In their study to identify trends that will affect volunteer leadership in the next ten years, Culp and Nolan (1999) identified the volunteer administrator's professional development as the second most critical trend. The implications are clear: organizations that depend on volunteers to carry out their mission, such as the Cooperative Extension system, must either hire volunteer administrators with these competencies or make opportunities and resources available for volunteer administrators to acquire them. The agricultural education system can play a vital role in helping extension educators acquire these competencies, either through traditional classroom experiences or via web-based curriculums.

The competencies identified under the constructs of Organizational Leadership and Management Skills mirror the AVA competencies for Planning and Conceptual Design, Resource Development & Management, and Accountability. Under the competency category Commitment to the Profession, AVA lists theories of leadership as a knowledge base that volunteer administrators should possess. The Systems Leadership Competencies could potentially fit under this category, but the AVA category is too vague to make that connection. However, the AVA categories do not address the competencies identified under the Organizational Culture and Personal Skills constructs. Developing a culture that encourages and motivates volunteers, provides for their development, and rewards salaried staff for working with volunteers is crucial to the success of any volunteer program.

The study identified several ways that volunteer administrators can be motivated to acquire these competencies. While requiring adequate pre-service training and recognizing volunteer administrators for attaining the required competencies are easily implemented management practices, the other motivating factors identified in this study may require a change in the agency's organizational culture. Recognizing the professionalism of the volunteer administrator position, including the volunteer administrator in the decision-making process, and creating an atmosphere that encourages life-long learning are factors that cannot be changed overnight. Edgar Schein, in his book, Organizational Culture and Leadership, states that it is the prime task of the leader to manage the organizational culture (1996).

Multiple barriers may impede volunteer administrators from attaining these competencies. Strategic direction from the organizational leadership will be required to eliminate such barriers. Reallocating resources, aligning the volunteer mission with that of the organization, and redefining the volunteer administrator position to focus only on the volunteer program will greatly enhance the volunteer administrator's ability to attain the required competencies.

Recommendations

The following are recommendations for the agricultural education system:

- 1. Create undergraduate or graduate courses to prepare graduates to effectively lead volunteers (both synchronous and asynchronous delivery).
- 2. Prepare web-based faculty development materials to help school-based and extension faculty fill-in gaps in volunteer management competencies.

The following are recommendations for organizations utilizing volunteers to achieve their mission, including Cooperative Extension and the public education system:

- 1. Organizations should seek employees for volunteer management positions with the necessary competencies in volunteer administration;
- 2. Organizations should make the acquisition of these competencies a part of the employee's performance expectations.
- 3. Organizations should redirect resources to assist volunteer administrators in acquiring the competencies, including providing educational materials, professional development time, and reimbursement for professional development expenses related to acquiring the competencies; and
- 4. Organizations should examine their organizational culture to determine if any of the barriers identified in this study are preventing employees from acquiring the needed competencies in volunteer administration.

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INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING INTO LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

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Service-learning. Distance Education. Leadership Education. These are three of the most highly researched and fastest growing trends in higher education today. At Fort Hays State University in Hays, KS these three trends are combined to create an enriched academic experience.

Background

Service-learning is a targeted response to community needs and leadership development issues that lies at the intersection of theory, practice, self, and community. Servicelearning should not be misconstrued as just doing a project to help others. It is much more than that in that the learning is reciprocated during the service. This is what makes service-learning such a unique learning experience. What is learned is different for each student, but can be enriched through the intense reflection process. It differs from the community service done in the high-school level or as part of a college student organization. Traditional volunteerism is differentiated from service-learning by the reciprocal learned amount that occurs between those being served and those serving.

Service-Learning

Combined, service-learning, distance education, and leadership studies create a rich learning experience for students both on and off our campus. Throughout the service experience students not only address community needs, but deepen the leadership concepts taught throughout their previous leadership coursework. Piaget (1968) discovered that learning requires integration of concepts and experiences. An individual modifies concepts based on experiences and he/she fits experiences into existing concepts.

Service-learning is a type of experiential education in which the learner works directly on a community issue and follows up with guided reflection on the experience. It is a method of teaching and learning that integrates community service activities into academic curricula and enlarges the learning arena of students from the classroom to the community.

Effective service-learning consists of four elements:

- Sufficient **preparation**, which includes competencies to be achieved and planning projects so they contribute to learning at the same time work gets done;
- the **experience** of encountering a real life problem;
- **reflection**, in which the participant attempts to analyze and draw lessons from the experience;
- **assessment** of the extent to which the desired competencies have been achieved.

Service-learning transforms students from passive learners of information into active learners and community members whose responsible actions renew the landscape of their communities. Service-learning not only changes the way students learn, but it changes society's view of education and service. In this sense, service-learning is both a philosophy of education and a service to the community. (K-State Community Service Program, 2003)

Distance Education

The delivery model of distance education is in high demand not only at Fort Hays State University, but across the country. Easily adapting to students' needs, distance learning creates an opportunity for students to further their education from anywhere in the world. Distance education, due to its time and geographic flexibility, has appealed to working adult learners who work full-time and seek continuous education as part-time students. In 2000-01, 52 percent of institutions with undergraduate programs offered credit-bearing distance education courses at the undergraduate level. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2003) With the demand for distance education on the rise, we as leadership educators need to seize this opportunity to expand our programs across the nation.

Leadership Education

Higher education has long asserted that it prepares young people for the responsibilities of leadership, but until recently, only a few schools have addressed the characteristics of leadership and how leaders might be educated. Today, more and more institutions of higher learning are recognizing the need and importance of providing students with opportunities to study and practice leadership. Over the last several decades, an increasing number of colleges and universities have begun to offer programs and courses in leadership studies and organizational leadership. Latest reports indicate that between 600 and 700 campuses are attempting to address leadership issues through classroom instruction. 21st century organizations and communities need students that are prepared for positions of leadership.

Leadership Education at Fort Hays State University

The Department of Leadership Studies at Fort Hays State University (FHSU) integrates three majors components in leadership education: what (creating change), how (collaborating with others), and why (civic leadership). The "what" of leadership consists of creating change. The very concept of change is what makes leadership different from all other forms of human interaction. Leaders and followers are encouraged to serve as change agents in their organizations and communities to create positive social change. The change is initiated through collaboration or the "how" of leadership. Bringing diverse groups of people together to create solutions to move from "what is" to "what ought to be" is the goal of collaboration. Civic leadership, the "why" of leadership, addresses the good of all parties affected by the change, most commonly referred to as the common good.

The "why" or Civic Leadership component had been included in the on-campus leadership education curriculum at Fort Hays State University since 1996. In 2000 the entire program was expanded to distance education via the FHSU Virtual College. However, like many college courses with a service component, the missing servicelearning aspect was the reflection element. Students and faculty were heavily involved in the preparation, as well as the service experience itself, but yet never came back together in reflection activities for the true learning to take place. Two years ago reflection was added to the course to more closely mirror a true service-learning course. Assessment is the final component of service-learning. Currently team members assess each other for a large percentage of their grade. However, a tool for community organizations to assess team members is being developed this semester.

On-campus delivery

In our traditional on-campus sections of this class, students self-select both teams and projects. As a result of the service projects from this class over the years, community organizations request teams of students to work with them on a semester basis. These community contacts present their project ideas in the first week of class. Students then form their teams around project areas of interest to them. Within the first month of class students research the issue, identify potential action steps, and write a detailed strategic plan. This plan then serves as the outline for their semester activities as they work to make positive community change.

Throughout the semester students are required to present the progress on their projects both in class and in the community. Students are also required to evaluate their team members' contributions to the success of the project. Continuous reflection is done throughout the semester both oral and written. Their classmates are then asked to respond with feedback that makes them think about who is benefiting from the project, what they are learning throughout the process, how they will use the information they are learning in their future lives, and what they are learning about being a citizen and participating in lifetime service. Some weeks this is done in teams, while other weeks the entire class reflects together. The final assignment is a written personal reflection paper read only by the student and the instructor.

Distance delivery

There are many similarities in the on and off campus sections of this course. However, the differences are notable. The major difference is that students in the distance course are located all around the world. These students are required to choose their community change project in their own locations and hopefully collaborate with key stakeholders interested in the change. An exception to this is Navy sailors on board ships who must get very creative in choosing their projects. For example, one sailor redesigned his hometown's webpage while out to sea.

Another difference is in the reflection process. Virtual students have the opportunity to post their progress on Blackboard – the distance education software used at the university. While the goals for this reflection process are similar both on and off campus, the method used to facilitate the reflection is written versus the combination of oral and written. (See Appendix A)

Since the addition of the distance delivery of this course, positive community change has taken place globally. Now each semester rather than having six to eight projects undertaken in Hays, Kansas, this class produces sixteen to eighteen projects around the world.

Results

We are confident that these projects are truly creating positive community change throughout the world. It is evident that our students have made real change through the projects they have implemented. We are also confident that our students (at least in the short-term) are learning valuable lessons about leadership, community change, and service. They are learning to be persistent, collaborative, and serve as change agents. What is unknown is the more important long-term impact of leadership service-learning. Over the next ten years, research will need to be conducted to track the success of students involved in service-learning coursework. However, if early indications are correct, this method of instruction shows tremendous possibilities.

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Appendix A Leadership Studies: Fort Hays State University LDRS 310 Field Work in Leadership Studies SYLLABUS

Off-Campus Delivery

Instructor:

Curt Brungardt McCartney Hall 208

Fort Hays State University 600 Park Street Hays, KS 67601 Office Phone: 785.628.4303 cbrungar@fhsu.edu

COURSE OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this interdisciplinary course is to help move the student from the study of leadership to the actual participation in a leadership project. Students will be asked to serve as citizen leaders in a local community project of their choice in conjunction with an existing organization. Course activities include: recognizing a community problem, working with other concerned citizens to develop a plan of action, and implementing that plan.

This is a service-learning course which is a culmination to the Leadership Studies program core courses. Service-learning is a targeted response to community needs and leadership development issues that lies at the intersection of theory, practice, self, and community. Service-learning should not be misconstrued as just doing a project to help others. It is much more than that in that the learning is reciprocated during the service. This is what makes service-learning such a unique learning experience. What is learned is different for each student, but can be enriched though the intense reflection process. It differs from the community service done in the high-school level or as part of a college student organization. Traditional volunteerism is differentiated from service-learning by the reciprocal learned amount that occurs between those being served and those serving.

| | Community Service | Enhanced Academic | Purposeful Civic |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| | | Learning | Learning |
| Volunteering or | Yes | No | No |
| Community Service | | | |
| Co-Curricular | Yes | No | Yes |
| Service-Learning | | | |
| Academic Service- | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Learning | | | |
| Internship | Sometimes | Yes | No |

Distinguishing Characteristics of Some Common Student Community-Based Experiences

COURSE OBJECTIVES (continued)

- to engage in a collaborative project involving the implementation and practice of civic leadership in the Hays area, putting into practice the principles of collaborative leadership covered in LDRS 302
- to increase understanding of leadership theories and concepts
- to increase students' abilities to work in teams
- to explore personal values with respect to leadership and service
- to be able to articulate an understanding of community service and service-learning
- to utilize community service as a introduction to service, civic responsibility, and leadership
- to provide opportunities and methods for reflection
- to discuss critical issues of diversity, social justice, community, and civic responsibility with leadership and service
- to develop a personal philosophy of service and leadership through critical analysis of social issues, reflection, and practice
- to be encouraged to be life-long learners and advocates for social change

TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks may be ordered and obtained by contacting: MBS Direct, a partner of Fort Hays State University by phone at 1-800-325-3252 or by email at hhtp://direct.mbsbooks.com/fhsuvc.htm

- Potts, Joseph D. (2001). *The Ethical Difference*. Longmont, CO: Rocky Mountain Press.
- CD-ROM: *Field Work in Leadership Studies* (includes videos and project assignments).

COURSE ADMINISTRATION AND REQUIREMENTS

The format of this course is designed for the off-campus student. Students are able to complete all assignments without ever having to visit the Fort Hays State University campus. Activities include reading selected text, viewing videos from the CD-ROM, completing written assignments, and communicating with your instructor and classmates through Blackboard.

REQUIREMENTS:

| <u>Community Project</u> | <u>Unit</u> | <u>Points</u> | Number of Pages |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Phase A (Issue Identification) | Unit 4 | 40 pts. | 2 p. |
| Phase B (Action Plan/Objectives) | Unit 5 | 100 pts. | 5-6 p. |
| Phase C (Progress Report 1) | Unit 6 | 25 pts. | 2 p. |
| Phase D (Progress Report 2) | Unit 7 | 25 pts. | 2 p. |
| Phase E (Progress Report 3) | Unit 8 | 25 pts. | 2 p. |
| Phase F (Final Project Paper) | Unit 10 | 100 pts. | 8-10 p. |
| Personal Reflection Paper | | 50 pts. | 2 p. |
| **Phase Information at the end of sy | yllabus** | - | - |

Individual Project:

| Book Review (post on Blackboard) | | 100 pts. |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------------|
| Participation Points | | <u>100 pts.</u> |
| - | TOTAL = | 515 pts. |

Community Leadership Project:

The major focus of this course includes the participation in a community project. You are asked to develop several papers that explain your work on a local community issue of your choice. This includes: issue identification, action plans, progress reports including reflection components, and a final project paper. All your assignments should be posted on Blackboard.

Book Review: April 7

Students are required to read the textbook and write a 3-4 page book review elaborating on the basic components of *The Ethical Difference* and providing a personal assessment. **Post your review on Blackboard by April 7.**

Grading:

| 100 - 92% | 91 - 83% | 82 - 70% | 69 - 60% |
|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| А | В | С | D |

Participation Points:

You will be given points on your participation (comments on Blackboard) throughout the semester. You are encouraged to make suggestions on other students' projects and discuss articles, questions, and topics I will put on the discussion board, as well as my feedback to your reflection comments. Please respond to these postings and interact with one another with your thoughts, ideas, and opinions. BE SURE TO CHECK THE BOARD ON A REGULAR BASIS! 100 points of your total points are based off your depth of thorough responses to the discussion board questions.

Reflection:

Reflection activities are intended to link your service experience to your learning of leadership. While many people are accustomed to volunteering in their communities, few have asked themselves "why" issues exist or reflect about the causes and solutions to these social issues. By engaging in these reflective exercises with your classmates through the Discussion Board, you will think deeper about your service as well as your classmates. Throughout this reflection process you should gain a deeper understanding of the service experience, how the service addresses community needs, and how all of this deepens the learning of the concepts from the discipline of leadership studies.

You will include a reflection component in each of your three progress reports. These should be posted on the Discussion Board so that other students may respond.

You will also be responsible for your own Personal Reflection Paper at the end of the semester. Post this paper on Blackboard.

Late Assignments:

For each assignment emailed late to the instructor, a 25 percent penalty will be assessed each day.

Personal Reflection Guide

Reflection is an opportunity through which one can learn from experience. Reflection can take numerous forms and touch on an endless variety of issues. It furthers learning and inspires thought and action. This is your chance to be a great storyteller as you relate your service experience to leadership.

Please include reflections that make you think about who is benefiting from your project, what you are learning throughout the process, how you will use the information you are learning in your future life and what you are learning about being a citizen and participating in lifetime service.

Other potential questions this paper can answer:

- 1) Describe the environment at the site where your team is working.
- 2) What was the most difficult part of your work in terms of skills and knowledge? In terms of emotional demands?
- 3) What do you feel is your team's main contribution?
- 4) What style of leadership does your organization's supervisor utilize when working with other people?
- 5) How would the people at your organization describe you?
- 6) What insights have you gained about working with people?
- 7) Were you able to use leadership skills learned in prior leadership classes? Explain.

My hope is that writing this reflection paper will cause you to stop and think about the process and not rely so much on the one team member who typically writes the teams reports. Have fun!!

Participation/Collaboration Survey Peer Evaluation

Student being evaluated: 1= Low (lacking effective skills or abilities) Scoring: 2= Average (effective skills or abilities) 3= High (highly effective skills or abilities) PARTICIPATION LEVEL: 1. Students regularly attends group meetings 2. Student is an active contributor in group meetings and activities.....1 2 3 4 5 COLLABORATION LEVEL: 1. Student exhibits effective communication and listening skills....1 2 3 4 5

- Student compromises with others in decision making......1 2 3 4 5
 Student treats other group members with dignity

Additional Comments:

COURSE SCHEDULE AND OTHER DETAILS

Due Date

| 1/14 - 1/20 | Unit One-Video 1: Course Introduction Video |
|-------------|---|
| 1/21 | Unit Two-Audio 1: Reviewing LDRS 300 and 302 Leadership Courses |
| 1/22 | Unit Three-Audio2: Civic Leadership/Social Change and view Community Project Outline and Assignment |
| 1/28 | Unit Four- Complete Implementation Phase A Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM ** You must have the instructor's approval of your community project prior to moving to Phase B. |
| 2/20 | Unit Five-Complete Implementation Phase B Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM **Once the instructor has approved your plan, you may continue working on your community project. ***Please e-mail me the name and phone number of the contact person you will be working most closely with on this project. |
| 3/03 | Unit Six- Complete Implementation Phase C Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM. Include reflection comments in your paper (see syllabus). |
| 3/17 | Unit Seven- Complete Implementation Phase D Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM. Include reflection comments in your paper (see syllabus). |
| 4/07 | Book Review |
| 4/07 | Unit Eight- Complete Implementation Phase E Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM. Include reflection comments in your paper (see syllabus). |
| 4/21 | Unit Nine-Audio 3: Final Community Project Overview |
| 5/03 | Unit Ten-Complete Implementation Phase F Assignment of the Community Project on the CD-ROM |
| 5/10 | Personal Reflection Paper |
| | |

UNIT FOUR

Phase A – Issue Identification

In this phase, you are asked to research and select a local community issue or problem that needs to be addressed. Keep in mind that you need to be realistic due to the fact that this project needs to be completed within the semester. Also, remember that the community issue or problem should address the common good (what benefits your local community).

Please submit a 2 page typed double-spaced paper that describes in some detail the community problem or issue that you will address throughout the semester. If you have any questions at this point, email the instructor at this time.

Your paper should include the following:

a description of the problem (illustrate the severity and the consequences that may occur if the issue is not addressed)

what are some of the possible solutions to the issue or problem

what is your vision or desired solution to the problem

what local community groups are currently working on the problem

to whom (what community entity) will you be accountable to during your project

UNIT FIVE

Phase B – Action Plan/Desired Objectives

In this phase, you are asked to provide a comprehensive plan of action regarding what you hope to accomplish in addressing your community issue or problem. This includes what you hope to accomplish in the next two months and all the steps necessary to complete your task.

Please submit a 5-6 page typed double-spaced paper that describes in some detail the plan of action for addressing your community problem or issue. If you have any questions at this point, email the instructor at this time.

Your plan of action should include:

- a summary of the problem or issue to be addressed
- a description of your desired outcome at the end of the project
- the action steps that you and the community group will undergo in order to accomplish your goals. These action steps should include *what needs to be done; how it needs to be done; when it needs to be done; who needs to do it; and the resources needed to accomplish the task.*
- place your action steps in a timeline
- what role will you personally play in this project?

UNIT SIX

Phase C – Progress Report #1

Summarize what you have accomplished to date and how you may have adjusted your implementation plan to overcome obstacles. This might include:

- summary of accomplishment
- summary of problems faced
- revisions to objectives and/or new objectives
- revisions to action steps and/or new action steps
- how the problem has changed and why
- how your vision of the original problem has changed
- how your priorities have changed

Discuss the "process" your community group is utilizing. How did your group deal with decisions that had to be made?

- who has done what so far
- consensus, majority rules, etc.
- any conflicts what were the conflicts and how did you resolve them
- discuss frustrations/stress
- discuss what has happened so far, what needs to happen next, and who will do it

Include reflection comments using guide in syllabus.

UNIT SEVEN

Phase D – Progress Report #2

Summarize what you have accomplished to date, and how you may have adjusted your implementation plan to overcome obstacles. This might include:

- summary of accomplishment
- summary of problems
- revisions to objectives and/or new objectives
- revisions to action steps and/or new action steps
- how the problem has changed and why
- how your vision of the original problem has changed
- how your priorities have changed

Discuss the "process" your community group is utilizing. How did your group deal with decisions that had to be made?

- who has done what so far
- consensus, majority rules, etc.
- any conflicts what were the conflicts and how did you resolve them
- discuss frustrations/stress
- discuss what has happened so far, what needs to happen next, and who will do it

Include reflection comments using guide in syllabus.

UNIT EIGHT

Phase E – Progress Report #3

Summarize what you have accomplished to date, and how you may have adjusted your implementation plan to overcome obstacles. This might include:

- summary of accomplishment
- summary of problems
- revisions to objectives and/or new objectives
- revisions to action steps and/or new action steps
- how the problem has changed and why
- how your vision of the original problem has changed
- how your priorities have changed

Discuss the "process" your community group is utilizing. How did your group deal with decisions that had to be made?

- who has done what so far
- consensus, majority rules, etc.
- any conflicts what were the conflicts and how did you resolve them
- discuss frustrations/stress
- discuss what has happened so far, what needs to happen next, and who will do it

Include reflection comments using guide in syllabus.

UNIT NINE

Audio 3: Final Community Project Overview

In this final audio, the instructor will first review the process of community leadership and action, and then secondly, discuss the Final Community Project Report.

Final Project Outline

- Project evaluation
- Obstacles
- The End Project
- Quality and Effectiveness
- Hindsight is 20/20
- ♦ Attachments

UNIT TEN

Phase F – Final Community Project Report

Your final paper should answer all of the following questions to some extent. It should by typed double-spaced and long enough to cover all of the indicated criterion. BE SURE TO PROOFREAD CAREFULLY FOR SPELLING AND GRAMMAR MISTAKES!

Part I: Project Evolution

Describe your project as you initially planned it, and then explain how it changed over time. Here you can talk about your initial vision statement, goals, and objectives. Then carefully describe these and your project in their final form.

Part II: Obstacles

Describe the various obstacles and difficulties you encountered and how you dealt with them.

<u>Part III:</u> The End Product

Describe what you ultimately produced. What was your end project? Did you achieve your goals and objectives? How was your end product used (what has been done with it so far, either by you or by others)? How will it be used in the future (by others)? How confident are you that it will be used in this way?

Part IV: Quality and Effectiveness

Describe the quality of your end product? Is it of high quality? Why or why not? How do you know? Is it/Was it/Will it be effective in achieving the goals you set? Why or why not? How do you know? How could the quality and/or effectiveness of your product have been better?

Part V: Hindsight is 20/20

If you were starting this same project again now, knowing what you know now, what would you have done differently?

Part VI: Mail or electronically attach copies of what you produced

Pamphlets, workshop outlines, grant proposals, budgets, business plans, bids, handouts, maps, surveys, survey results and analyses, presentations, overheads, software files on disk, etc. (whatever you created as part of your project). Mail materials to instructor.

Running Head: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

As we move rapidly into the 21^{st} century leaders face the challenge of being effective in a global knowledge environment. Now, more than ever, leaders must play the key role in helping organizations cope with the challenges they face from expanding knowledge and knowledge systems. This study (N = 845) investigated the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and knowledge management. Knowledge management behaviors were a predictor variable for transformational leadership, and a negative predictor of laissez-faire leadership. Knowledge management behaviors was not related to transactional leadership overall, but was related to each subscale. This finding warrants further investigation. Implications for leadership educators are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Nearly every modern organization is confronting the change in information systems, from ledger cards to a digital era. Today, information flows in directions and with speed that only 10 years ago we could not even imagine. The change has been nothing short of a revolution. This trend toward "informatics" effects the process of leadership by speeding up the inputs, requiring faster and more personal transformation of the product, all in a business climate that builds competition through "response time" to customer demands. To be certain, the role of leaders in the short-term future is impacted by the current information revolution.

Additionally, the information age has put great pressure on organizational outcomes. "Just in time" solutions have replaced "on hand" inventory, and product quality is more important than ever before. One of the most serious issues facing the modern organization comes in the form of an uncertain future and a rate of change that seems staggering today, but will only geometrically intensify as information systems become widely instituted. In short, the modern organization is forced to produce something faster than ever and better than ever for a rapidly evolving market.

AN EMERGING KNOWLEDGE ORGANIZATION

Over the past 15 years the term "knowledge management" has evolved to represent the changing nature of the workplace – a true paradigm shift. In coining the phrase "knowledge society" Peter Drucker convincingly argued that land, labor, and capital – the classical factors of production – had been largely replaced by knowledge (Drucker, 1993), "that knowledge has become *the* resource, rather than *a* resource, is what makes our society 'post-capitalist'"(p. 45). The modern knowledge organization has become a social environment designed by the specialists, to meet the needs of the market and the specialists, in the most efficient and quickest way possible. Lang (2001) clarified the importance of the knowledge worker in this new age, "while the knowledge worker may need the tools of production the organization owns, while she may well have to work in organizations, she nevertheless owns the means of production" (p. 44). Hitt (1995) further argued, "It seems evident that the learning organization is a paradigm shift from the more traditional organization. Indeed, it is a paradigm shift of the highest order. We are witnessing the emergence of a radically new perspective of organization: how they should function, how they should be managed, and how they should cope with change" (Hitt, 1995, p. 17). Rowley (1999) suggested that "the knowledge based society has arrived, and those organizations that can succeed in the global information society are those that can identify, value, create, and evolve their knowledge assets" (p. 416). Rowley continued by noting that effective management of knowledge, change, and innovation are central or "core competencies" that must be mastered for organizations to succeed. Neef (1999) expanded the more micro-level view of knowledge management by commenting,

A knowledge-based revolution is taking place, and it comes in a matching set: knowledge management for organizations and the knowledge-based economy for nations themselves. Both are part of a major evolutionary economic movement which is beginning to reshape the global economic structure, and knowledge management should be seen as one of the most concrete and important set of practices and policies than an organization can adopt, marking a significant step in an enterprise's evolution toward becoming a global, learning organization that can survive in the knowledge based economy (p. 72).

BASICS OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

As a preliminary consideration, it seems important to define the seemingly self-evident term – knowledge. While *prima facie* it seems obvious, the reality is that knowledge is quite complex (Clark & Rollo, 2001). Of central importance is the type of knowledge that organizations are forced to manage. If all knowledge were codified and formal, or explicit, then the function of knowledge management would be little more than compliance and management. Nevertheless, the reality is that much of the information that organizations try to manage is held within the personal and collective experiences of the workforce; it is tacit knowledge. Bollinger and Smith (2001) explained, "Tacit knowledge is unarticulated knowledge that is in a person's head that is often difficult to describe and transfer. It includes lessons learned, know-how, judgment, rules of thumb, and intuition...it is key characteristic of team-based learning organizations" (p. 9). Further clarifying this point, Lang (2001) stated that, "knowledge is both produced and held collectively rather than individually in tightly knit groups or 'communities of practice'...organizational knowledge is social in character" (p. 46). Tacit knowledge is an important resource of organizations given that 42% of corporate knowledge is held within employee's minds (Clarke & Rollo, 2001).

Knowledge management is jointly a goal and a process. As an outcome or goal, knowledge management is entirely focused on sharing information for the benefit of the organization, as Bollinger and Smith (2001) concluded. They reasoned, "the knowledge management process is not so much about control as it is about sharing, collaboration, and making the best possible use of a strategic resource" (p. 14). Explicit knowledge is generally easy to access and manage, but tacit knowledge often defies capture given its highly personal and subjective, but critical, nature. Knowledge management is primarily about making tacit knowledge more accessible since it accounts for a majority of an organization's collective knowledge (Clarke & Rollo, 2001). Lang (2001) explicated the goal of knowledge management, "Knowledge management systems must connect people to enable them to think together and to take time to articulate and share information and insights they know are useful to their company" (p. 44). Stonehouse and Pemberton (1999) also suggested, "it is the role of knowledge management to ensure that individual learning becomes organizational learning" (p. 132). Birkinshaw (2001) referred to this process as 'recycling' old knowledge. Knowledge management is a complex process without end, but effective knowledge management can be a goal for any organization.

The process of knowledge management is based on the ability of all members of the organization to add value to the basic business processes through the creation, communication, codification, and coordination of both explicit and tacit knowledge stores (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Specifically, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) theorized that the flow of knowledge transitions from socialization, to externalization, to combination, and finally to internalization – basically from the raw experience, to understanding, then to categorization, and finally to the creation of personal mental models that transcend the experience.

Various authors discuss the specific processes associated with knowledge management. Galagan (1997) proposed the following sample list of knowledge management processes:

• Generating new knowledge,

- Accessing knowledge from external sources,
- Representing knowledge in documents, databases, software, etc.,
- Embedding knowledge in products, processes, or services,
- Transferring existing knowledge around an organization,
- Using accessible knowledge in decision making,
- Facilitating knowledge growth through culture and incentives,

• Measuring the value of knowledge assets and the impact of knowledge management. Baines (1997) put the knowledge management process squarely at the intersection of technology, organizational structures, and cognitive based strategies. In this case, technology becomes the tool, the organizational structure becomes the context, and the knowledge becomes the 'stuff' of great advances. Seng, Zannes, and Pace (2002) developed five distinct steps in the process of managing knowledge:

- 1. Capturing knowledge. Record steps involved in solving a problem.
- 2. Storing knowledge. Capture information must be stored in a database, warehouse, application, or some other production system.
- 3. Processing knowledge. Sorting, filtering, organizing, analyzing, comparing, correlating, and mining the knowledge.
- 4. Sharing knowledge. Distributing knowledge through information systems or through personal interaction, synchronously or asynchronously.

5. Using knowledge. Solving problems to advance the objectives of the organization. Finally, Barth (2003) detailed several distinctive personal knowledge management tools. The framework that Barth details provides perhaps the most effective and developed comprehensive categorization of personal knowledge management tools. They included:

- 1. Accessing. Search strategies, research, inquiry.
- 2. Evaluating. Judgment, confirmation of information, qualification.
- 3. Organizing. Filtering, discarding, filing and archiving.
- 4. Analyzing. Critical thinking, sense-making, testing hypotheses.
- 5. Conveying. Explaining, presenting, written and spoken conveyance.
- 6. Collaborating. Messaging, sharing documents, meetings and conversations.
- 7. Securing. Self-discipline, backup, inoculation, threat awareness.

Of the conclusions that could be drawn regarding the specific processes of knowledge management, two quickly come to mind for these authors. First, each of the knowledge management process has been traditionally the domain of leaders and managers. Second, these processes, as in the past, require much more than just a technological solution.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

The original formulation of transformational leadership theory comes from Burns (1978). At the core of transformational leadership is the concept of transformation, or change of the organization. Tichy and Devanna (1986) noted that companies were being asked to make fundamental changes. Transformational leadership best reflects this change (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as a process in which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). A chief element of transformation is the ability to cultivate the needs of the follower in a follower centered (person-centered) manner. According to Burns, focusing on needs makes leaders accountable to the follower. First, Burns contended that followers are driven by a moral need, the need to champion a cause, or the need to take a higher moral stance on an issue. People like to feel that a higher
organizational spiritual mission guides their motives. The second need is a paradoxical drive for consistency and conflict. Transforming leaders must help followers make sense out of inconsistency. Conflict is necessary to create alternatives and to make change possible. The process of transformation is founded on empathy, understanding, insight, and consideration; not manipulation, power wielding, or coercion. Tichy and Devanna (1986) defined transformation best, "Transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship" (p. viii).

Few researchers address the link between information management and leadership, and even fewer address the relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management. According to Klenke (1994), information technology and the actions of leaders create new organizational forms. Leadership is at the center of the interaction between task demands, people, technology, and organization structure. The relationship between innovation and leadership is difficult to articulate given the variety of functional leadership behaviors and the range of information technologies. Technology and leadership have reciprocal effects on each other; a change in one necessitates a change in the other. Brown (1994) speculated that transformational leadership is needed in an evolving technological society. Societal, we are moving from controlled change to accelerated change nearly beyond control. Both attitude and behavior must be the target of transformational leaders. The primary reason for technological change failure was fear. The role of transformational leaders was to reform fear into motivation. Transformational leaders must meet market demands faster and better than before, given the increasingly interdependent economy.

Limited research addressed the relationship between innovation and transformational leadership. Howell and Higgins (1990a, 1990b, 1990c) contended that champions of innovation were significantly more transformational than non-champions. Champions are generally considered to be key organizational decision-makers that advocate enhanced use of technological solutions, but often are not as technologically literate as specialists in the organization. Champions operate in three ways:

- Implement rational methods that promote sound decision making based on organizational rules and procedures,
- Engage in a participative process, enlisting others' help to gain approval and implementation of the innovation,
- Work outside the formal channels of bureaucratic rules and engage in the renegade process (Howell & Higgins, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c).

Howell and Higgins (1990c) compiled a list of attributes of champions: high self-confidence, persistence, energy, risk taking, credible, and winning. They concluded that champions are found in all organizations and without champions "organizations may have lots of ideas but few tangible innovations" (p. 36). Their research was deficient in the methods used in identifying champion status.

In a series of articles, Crawford (1998), Crawford and Strohkirch (1997a, 1997b, 2000), and Crawford, Gould, and Scott (2003) established the argument that transformational leadership was related to personal innovation. In their findings, transformational leaders were significantly more innovative than transactional and laissez-faire leaders. Innovation is often noted as one of the important characteristics of knowledge managers. The behavioral manifestation of innovation is the ability to create and manage information and knowledge. Given the substantial relationship between innovation and transformational leadership, research looking at the

relationship of the outcome of innovation (knowledge management) and transformational leadership seems more than deserving of investigation (Bryant, 2003; Crawford & Strohkirch, 2002).

LEADERSHIP IN KNOWLEDGE ORGANIZATIONS

Mahoney (2000) crystallized the position well, "Let me say from the start that in my view leadership must exist at all levels in an organization, regardless of the size, for it to consider itself a learning organization....there is no excuse for them [leaders] not creating an environment where everyone can participate in this process" (p. 241). Bailey and Clarke (2000) highlighted the disconnect in how leadership has not kept pace with the need to understand the role of knowledge, "for some reason many managers have yet to grasp the clear personal relevance, utility, and organizational significance of knowledge management" (p. 235). They further reported that many leaders felt that knowledge management was more fad than reality, or struggled to both conceptualize and practice knowledge management.

Baines (1997) suggested that leaders, first and foremost, were responsible for learning – both personally as well as organizationally. Scharmer (2001) charged leaders with a nearly impossible task, "Leaders...face a new challenge. Leaders must be able to see the emerging opportunities before they become manifest in the marketplace" (p. 137). Leaders play a crucial role in building and maintaining an organizational culture of learning. They specifically infer that leaders must attach a high value to knowledge, encourage questioning and experimentation through empowerment, build trust, and facilitate experiential learning of tacit knowledge (Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999). Bollinger and Smith (2001) echoed the same sentiments when suggesting that leaders need to focus on:

- Establishing a culture that respects knowledge, reinforces its sharing, retains its people, and builds loyalty to the organization,
- Ensuring that anyone in a supervisory position receive training, empowerment, and support to promote the desired culture,
- Establishing a knowledge infrastructure and support system that enhances and facilitates sharing and application of knowledge.

Davenport and Prusak (1998) also gave very specific recommendations to would be leaders regarding their role in knowledge management. They suggest that leaders:

- Advocate the importance of learning and knowledge in an organization,
- Design, implement, and oversee an organization's learning infrastructure,
- Manage relationships with external knowledge providers,
- Provide ideas to improve the process of knowledge creation in the organization,
- Design and implement a knowledge codification approach.
- Measure and manage the value of knowledge,
- Manage the organization's professional knowledge managers,
- Lead the development of learning and knowledge strategies, focusing the organization's resources.

Lang (2001) provided further substance when arguing that human relationships within an organization are crucial for knowledge creation, sharing, and utilization. Lang expressed, "The real task of knowledge management is to connect people to people to enable them to share what expertise and knowledge they have at the moment" (p. 55). Hitt (1995) also identified that

leaders needed to empower all members of the learning organization by developing a shared vision, providing resources, delegating authority, celebrating success, and most important, by being a learning architect.

Some limited empirical findings on the role of leadership in the knowledge organization have been published, but this type of investigation has not been the norm. On the basis of several case studies of knowledge organizations Waldersee (1997) concluded that leaders should target five specific areas:

- Maximize message reception,
- Create and embed an intellectual transformation of the workforce,
- Motivate to learn,
- Raise self-confidence,
- Enable navigation through a changing environment.

In a limited interview of leaders Johnson (2002) found a common theme, "A critical point, though, is that they paid attention themselves [sic] to the learning organization initiative....The idea that everyone in the organization pay attention to learning ran through the data" (p. 246). Johnson (2002) made several conclusions based on the data, but of most significance is the idea that knowledge management applies to the entire organization, from top to bottom. Finally, in a more substantial empirical piece, Politis (2001) looked at the relationship between self-management, transformational/ transactional leadership, and various knowledge management attributes. Politis found that self-management, transformational, and transactional leadership styles are related to dimensions of knowledge acquisition. Specifically, Politis concluded:

It is the participative and self-management leadership style that encourages and facilitates these attributes (behavioral skills and traits of knowledge workers) that are essential for knowledge management (acquisition) and knowledge sharing. It is the participative and self-management leadership style that has clear and conscious knowledge strategy if the enterprise is to take advantage of the knowledge available in impacting efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, and competitive position (p. 362).

Politis further commented about the need for leaders to act within an empowered environment. The empirical findings, though limited, seem to lend some support to the theoretical assumptions made by many authors speaking of the need for participative collaborative leadership in the face of the transition to the knowledge society.

Finally, Bryant (2003) argued that there is a clear relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management in organizations. While his piece is pre-empirical, this foundation serves as ample motivation for further investigation of the relationship between the two concepts. Bryant (2003) made the point very clearly,

The greatest need in this area is empirical testing of the organizational knowledge constructs. Researchers may want to explore...the link between transformational leadership and managing knowledge at the individual and group levels and the link between transactional leadership and managing knowledge at the organizational level (p. 41).

These findings lead one to speculate about the causal relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management. Bryant's research provides some basis from which to speculate that knowledge management behaviors might be a causative factor influencing greater transformational leadership.

METHODS

<u>Subjects</u>

Subjects (N = 845) were selected from a sample of students (and other associated individuals) taking classes in a non-traditional graduate degree program. Over 50% of the subject population was over 30 years of age. There were slightly more females completing the assessment than males. Well over 50% had been employed for over 5 years, and well over 50% were in positions of management (ranging from supervisory to executive level). Finally, over 90% of the sample indicated that they used computer technology more than irregularly, and by far, most used computer technology on a daily basis.

Procedure

The entire instrument battery was administered to subjects following a brief set of instructions. Subjects were asked to grant legal consent and to indicate if they wished for more information following the accumulation of results. Subjects were given ample time to complete the instrument (generally 20 minutes was sufficient). Participants were asked to return the instrument to an instructed location when they completed it. Following administration of the instrument battery data analysis occurred.

Instrumentation

The first instrument utilized in this instrument battery was the Knowledge Management Inventory (KMI). This inventory focused exclusively on the behavioral aspects of knowledge management and the content of the questions was derived from the Barth (2003) typology of personal knowledge management categories. Barth had seven categories of personal knowledge management and four questions from each of the categories were selected for the KMI. Once created, the KMI was administered to a pilot sample (N = 99) for the purposes of establishing reliability estimates (α = .86). Two of the questions were further clarified based on this analysis to improve the instrument. The KMI achieved an alpha reliability of .88 in this sampling.

The second instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Version 5-S) created by Bass (1985), is a 70 item survey consisting of four subscales of transformational leadership acts (charisma, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspiration), two subscales of transactional leadership acts (contingent reward and management by exception), and one scale measuring laissez-faire leadership. Subject's self-reported specific leadership attributes using five point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The MLQ has been found to be very reliable (Howell & Higgins, 1990a) as either a self-report measure or as a measure of a superior's performance. In the present application the MLQ was used as a self-report of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership attributes and had an $\alpha = .89$ reliability score, which was consistent with prior research.

Finally, several questions regarding basic demographics of the sample were deemed important for this investigation. Subjects were asked to report on the following: age, sex, years employed, education, type of career, use of technology.

RESULTS

Table 1 details the descriptive statistics for each of the variables involved in this study.

 Table 1

 Select Descriptive Statistics

| Variable Name | n | Min | Max | Mean |
|---|-----|-----|-----|--------|
| Knowledge Management Inventory | 803 | 73 | 140 | 115.16 |
| Transformational | 726 | 89 | 176 | 135.49 |
| Transformational - Charisma | 762 | 22 | 50 | 36.59 |
| Transformational - Individual | 764 | 24 | 50 | 39.04 |
| Consideration | | | | |
| Transformational – Intellectual Stimulation | 761 | 21 | 50 | 37.34 |
| Transformational – Inspiration | 766 | 14 | 35 | 22.77 |
| Transactional | 734 | 44 | 91 | 64.90 |
| Transactional – Contingent Reward | 749 | 22 | 48 | 34.05 |
| Transactional – Management by Exception | 761 | 16 | 44 | 30.84 |
| Laissez-faire | 767 | 10 | 43 | 22.62 |

The primary goal of this investigation was to assess the relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management behaviors. The research by Bryant (2003) speculated that knowledge management behaviors may influence the overall level of transformational leadership. To determine the extent of the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire factors, several correlations were computed. They are detailed in Table 2.

Table 2

Correlation Coefficients and Significance with Knowledge Management

| Variable Correlated with Knowledge Management | R Coefficient | Significance |
|---|----------------------|--------------|
| Transformational | .462 ** | .000 |
| Transformational - Charisma | .414 ** | .000 |
| Transformational - Individual Consideration | .430 ** | .000 |
| Transformational – Intellectual Stimulation | .453 ** | .000 |
| Transformational – Inspiration | .227 ** | .000 |
| Transactional | 023 | .547 |
| Transactional – Contingent Reward | .153 ** | .000 |
| Transactional – Management by Exception | 175 ** | .000 |
| Laissez-faire | 400 ** | .000 |

** indicates significant

Based on the highly significant correlations, a regression analysis was performed looking at the amount of variance in transformational leadership accounted for by knowledge management behaviors. The results of that analysis indicates that 21% of the variance of transformational leadership was accounted for by knowledge management (F = 186.08; df = 1, 687; p > .0001).

Table 3

Summary of Regression Analysis for Knowledge Management Predicting Transformational Leadership

| Variable | B | SE <i>B</i> | β | t | Prob |
|--------------------------------|------|-------------|------|-------|------|
| Knowledge Management Inventory | .598 | .044 | .462 | 13.64 | .001 |

A regression model looking at the impact of knowledge management on transactional leadership indicated no significant finding (F = .364, ns). Finally, the impact of knowledge management on laissez-faire leadership was explored. The resulting regression model showed that 16% of the variance of laissez-faire leadership was accounted for by knowledge management (F = 138.13; df = 1, 687; p > .0001).

Table 4

Summary of Regression Analysis for Knowledge Management Predicting Laissez-faire Leadership

| Variable | B | SE <i>B</i> | β | t | Prob |
|--------------------------------|-----|-------------|-----|--------|------|
| Knowledge Management Inventory | 195 | .017 | 400 | 11.753 | .001 |

Given the highly significant negative correlation, the relationship is inverse. This indicates that as knowledge management behaviors increase, the level of laissez-faire leadership decreases.

DISCUSSION

Without question, the results of this study provide ample support for the notion that knowledge management and follower-centered leadership are strongly related to each other. Many of the researchers that have theorized about the relationship have lacked empirical data on which to base their ideas, but this study clearly details the link. Researchers like Bryant (2003), Johnson (2002), and Politis (2001) provided the theoretical basis, but without empirical support the relationship was assumed, but unproven.

Among the most specific findings in this research study is the strong relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management behaviors. In an initial investigation of the relationship, a correlation procedure demonstrated the undeniable link. This link led to a further investigation through the use of a regression analysis to establish the validity of a causal relationship. The regression analysis provided strong evidence of the causal nature of the link between the two variables. The strong R squared value associated with the relationship suggests that a substantial amount of variance in transformation leadership can be accounted for by knowledge management skills (21%). This research finding is certainly in parallel with prior research by Crawford (1998, 2000, 2003) that isolated the strong link between transformational leadership and innovation. That set of studies demonstrated that 30.8% of the variance of transformational leadership could be attributed to personal innovativeness. One might reason that innovation, as a personal construct, may be manifest outward through knowledge management behaviors.

Another interesting finding in this present investigation deals with the relationship between transactional leadership and knowledge management. Due to the technical nature of knowledge management, one might reasonably argue that effective managers need only adopt transactional strategies. Transactional strategies tend to be less focused on the personal development of the followers and more centered on goal attainment. However, this study did not find that to be the case. The only significant findings that related transactional leadership to knowledge management were significant correlations between knowledge management and contingent reward, and a significant negative correlation with management by exception. The overall relationship between knowledge management and transactional leadership did not approach any level of significance. Given these interesting and conflicting findings, further investigation into the relationship is warranted.

A final interesting finding emerging from this data surrounds the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and knowledge management. This study found that knowledge management was a strong negative predictor of laissez-faire leadership. This finding, while not surprising, provides further basis for the assumption that knowledge management is more related to active follower-centered leadership. In this model, knowledge management accounted for 16% of the variance of laissez-faire leadership. The correlation was negative, demonstrating an inverse relationship between the two.

Implications for Leadership Educators

The real importance of these findings centers less on the statistical models and much more on how leadership educators use this information to make better experiences for students. This research points to a few inescapable conclusions. First, part of the essence of leadership must be the ability to manage technical knowledge. This finding has been echoed many times, in both theoretical and empirical investigations. Leadership educators would be remiss if they sought to teach the value of follower growth without some focus on the necessity of dealing with the technical aspects of organizational knowledge as Johnson (2002) opined. In every modern organization, the drive to become more knowledge focused is nearly inherent. As organizations have realigned over the last 20 to 30 years to include substantial IT departments, and as more business is conducted in the realm of electronic world, it seems that leaders must not just cope with this change. They must be on the cutting edge of these rapid organizational changes. Leadership educators should be at the forefront in teaching students how to manage knowledge through both technical and human solutions. To avoid the technical is to miss part of our essence.

Second, and seemingly contradictory, leadership educators must remain true to their basic assumption that leadership is more about personal interaction and empowerment, and less about the technical aspects. To lose track of that which separates us from technical training and management would be to lose part of our distinctive character and mission as a field. What must be done is to seek an appropriate balance between understanding the immutable role of knowledge management and technology and the actual teaching of technical skills. Some will seek to take leadership education to a new plateau by implementing knowledge management into the curriculum, by making every student engage in technical exercises for the purpose of making them computer savvy "power users". We must approach this path with caution if we are to retain a focus on followers. Clearly, the educational environment has become much more focused on the use of technology, but in the leadership class there must always be a realization that the technology is secondary to the human interaction that knowledge management skills support.

In our digital world, facing the reality of learning and utilizing knowledge management tools is extremely important. Leaders at all levels must adapt to these changes in order to propel our rapidly evolving organizations to greater successes. This study has demonstrated an empirical link between transformational follower-centered forms of leadership and knowledge management behaviors. This link simply provides basis from which to grow new theories of leadership to help members of the new knowledge organization turn implicit knowledge into significant organizational outcomes.

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DISTANCE LEARNING: EDUCATED CHOICES OR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOISM?

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Abstract

Recently *Chronicle of Higher Education* shared the results of a survey on distance learning. It was found that attitudes toward distance education were more favorable among those faculty members who had taught distance-learning courses. In fact, 72% of this cohort felt positive about distance learning. In addition, 51% of faculty members who had not taught distance classes felt positive about distance learning². However, of those 72% who had tried distance learning, there was a general apprehension about the faculty time commitment and increased workloads encouraged by higher educational institutions.

Other faculty concerns include quality of student learning and the appropriateness of distance learning environments. Many have suggested educational institutions stand to experience financial windfalls from Internet courses but what are the long-term implications for faculty? Is \hat{a} Technoism' $\hat{\wp} \hat{a} \in$ the driving force behind the inundation of technology in educational institutions and will faculty be allowed to make educated choices without fear of reprisal? In the educational realm, Technoism is the word used to describe the condemnation, guilt, and shame one feels when questioning the educational benefits of technology and education. Recommendations for effective and appropriate utilization of Distance Learning will be offered for new faculty.

Distance Learning

Many higher educational institutions encourage development and implementation of on-line courses or distance learning. E. T. Robinson recently warned, âteIn the milieu of technological change, the integration of distance education into any university may not only appear to be the logical next step, but may even suggest the possibility of a financial windfall⁹. According to market researcher, International Data Corporation, about two million students take on-line courses from U.S higher educational institutions and that number is predicted to elevate to five million by the year 2006¹. This research also observed that nearly one half of the 4000 major colleges and universities in the U.S. now offer courses over the Internet or use the Web to enhance college classes. The questions needing to be answered include; what are the long-term implications for faculty, what is the quality of student learning, and are courses offered using appropriate learning environments? Is Technoism the driving force behind the inundation of technology in educational institutions and will faculty be allowed to make educated choices without fear of reprisal? Educational Technoism

In 1999, I coined the term Technoism. Technoism is defined as the suppressed skepticism and blind compliance towards the uncontrolled and rapid inundation of the technology revolution. Technoism is forced conformity and it silences the critics of the chaotic progression of technology in our lives. Because of Technoism, people jump on the bandwagon, fearing condemnation and avoiding the feeling of being ostracized from the techno-savvy. Technoism is not to be confused with techno-phobia and those whom refuse to fall victim to this phenomenon called Technoism are not Luddites. In the educational realm, Technoism is the word used to describe the condemnation, guilt, and shame one feels when questioning the educational benefits of the coupling of education and technology. In higher educational institutions, is Technoism pressuring faculty to jump on board even with reservation? Three overall reasons for faculty concerns on distance education will be discussed and each will be evaluated using Technoism to extract the underlying issues.

Faculty Concerns

Faculty Time Commitment and Increased Workloads

Recently Chronicle of Higher Education shared the results of a survey on distance learning. It was found that attitudes toward distance education were more favorable among those who had taught distance-learning courses. In fact, 72% of this cohort felt positive about distance learning. In addition, 51% of faculty members who had not taught distance classes felt positive about distance learning². However, of those 72% who had tried distance learning, there was a general apprehension about the faculty time commitment and increased workloads encouraged by higher educational institutions. Faculty is not typically paid more for on-line courses and the development and time commitment expected is significantly higher than the time spent in traditional preparation and classroom teaching. In addition, faculty at numerous colleges and universities have expressed concern of forced participation in distance learning development and facilitation of e-courses⁶. Will Technoism allow academic institutions to take the power and control for curriculum decisions from faculty? In fact, in 1996 the American Federation of Teachers released a paper on the use of technology in education encouraging faculty members to seek curbs on the adoption of technology in teaching¹⁰. The Federation also encouraged faculty members to utilize technology in teaching while encouraging opposition to courses taught on the Internet unless it meets faculty members $\hat{a} \in \mathbb{M}$ standards of quality. Most importantly, the paper encouraged the bargaining for employment contracts that protect the jobs of faculty members who choose *not* to use the new technologies. For fear that non-compliance will jeopardize jobs, Technoism silences the faculty who question the overuse of technology in education.

Overall research shows there is meager criticism from faculty members on the inundation of distance learning into higher education. But critics who have spoken out question the increased workloads and lack of increased salary for the extra workload. There is also widespread concern about forced use of new technologies in classrooms and the fate of those who choose the traditional route in education⁶. The few outspoken have also warned about the possible loss of power of curriculum in academe. Without a doubt, distance learning has a place in higher education. However, we must not allow Technoism to silence the critics. Faculty members should be allowed to make educated choices without fear of retribution.

Quality of Student Learning

Another faculty concern focuses on the quality of educational learning provided to students. Recently, faculty at Washington State University objected to an initiative involving courses to be delivered solely on the Internet and via e-mail because it was feared faculty would â€eenable learning without any direct contact with faculty^{11.â€} At the elite Harvard Business School, there is a general belief it would be impossible to replicate its classroom education online¹. Similarly, last year MIT faculty nixed teaching classes online fearing it would detract from the residential experience. MIT does post classroom notes and syllabi, but that is no substitute for actual teaching so faculty arenâ \mathfrak{E}^{M} t worried about the threat to classroom learning¹. Barry Munitz, past Chancellor of the California State University System and current president and chief executive officer of the J. Paul Getty Trust suggests, â & Ironically, the greatest challenge (of the convenience institutions) will be to our most respected institutions, for they are least likely to perceive a threat or to feel any need to challenge their basic assumptions⁷.†Mr. Munitz continued by suggesting Ivy League institutions couple the perception of quality with restricted access to it. He envisioned a world where students could choose between an Ivy League education or a canned convenience program through on-line courses. Mr. Munitz paused to question the quality-price association. Ivy League Schools have indeed taken the high road. But in other cases, Technoism dictates decision-making even when online education produces less than desirable results. Recently Byron Brown, a Michigan State University economics professor, researched how on-line students measured up to classroom students, both taking the same economics course7. His findings, published in the American Economic Review, show that virtual students generally scored significantly lower on examinations than did classroom students. especially when attempting more complex problems⁸. Yes, on-line courses are financially beneficial for educational institutions, but is it providing a proper educational experience for students? As Peter Manicas states in the paper, *Higher* Education on the Brink⁶:

â€æThe traditional university is highly labor intensive and thus costly. Currently, except in the convenience institutions, the use of technologies have tended to supplement, rather than replace older modes and thus have added to costs without much gain. As always, technology has both a light side and a dark side. The dark side is likely to become the one realized. Thus, instead of improved discussion, equality of discussion among all members, collaborative and active learning, the instructor as expert and facilitator, we are getting taped lectures, canned WEB courses, automated correspondence courses, and more generally, a minimizing of high-cost active instruction for low-cost automation.â€ (p.38).

Even K-12 educators have questioned the benefits of technology in the classroom. There is a growing concern that there is too much emphasis on technology in classrooms, that schools are throwing money at it and not getting much in return⁵. "There is no evidence that using computers or the Internet improves learning,†said Alan Warhaftig, coordinator of Learning in the Real World⁵.â€ Technoism seems to be driving K-12 as observed through the following statement by Hank Bromley, professor of education at State University of New York at Buffalo⁵: "Schools, pushing for technology in the classroom, need to ask themselves whether it fits in with some educational vision. Too often, administrators go to the latest technology because of some nebulous sense that they will be left behind if the don't. First they get it and then they try to figure out what to do with it.â€

We must not allow Technoism to flourish and silence those questioning the use of technology in education. Those who question allow for the elimination of ill-advised educational pursuits on the WEB. Some of those ill-advised pursuits are those which challenge the perception of appropriate learning environments.

Appropriate Learning Environments

Controversies over distance learning are not debates between â€eModernizersâ€ and â€eLuddites†but disagreements over the particular situations in which distance learning is appropriate⁶. I recently opened a course catalog of a local higher educational institution and noticed a distance learning course on â&Public Speaking. $\hat{a} \in How$ does one develop appropriate speaking and presentation skills over the Internet? For example, one may be able to learn the control panel of aircraft, but would you fly with a pilot that took the course on-line and had no practical experience? Most likely not. On-line courses certainly offer more flexible delivery. However, one question remains: how effective is the learning experience and what are the long-term implications for the students? Financially profitable for educational institutions; ves. Educationally responsible for students of educational institutions; not always. Margaret Stewart, in the March, 2001 Teaching Professor, shared her experience with distance learning. She stated, $\hat{a} \in \mathbb{R}$ came away from even a positive experience of e-teaching feeling ambivalent. The time may come when disadvantages appear so inevitable that they become invisible as well. That time will certainly come if we do not highlight what we are perceiving now¹¹.â€ Professor Stewart expressed hope that by sharing conflicted feelings, we will share a constructive future for distance learning. As stated previously, the â€æambivalence†seems to live through inappropriate uses of distance learning.

Andy DePaolo, director of Stanford Center for Professional Development commented recently that on-line instruction will never be as good as face-to-face instruction¹. His center does, however, offer some on-line graduate courses in engineering. It is evident that most faculty are open-minded and willing to experiment with e-learning, however, there are reservations for potential abuse of the device allowing financial gains to rule over quality of education. Technoism, silencing those critics, quickens the acceleration of misuse of distance learning. When

Technoism flourishes, courses such as "Public Speaking†will be offered online.

Recommendations for New Faculty

The partnering of education and technology will be part of educatorâ€^Ms professional careers. "Get on board or be left behind,†â€œIt is the future of education,†we are told as we are pushed and prodded towards distance learning adoption and acceptance. These types of admonishments which educators experience routinely are products of Technoism. It isnâ€^Mt that e-learning has no value. As one author stated, "Unless universities reclaim their core purposetaking responsibility for higher education in the sense of higher order knowing, ability to synthesize and integrate the fragmented pieces of the meta-processes at work in society-the megatrends of dehumanization will become world destiny⁴.â€ This author continues by proposing that what is needed is the courage of university leaders and faculty generally to reclaim their potentially powerful and central position of providing value-added knowledge-wisdom-not just bytes of information.

The following recommendations offer guidance to new faculty for the appropriate utilization of distance learning as a learning tool:

- 1. Donâ€^Mt sacrifice substance for style. Although designing on-line courses may keep you in the technological loop and may demonstrate your graphics skills, substance can be lost when designing canned courses. It is possible to design courses on-line as long as the designer does not lose focus of course objectives, which should take precedence over style. Studies have shown that at university level, students feel the use of modern technology only provides an attractive presentation format but does little to enhance the learning.
- 2. There is something isolating with the communicative limitations of electronic interactions. A good rule of thumb when offering an on-line course is to insist on face-to-face meetings periodically during the semester. If distance makes this impossible, allow for video-conferencing or some type of â€ereal-time†communication or direct contact with faculty.

- 3. Donâ€[™]t sacrifice your teaching philosophy because of Technoism. If you must participate in distance education, evaluate your teaching philosophy and determine how you will meet your personal teaching objectives if you teach courses on-line. Evaluate, question, share conflicted feeling with other faculty, and make an educated choice to remain true to your teaching philosophy.
- 4. Lastly, do not use technology for the sake of technology without evaluating the educational usefulness of such said technology. Will the technology enhance the learning experience? Will it facilitate learning of course objectives? Will it provide reasonable return on investment; meaning will the investment prepare students adequately for the future? Does it meet faculty membersâ€^M standards of quality? As we observed through the K-12 example, many administrators only evaluated the efficiency and effectiveness of classroom technology after purchase. At all educational levels, we are shifting from process to outcomes-based learning. If we rely on technology for this challenge, we must evaluate first before investing rather than allowing the Technoism choice, which is to invest first and evaluate later.

Technoism may be the driving force behind the inundation of technology in educational institutions, however, there is no question the Internet is here to stay. Educators need to step back, evaluate technology in our institutions and make educated choices without fear of reprisal or condemnation.

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CHARACTER EDUCATION: A STUDY OF BEHAVIORAL CHANGE AMONG PROGRAM EDUCATORS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine degrees of internalization of character traits across four position groups (teachers, administrators, Extension staff, and community leaders) with varying years of character education professional and program development activities.

An online survey was developed to analyze the description of the respondents (gender, age, position, years of involvement), extent of character education professional and program development activities, degree of internalization and behavioral change of character education, and comparison of character education items by position, age of participants, and years of involvement with character education. It was administered via the World Wide Web, with 135 individuals completing the online survey. The majority were females, with nearly one-half of respondents being employed as teachers.

When looking at the degree of internalization and behavioral change, respondents felt their value systems were affected quite a bit, and their involvement in community activities increased somewhat as a result of character education. Additionally, as a result of integrating character education into teaching curricula, the majority of respondents agreed or strongly agreed to modeling character building behavior.

Post-then-pre data comparisons demonstrated significant levels of change in behaviors, including considering other peoples' feelings and resolving conflict in a peaceful manner. All post-then-pre data demonstrated that respondents at least frequently lived their lives in accordance with the post-then-pre statements.

Teachers worked easier with diverse populations than did Cooperative Extension staff. In addition, individuals involved with character education for a longer period of time worked at modeling character building behavior more than those respondents involved with character education for a lesser period of time. Recommendations for future research included (1) marketing character education professional development opportunities to a broader audience; and (2) increasing ongoing and intensive multicultural training of Cooperative Extension staff.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS OF AN OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION NETWORK (O*NET) CURRICULUM NEEDS ASSESSMENT PERFORMED BY THE FACULTY OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND SUPERVISION DEPARTMENT AT PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

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Executive Summary

In the spring of 2003 the faculty of the Organizational Leadership and Supervision Department at Purdue University began using a cutting edge web based business program to determine what faculty thought a Bachelor's graduate from a leadership program should know and be able to do upon graduation. This paper discusses the process used along with a brief analysis of the findings.

Introduction

The explosive growth of the Internet along with an increasing focus on globalization has escalated three major business problems to critical status: how to build and maintain a descriptive workforce database in an culture that is experiencing rapid skill & knowledge obsolescence; how to find and extract relevant workforce development knowledge from multiple, changing sources; and how to format and present that knowledge so that business, education, and government executives can easily leverage it to shorten problem solving and concept building cycle times. In order to address these issues the United States Department of Labor has developed the Occupational Information Network (O*NET) as an online replacement for the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. This paper introduces the O*NET model in addition to discussing a revolutionary framework for conducting job analysis using O*NET based SkillObjectsTM. Additionally how this technology was used to determine what a B.S. degree holder from Purdue University's Organizational Leadership and Supervision department should know and be able to do is discussed.

Introduction to the Occupational Information Network

The Occupational Information Network (O*NET) is a comprehensive database of worker attributes and job characteristics. As the replacement for the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT), O*NET will be the United States primary source of public occupational information. O*NET is being developed as a timely, easy-to-use resource that supports public and private sector efforts to identify and develop the skills of the American workforce. It provides a common language for defining and describing occupations. In addition, through "O*NET On-Line" (<u>http://online.onetcenter.org/</u>) occupational information is moving into the technological age in a way never seen before (National O*NET Consortium, 2001).

It is expected that the O*NET database will serve as an engine that drives value-added applications designed around its core information. O*NET provides the essential foundation for facilitating career counseling, education, employment, and training activities. The database contains information about knowledge, skills, abilities, interests, general work activities (GWAs), and work context. O*NET data and structure will also link related occupational, educational, and labor market information databases to the system.

Specifically, some newly available and public domain applications include the O*NET Interest Profiler and the O*NET Work Importance Locator. An O*NET Ability Profiler is also expected to be released. The development and release of these applications is an exciting event because it allows educators and business professionals to use the O*NET immediately in their businesses and in classes. Additionally, as the tools have been created under Federal contract they are in the public domain and only require a minimal cost recovery investment for the actual forms with many of the associated manuals being available for downloading free of charge. The following link will take the reader to more information about these tools <u>http://www.onetcenter.org/tools.html#profiler</u>.

O*NET Conceptual Framework

The conceptual foundation of O*NET is called the Content Model (<u>http://www.onetcenter.org/content.html</u>). The Content Model provides a framework for classifying, organizing, and structuring O*NET data and was developed using extensive research from the field of job and organizational analysis. The Content Model, depicted below is organized into six major domains. These are: Worker Characteristics, Worker Requirements, Experience Requirements, Occupation Requirements, Occupational Characteristics, and Occupation-Specific Information (National O*NET Consortium, 2001). The following sections taken from the O*NET Center website briefly describe the information included within each domain. A complete analysis of the content model can be found in the 800 page <u>O*NET Data Dictionary</u> (Government Printing Office, 1998) available online (http://www.access.gpo.gov/o_net/datadict/datadict.pdf).

The Content Model Forming the Foundation of O*NET (National O*NET Consortium, 2001)



Worker Characteristics (enduring traits that influence a person's performance on the job)

Worker Characteristics are enduring characteristics that might influence both performance and the capacities to acquire knowledge and skills required for effective work performance. Worker characteristics comprise enduring qualities of individuals that may influence how they approach tasks and how they acquire work-relevant knowledges and skills. Traditionally, abilities have been the most common technique for comparing jobs in terms of these characteristics.

Worker Requirements (attributes acquired through experience and/or education)

Worker Requirements are a category of descriptors referring to work-related attributes acquired and/or developed through experience and education. Worker requirements represent developed or acquired attributes of an individual that may be related to performance. Knowledge represents the acquisition of facts and principles about a domain of information. Experience lays the foundation for establishing procedures to work with given knowledge. This set of procedures is more commonly known as skills. Skills may be further divided into basic skills (skills, such as reading, that facilitate the acquisition of new knowledge) and cross-functional skills (skills, such as problem solving, that extend across several domains of activities).

Experience Requirements (training and experience needed)

Experience Requirements are requirements related to previous activities; explicitly linked to certain types of work activities. This domain includes information about the typical

experiential backgrounds of workers in an occupation or group of occupations. Certification, licensure, and training data also are identified. For example, information about the professional or organizational certifications required for entry and advancement, preferred education or training, and required apprenticeships are documented by this part of the model.

Occupational Characteristics (labor market-related information)

Occupational Characteristics are variables that define and describe the general characteristics of occupations that may influence occupational requirements. Organizations do not exist in isolation. They must operate within a broader social and economic structure. To be useful, an occupational classification system must incorporate these global contextual characteristics. O*NET provides this information by linking descriptive occupational information to statistical labor market information. This includes compensation and wage data, employment outlook, and industry size information.

Occupational Requirements (actual work performed on the job)

Occupational Requirements are a comprehensive set of variables or detailed elements that describe what various occupations require. This domain includes information about typical activities required across occupations. Task information is often too specific to describe an occupation or occupational group. The O*NET approach is to identify 41 generalized work activities (GWA) or dimensions that summarize the kinds of tasks that may be performed within multiple occupations. Using this framework it is possible to use a single set of descriptors to describe many occupations. Contextual variables (e.g., the physical, social, or structural context of work) that may impose specific demands on the worker or activities are also included in this section.

Occupation-Specific Information

Occupation-Specific Information reflects variables or other Content Model elements in terms of selected or specific occupations. Occupation-specific information details a comprehensive set of elements that apply to a single occupation or a narrowly defined job family. This domain parallels other Content Model domains in that it includes requirements such as knowledge, skills (46 basic and cross functional skill identified), tasks, and machines, tools, and equipment. Similarly, labor market information defined by industry or occupation is also provided here. This domain is particularly important when developing specific applications of O*NET information. For example, to specify training, develop position descriptions, or redesign jobs, it is necessary to refer to occupation-specific descriptive information.

Because of the detailed, well-researched foundation provided by the O*NET taxonomy, many products and processes are being developed to utilize the advantages of the O*NET taxonomy. One such approach is called SkillObject technology. It offers job/task analysis data that is more detailed than almost any available previously, with cycle times that historically have been impossible. The benefit of O*NET based products and processes is that they offer new tools for educators in developing curriculum, training, and education to meet the needs of their constituents. This will be explored in more detail in the following section.

SkillObjects[™]

SkillObjects[™] technology, based on the O*NET taxonomy, transforms workforce information into knowledge by capturing work, worker, and workplace characteristics and their relationships to performance.

The increasing pace of change in the technology sector has escalated three major business problems to critical status:

- how to build and maintain a descriptive workforce database in an culture that is experiencing rapid skill & knowledge obsolescence; and
- how to find and extract relevant workforce development knowledge from multiple, changing sources; and
- how to format and present that knowledge so that business, education, and government executives can easily leverage it to shorten problem solving and concept building cycle times.

Business development, trainers, educators, and career placement professionals generally have antiquated diagnostic tools that are ineffective for New Economy jobs. SkillObject[™] Technology incorporates "best-in-class" advances in occupational science and is a contemporary solution to managing workforce investments.

Current Approaches

Organizations today are inundated by skill and knowledge system providers offering work or worker descriptors claiming to meet management needs, however, none addresses the work at the level required to provide management everything they need. Most applications are designed to provide management a "snapshot" of workforce development needs using job titles or job classifications. Most of the job titles are too broad, are rapidly becoming obsolete or have been completely eliminated. Job titles that survive have different meanings to different organizations. A systems analyst has one meaning to an electrical company and a different meaning to a consumer products company. So, even if current approaches are successful, the analysis does not provide management the adequate knowledge to make an informed decision.

In fact, traditional approaches may actually impede critical workforce development activities because recommendations are too general and not contextualized to the organization's culture. While some offer extensive workforce development analysis, current approaches are costly, time-intensive, and cannot keep pace with current organizational growth and change.

Revolution in Job / Task Analysis

SkillObjects[™] provides the next paradigm in understanding work by using an Internet-based job/task analysis process eliminating the need to have workers travel, thereby minimizing cost associated with lost time from work and travel. SkillObjects[™] technology has embedded O*NET common language descriptors for Skills & Abilities and provides a valid framework to define unique tasks, tools, and knowledge requirements to perform Critical Work Functions (CWF's). Unlike job titles or classifications CWF's can be standardized to represent work for one or more job titles. The New Economy worker must be cross-trained to meet performance demands, and interventions or training events pointed to CWF's are more efficient and measurable. Knowledge of the appropriate CWF's and SkillObjects[™] required to perform work, regardless of the job title, allows management to leverage performance capacity.

Harnessing SkillObjects[™] data linked to CWF's provides management with valuable knowledge and insight to workforce development needs. The SkillObjects[™] database can be used to improve training & development content, performance measurement tools, and job recruitment and placement systems.

SkillObject "DNA" Architecture generalized level - civif, competency, duties, etc. 1 Intervention targets critical work functions 2 observable be kaulor level - tasks clusters 3 capacity level - rated KSA's KSA KŜA KSA processi leuel – daity regulirem ents Unique Knowledge Unique Knowledge tools tools performance or fiertal peritorm ance or the ria

A Technology Breakthrough

SkillObjects[™] technology is a product of 10 years of research & development. The research challenge was to reinvent a highly technical craft linking mostly industrial psychologist to a smart application enabling the teacher, trainer, marketing manager and others to perform a Job/Task analysis while maintaining stringent industry guidelines. General Electric, Thomas & Betts, AT&T, Graybar Electric, and other notable corporations joined, George Mason University, Georgia Tech, University of Nebraska, and the US Department of Defense to assist SkillsNET's effort to reinvent the process.

The Process

Using workers that perform the work is central to the SkillObjects[™] process. It has been learned that if a worker is asked, "what do you do", the worker will often rely upon his or her memory of recent tasks and is unable to provide a comprehensive description of critical tasks and duties performed. To help the worker the SkillObjects[™] process uses an intelligent queuing technique that challenges the worker to think critically about their work. This is accomplished by using a series of well-designed templates that begin the process by focusing on the O*NET Generalized Work Activities. The templates begin with broad descriptions of work and continue until the worker has developed a comprehensive list of tasks, tools, knowledges, skills, and abilities, all of which are evaluated and surveyed by other workers and placed in the SkillObjects[™] database.

SkillObjects and Curriculum Development

The implementation of SkillObjects[™] technology generates quantum leaps in workforce productivity and innovation among business, education and state leaders and enables a paradigm shift in organizations that supports the creation of an e-Skills Community Portal. The e-Skills Community Portal provides a level playing field to all corporations and their education and training providers. The SkillObjects[™] database contains descriptors for hundreds of occupations and can be customized to meet specific workforce development training needs.

The modular structure of the SkillObject (see Appendix), with its cluster of interrelated tasks, the tools/software/devices required to perform the tasks, the unique knowledge required to perform the tasks, the skills and abilities required to perform the tasks, as well as the normative data for each task, tool, unique knowledge, skill and ability provides all of the information required to develop curriculum for

education and training courses. Additionally, because of SkillObjects' modular structure, it is very easy to develop a modularized curriculum approach that works very well in traditional delivery approaches or equally well in web-based delivery approaches.

Because of the detailed data provided by the SkillObjects, it is very simple to develop a modularized curriculum to prepare people to enter the occupation, or to provide targeted learning interventions for current employees. In the state of Texas, a statewide group of telecommunications companies worked jointly to develop the standards for Telecommunications Maintenance Technicians. Based on the data collected during the project, a statewide core curriculum was developed. This curriculum is offered at community colleges, technical schools, and universities across the state.

Additionally, SkillObject technology has been utilized to determine work activities performed by people worldwide who have CISCO certifications. This effort served two purposes: 1) to validate the content of existing curricula for the CCNA, CCNP, CCDA, and CCDP certifications; and 2) to determine the work-based activities of IT professionals who hold the certifications, which are not supported by the certification curricula. This has allowed CISCO to develop additional curricula for new certifications and specializations. In the fall of 2002 the faculty of the Organizational Leadership and Supervision (OLS) Department utilized the SkillObject technology system to identify the tasks they felt were part of the skills set needed by B.S. graduates. The following sections detail the specifics regarding the OLS department's use of the system and the initial results of its findings.

OLS Process

As discussed previously the OLS faculty followed the principal steps of the SkillObject job analysis process. Each faculty member was provided a web site logon and password and was asked to access the system at a time of convenience. Each faculty member was asked to begin the process by selecting no more than 6 generalized work activities with 3 as a suggested amount. This process is in slight contrast to an industrial setting where a fewer number of subject matter experts would be used and where they would be asked to complete 6-12 GWAs each. Using the guided menus and options each faculty member proceeded to construct task statements that represented what they felt a graduate should know and do. An interesting note is that most faculty seem to choose GWAs that represented their area of specialty. The result of this part of the project resulted in 29 of 41 GWAs being included and over 600 task statements being generated. The process also delivered a list of tools and unique knowledge that faculty indicated were important.

Within the initial list of 600 tasks many duplicated statements seemed to exist, typical of the SkillObject process. To address this issue the faculty nominated a sub committee to perform the next step of the process which is task editing. The sub committee made it a key point not to evaluate the merits of colleagues contributions but simply to reduce redundant statements. The product of the consolidation was a more manageable list of 169 tasks which are discussed next.

Identified GWAs

Of the 41 GWAs included in the O*NET frame work 29 were identified as important to the needs of a OLS leadership students. The 29 identified GWAs are:

- Analyzing Data or Information
- Assisting and Caring for Others
- Coaching and Developing Others
- Communicating with Persons Outside the Organization
- Communicating with Supervisors, Peers, or Subordinates
- Controlling Machines and Processes

- Coordinating the Work and Activities of Others
- Developing and Building Teams
- Documenting/Recording Information
- Establishing and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships
- Getting Information
- Guiding, Directing, and Motivating Subordinates

- Implementing Ideas, Programs, Systems, or Products
- Inspecting Equipment, Structures, or Materials
- Interpreting the Meaning of Information for Others
- Judging the Qualities of Objects, Services, or Persons
- Making Decisions and Solving Problems
- Monitoring and Controlling Resources
- Monitoring Processes, Materials, or Surroundings

- Organizing, Planning, and Prioritizing Work
- Performing Administrative Activities
- Processing Information
- Providing Consultation and Advice to Others
- Resolving Conflicts and Negotiating with Others
- Scheduling Work and Activities
- Staffing Organizational Units
- Thinking Creatively
- Training and Teaching Others
- Working with Computers.

All identified GWAs have been included in the list above but not all GWAs were represented equally by the number of tasks associated with them. Considering the number of tasks as a key variable in determining importance the top five GWAs were **Guiding**, **Directing**, **and Motivating Subordinates**, **Training and Teaching Others**, **Coaching and Developing Others**, **Organizing**, **Planning**, **and Prioritizing Work** and **Developing and Building Teams**. To assist the reader in gaining a complete understanding of the identified GWAs and tasks Appendix B includes a complete list.

Next Steps

The next step in the SkillObject process is to conduct a validation study of the identified tasks. Using web based surveys each of the task statements can be presented to multiple audiences (faculty as a whole, employers, students, program alumni, etc.). Typically each survey participant is asked to rate the importance of the task and when the task is needed in order to perform successfully on the job. Using this approach the validated tasks can be quantitatively ranked as to how important they are to require in a curriculum given that hard decisions must often be made regarding curriculum scope. At this time the faculty of the Purdue OLS program have decided to not use the software based validation process and they are engaging in a traditional review of the identified tasks against the existing curriculum.

References

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APPENDIX A

Sample SkillObject[™]

SkillsNET SkillObject[™] Sample



Occupation: Secretary Job Family: Business Administrative Support Occupations Economic Sector: Business, Finance, and Management Source: ABC Corporation, Dallas, Texas



SkillsNET Corporation

310 West Jefferson Waxahachie, Texas 75165 Internet: www.skillsnetcorp.com

SkillObjectTM Metadata Summary

| SkillObject TM Name: | Writing Reports/Information |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| SkillObject [™] ID Number: | 01384 |
| Economic Sector: | Business, Finance, and Management |
| Job Family: | Business Administrative Support Occupations |
| Job Title: | Secretary |
| Coverage (National, State, Regional): | State |
| Source: | XYZ Corporation |
| Source Location: | Dallas, Texas |

Elements Included:

| Tasks: | Х |
|---|------------------|
| Tools/Software/Equipment: | Х |
| Unique Knowledges: | Х |
| O*NET Skills: | Х |
| O*NET Abilities: | Х |
| Performance Criteria: | |
| | |
| Normative Data: | |
| Normative Data: Tasks: | X |
| Normative Data: Tasks: Tools/Software/Equipment: | X X |
| Normative Data: Tasks: Tools/Software/Equipment: Unique Knowledges: | X X X |
| Normative Data: Tasks: Tools/Software/Equipment: Unique Knowledges: O*NET Skills: | X X X X |

| Date Created: | 07/01/1999 |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Date Last Updated: | |
| Expiration Date: | |
| Critical Work Function: | Documentation Development |
| | Intra-Office Communications |

| Known Learning Objects: | Not Applicable | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Skills Compliance Officer: | Dr. Darrel Sandall | | |
| Skills Analyst: | Elizabeth Worth | | |

SkillObjectTM Sample

| <i>SO ID</i> 01384 | <i>SkillObjectTM Name</i> Writing Reports/Information |
|-----------------------|--|
| Task ID 15 | Task StatementCommunicate instructions for operation or repair of equipment to others.Primary O*NET Skill: WritingPrimary O*NET Ability: Information Ordering |
| 87 | Communicate work progress and tool/equipment problems to others. Primary O*NET Skill: Writing Primary O*NET Ability: Problem Sensitivity |
| 64 | Enter detailed information of procedure on computer. <i>Primary O*NET Skill: Writing</i> <i>Primary O*NET Ability: Wrist-Finger Speed</i> |
| 147 | Prepare reports on job procedures for future reference. Primary O*NET Skill: Writing Primary O*NET Ability: Information Ordering |
| 125 | Update equipment manuals with any details or new information that is not already included in the manual. <i>Primary O*NET Skill: Writing</i> <i>Primary O*NET Ability: Information Ordering</i> |

ID Tools/Software/Equipment

- 1 Computerized maintenance management system (e.g. MIMS)
- 3 Inventory status books
- 4 Log books

ID Unique Knowledge

- 3 Equipment and maintenance manual layouts
- 4 Departmental filing procedures
- 10 OSHA safe job procedures

Survey Normative Ratings

Task Ratings:

| Task ID | Frequency* | Criticality* | When Needed* | Diff. to Learn* |
|---------|------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| 15 | 3.55 | 3.21 | 1.89 | 2.71 |
| 87 | 3.74 | 3.09 | 1.53 | 2.87 |
| 64 | 2.25 | 2.56 | 2.78 | 3.22 |
| 147 | 1.76 | 3.13 | 2.95 | 3.62 |
| 125 | 1.35 | 2.65 | 3.20 | 3.31 |

Tool/Software/Equipment Ratings:

| Tool ID | Frequency* | Criticality* | When Needed* | Diff. to Learn* |
|---------|------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| 1 | 4.22 | 4.26 | 1.45 | 2.15 |
| 3 | 2.53 | 2.80 | 1.57 | 1.93 |
| 4 | 2.78 | 2.30 | 1.48 | 1.43 |

Unique Knowledge Ratings:

| Knowledge ID | Frequency* | Criticality* | When Needed* | Diff. to Learn* |
|--------------|------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| 3 | 2.50 | 2.79 | 1.59 | 2.78 |
| 4 | 2.31 | 2.29 | 1.64 | 1.96 |
| 10 | 4.25 | 4.29 | 1.51 | 3.09 |

| Skill Ratings: | | Normative Level (1-5 scale)* | |
|----------------|---------|------------------------------|--|
| 3 | Writing | 3.34 | |

| Ability Ratings: | | Normative Level (1-5 scale) | |
|------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| 10 | Information Ordering | 2.76 | |
| 7 | Problem Sensitivity | 2.18 | |
| 30 | Wrist-Finger Speed | 3.04 | |

* See the Survey Rating Key on the next page

Survey Normative Rating Scale Keys

| Frequency | Criticality | When Needed | Difficulty to Learn |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| How frequently do you | How serious are the | When is the task | How long is required |
| perform the task? | consequences of poor task | needed? | to learn how to |
| | performance? | | properly perform the |
| | | | task? |
| 0=Does not apply | 0= Does not apply | 0=Does Not Apply | 0=Does Not Apply |
| 1=More than once per | 1= No serious consequences | 1=Job Entry | 1=One day |
| year | 2= Least serious | 2=0 to 3 months | 2=One week |
| 2=More than once per | consequences | 3=3 to 6 months | 3=One month |
| month | 3= Moderately serious | 4=6 to 12 months | 4=Six months |
| 3=More than once per | consequences | 5=1 to 2 years | 5=Greater than 6 |
| week | 4= Serious consequences | | months |
| 4=Daily | 5= Most serious | | |
| 5=Several times per day | consequences | | |

Survey Key for Tasks

Survey Key for Tools/Software/Equipment

| Frequency | Criticality | When Needed | Difficulty to Learn |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| How often is this tool | How critical is proper use of | When is the ability | How long is required |
| utilized in your job? | this tool in the performance | to use this tool | to learn how to |
| | of your job? | required in your job? | properly use this |
| | | | tool? |
| 0=Does not apply | 0= Does Not Apply | 0=Does Not Apply | 0=Does Not Apply |
| 1=More than once per | 1= Not Critical | 1=Job Entry | 1=One day |
| year | 2= Somewhat Critical | 2=0 to 3 months | 2=One week |
| 2=More than once per | 3= Critical | 3=3 to 6 months | 3=One month |
| month | 4= Very Critical | 4=6 to 12 months | 4=Six months |
| 3=More than once per | 5= Extremely Critical | 5=1 to 2 years | 5=Greater than 6 |
| week | | | months |
| 4=Daily | | | |
| 5=Several times per day | | | |

Survey Key for Unique Knowledges

| Frequency | Criticality | When Needed | Difficulty to Learn |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| How often is this | How critical is this | When is this | How long is required |
| knowledge utilized in | knowledge to the | knowledge required | to learn this |
| your job? | performance of your job? | in your job? | knowledge? |
| 0=Does not apply | 0= Does Not Apply | 0=Does Not Apply | 0=Does Not Apply |
| 1=More than once per | 1= Not Critical | 1=Job Entry | 1=One day |
| year | 2= Somewhat Critical | 2=0 to 3 months | 2=One week |
| 2=More than once per | 3= Critical | 3=3 to 6 months | 3=One month |

| month | 4= Very Critical | 4=6 to 12 months | 4=Six months |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 3=More than once per | 5= Extremely Critical | 5=1 to 2 years | 5=Greater than 6 |
| week | | | months |
| 4=Daily | | | |
| 5=Several times per day | | | |

Survey Key for Skill: Writing



APPENDIX B

Purdue OLS Task List

OLS B.S. - Tasks, Unique Knowledge, Tools Consolidated List (DRAFT FOR DISCUSSION ONLY) March 2003

The following should answer the question – What should a <u>B.S.</u> graduate in OLS know and be able to do?

TASKS

Analyzing Data or Information

- 1. Analyze alternative Options to solve problems
- 2. Analyze budget Figures for proper utilization of funds
- 3. Analyze charts, work orders, or production schedules to determine production requirements
- 4. Analyze organizational Problems
- 5. Analyze process Data for process improvement
- 6. Analyze statistical Data for process control
- 7. Analyze work related Problems so that the root cause is established

Assisting and Caring for Others

- 8. Aid organizational Co-workers to complete their tasks successfully while contributing to organizational goals
- 9. Help internal and external Clients to understand problems and solutions
- 10. Help organizational Co-workers understand and achieve requested tasks
- 11. Notify internal and external Customers of issues, challenges, solutions, progress
- 12. Notify organizational Co-workers of their impact on task performance and goal achievement

Coaching and Developing Others

- 13. Coach work Teams to be more effective
- 14. Contact team Members when information needs to be distributed
- 15. Create win-win Agreements when problems arise
- 16. Direct the activities of employees engaged in production or processing of goods
- 17. Guide and facilitate Teams to accomplish expected results
- 18. Guide Subordinates toward organizational goals
- 19. Handle Disagreements creatively and effectively
- 20. Help empower People to do their best work
- 21. Implement measures to motivate employees and improve production methods, equipment performance, product quality, or efficiency
- 22. Provide constructive Feedback when performance is unsatisfactory
- 23. Provide Groups whatever knowledge or assistance they may need
- 24. Report performance Results regularly
- 25. Share current and new Knowledge in the areas of leadership and interpersonal skills
- 26. Solve work related Problems so that they are not repeated

Communicating with Persons Outside the Organization

- 27. Discuss Options with clients
- 28. Present Data at meetings for evaluation
- 29. Provide appropriate Information as required

Communicating with Supervisors, Peers, or Subordinates

30. Communicate appropriate Information to all stakeholders
- 31. Communicate job specific Information to subordinates, peers, and management.
- 32. Communicate work related Problems to subordinates so that behavior or process modification can take place
- 33. Prepare various Presentations to employees, superiors, and customers
- 34. Write administrative and job specific Messages for subordinates, customers, and management.
- 35. Write Instructions for informing and compliance
- 36. Write technical and informational Procedures concerning processes such as procedures or equipment operations.

Controlling Machines and Processes

- 37. Prepare process Procedures as required
- 38. Sets up machines and equipment

Coordinating the Work and Activities of Others

- 39. Coordinate Activities to achieve objectives
- 40. Coordinate all Meetings to accomplish organizational goals
- 41. Coordinate Meetings for efficiency of info transfer
- 42. Coordinate production Schedules for smooth work flow
- 43. Coordinate Subordinates for empowering and building interpersonal relationships
- 44. Coordinate task and process Activities to meet org objectives

Developing and Building Teams

- 45. Counsel Teams for development purposes
- 46. Develop attainable Goals to enhance the motivation of subordinates
- 47. Develop interpersonal Abilities
- 48. Develop leadership Abilities
- 49. Develop meaningful Relationships and responsibility toward understanding leadership
- 50. Develop People and team skills
- 51. Develop Professional and personal Skills needed for job and growth.
- 52. Develop team Members skills for optimum performance
- 53. Develop work Teams to achieve successful ends in a cooperative manner
- 54. Develop work-related Skills for desired output

Documenting/Recording Information

- 55. Enter work related Information into database so that historical information can be easily retrieved
- 56. File work related Documents for easy access and use at a later date
- 57. Gather work related Information for use at a later date
- 58. Record work related Events so that proper disciplinary action can be taken
- 59. Write work related Procedures to ensure that activities are consistence throughout a given area

Establishing and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships

60. Develop, Establish, and Maintain Relationships with internal and external customers

Getting Information

- 61. Examine process Information for importance and relativeness
- 62. Exchange Information regularly
- 63. Listen to Ideas from all people

Guiding, Directing, and Motivating Subordinates

- 64. Confer with management or subordinates to resolve worker problems, complaints, or grievances
- 65. Define expected Results
- 66. Discipline Subordinates
- 67. Enforce safety or sanitation regulations
- 68. Evaluate all appropriate Options
- 69. Evaluate and identify all relevant Information needed to the solve the problem
- 70. Evaluate Processes through system assessment

- 71. Evaluate Programs for their effectiveness and efficiency
- 72. Evaluate task and process Information for use in the decision process
- 73. Evaluate Work outcomes to performance goals
- 74. List work Activities so that they are easily understood and accessible
- 75. Maintain focus on Ideas
- 76. Manage Time efficiently and effectively
- 77. Manage work Teams for task completion and in working together.
- 78. Negotiate Agreements between parties when problems arise
- 79. Provide positive Feedback for a job well done
- 80. Provide relevant Information to subordinates so that they are always informed of what is going on in the comp
- 81. Recommend measures to motivate employees and improve production methods, equipment performance, product quality, or efficiency

Implementing Ideas, Programs, Systems, or Products

82. Understand Systems thinking

Inspecting Equipment, Structures, or Materials

83. Inspect materials, products, or equipment to detect defects or malfunctions

Interpreting the Meaning of Information for Others

- 84. Discuss Ideas before making decisions
- 85. Interpret Information of all kinds

Judging the Qualities of Objects, Services, or Persons

- 86. Appraise People in the immediate and extended workplace
- 87. Assess current Employees to determine job performance
- 88. Assess job applicant Candidates in order to determine organizational fit

Making Decisions and Solving Problems

- 89. Choose among Options that have been evaluated based on established criteria
- 90. Choose Methods most appropriate to the situation
- 91. Examine Decisions for improvement
- 92. Examine Outcomes for evaluation and future review
- 93. Identify Strategies to accomplish organizational and departmental goals
- 94. Prioritize work Activities so that subordinates understand importance of each
- 95. Schedule Activities to best utilize resources
- 96. Solve task and process Problems to enhance productivity and competitiveness

Monitoring and Controlling Resources

- 97. Examine cost Options by seeking quality and low cost suppliers
- 98. Manage Spending without compromising quality
- 99. Monitor divisional Records seeking trends in costs
- 100. Requisition materials, supplies, equipment parts, or repair services

Monitoring Processes, Materials, or Surroundings

- 101. Adjust machines and equipment
- 102. Determine standards, production and rates based on company policy, equipment and labor availability, and workload
- 103. Formulate and monitor Plans to achieve goals
- 104. Maintain operations data, such as time, production, and cost records and prepares management reports
- 105. Monitor achievement of Standards
- 106. Monitor gauges, dials, and other indicators to ensure operators conform to production or processing standards
- 107. Monitor Performance of Groups and individuals to maximize efficiency
- 108. Review Processes for deviation and opportunity

Organizing, Planning, and Prioritizing Work

- 109. Arrange work Activities
- 110. Assign Tasks to subordinates
- 111. Calculate labor and equipment requirements and production specifications, using standard formulas
- 112. Organize Activities of all employees and involved participants
- 113. Organize individuals and group Members for maximum productivity
- 114. Organize production Tasks to best suit subordinate skills
- 115. Organize project and process Teams
- 116. Organize Schedules to meet needs of all parties
- 117. Organize Subordinates into teams
- 118. Organize team Activities so that priority levels and responsibilities are clearly defined
- 119. Organize Teams to achieve org objectives
- 120. Organize timelines and key steps required to complete Projects

Performing Administrative Activities

- 121. Document legal and performance based Records
- 122. Document Performance for purposes of maintaining quality
- 123. Review Performance formally and informally
- 124. Submit Reports as requested and as needed

Processing Information

- 125. Report appropriate Information as required
- 126. Review operations and accounting records or reports to determine the feasibility of production estimates and evaluate current production
- 127. Summarize Information to help others understand
- 128. Update Records as needed
- 129. Verify Information before passing along or taking action

Providing Consultation and Advice to Others

- 130. Advise Customers about products and services
- 131. Advise Groups when needed
- 132. Advise relevant Suppliers so that problems can be easily understood and resolved

Resolving Conflicts and Negotiating with Others

- 133. Facilitate the resolution of work-related Conflicts
- 134. Mediate Disputes among subordinates

Scheduling Work and Activities

- 135. Establish work schedules, assignments, and production sequences, to meet production goals
- 136. Formulate appropriate Strategies for the year's assignments
- 137. Prioritize departmental and organizational Goals to accomplish objectives
- 138. Report work-related Data up and down chain of command
- 139. Retrieve historical Data to track process or product improvement
- 140. Set performance Goals to be achieved

Staffing Organizational Units

141. Select Candidates who are most qualified for the job

Thinking Creatively

- 142. Create New Processes for continuous improvement
- 143. Design improved Procedures to increase work flow
- 144. Initiate process improvement Ideas of employees when feasible

Training and Teaching Others

145. Demonstrate equipment operations or work procedures to new employees or assigns employees to experienced workers for training

- 146. Demonstrate necessary Skills to complete tasks successfully
- 147. Design Classes to meet needs of trainees
- 148. Design experiential exercise Tasks knowledge for the student to proceed to the next level of expertise
- 149. Design Programs to address trainee needs
- 150. Design teaching Materials for classes assigned
- 151. Develop applied Skills to apply to distinguish and identify to discriminate
- 152. Diagnose subordinate Needs to increase performance
- 153. Direct Subordinates to be successful in work performance
- 154. Discuss relevant customer Complaints so that improvement efforts can be quickly implemented
- 155. Instruct Groups
- 156. Prescribe training and development Programs for continuous employee progress
- 157. Provide Subordinates whatever knowledge or assistance they may need
- 158. Provide work-related Skills to increase productivity
- 159. Teach training Classes to assist job performance using online and traditional training methods
- 160. Type employee performance Reports for ease of documentation and distribution

Working with Computers

- 161. Enter technical work related Data so that it can be analyzed and viewed in different formats at a later date
- 162. Open work related computer Programs which help in making everyday job activities more efficient
- 163. Retrieve employee Records for clarification or historical information
- 164. Search computer Files for relevant information
- 165. Search work related Data bases for company information
- 166. Type departmental performance Reports so that they can be documented and distributed easily
- 167. Update field Information for current application to work

Unique Knowledge

- 1. Know how to develop employees for current and future jobs.
- 2. Knowledge on how to motivate and encourage employees and co-workers.
- 3. machine limits
- 4. Instructional Design Methodology
- 5. Project Management Methodology
- 6. HTML Programming Web Page Creation
- 7. Training Technology
- 8. Distance Education Technology
- 9. Compensation Planning
- 10. Benefits Planning
- 11. Curriculum Development
- 12. Coaching
- 13. Employee Development
- 14. Career Planning
- 15. Presentation Skills
- 16. Technical Writing
- 17. Drafting and Mechanical Drawing
- 18. Computer Application
- 19. Employee Motivation
- 20. Leadership Theory
- 21. Human Resource Development
- 22. Industrial Organizational Psychology
- 23. Industrial / Production Operations
- 24. Occupational Safety and Health
- 25. Industrial Facility Design

Tools

- 1. Accounting software
- 2. Automobile
- 3. Calculator
- 4. Calendar
- 5. Calendaring/Scheduling software
- 6. Cellular phone
- Charts/graphs/blueprints
 Computer
- 9. Database software
- 10. Desktop Publishing software
- 11. E-mail
- 12. Fax
- 13. Internet Access
- 14. LCD Projector
- 15. Network software
- 16. Overhead projector
- 17. Personal Digital Assistant (PDA)
- 18. Personal Information Management software
- 19. Photocopier
- 20. Printer (laser, dot matrix, or inkjet)
- 21. Project management software
- 22. Spreadsheet software
- 23. Teleconference equipment
- 24. Telephone
- 25. Television/VCR
- 26. Video Communication
- 27. Voice recognition input devices
- 28. Voicemail/Telephone answering machine
- 29. Word processing software
- 30. Digital video editing hardware and software

AN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS USED BY STUDENTS AT PURDUE UNIVERSITY TO SELECT A SERVANT LEADER OR PRIMUS INTER PARES FROM AMONG GROUP MEMBERS.

Prepared for presentation at the Association of Leadership Educators Conference

July 2003, Anchorage, Alaska

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Abstract

In the Spring of 2003, students in the class titled Applied Leadership participated in a leadership development activity that helps students explore the concepts and principles of Servant leadership. In addition to helping students explore servant leadership concepts the exercise addressed the call by FRH to conduct discovery activities to validate a growing literature base on servant leadership. This paper outlines the student activity and discusses preliminary findings of the discovery activity.

An analysis of factors used by students at Purdue University to select a Servant Leader or Primus Inter Pares from among group members

In their paper, "Servant Leadership: Setting the Stage for Empirical Research" Myra L. Farling, Gregory Stone, and Bruce Winston (1999) explore in detail the literature on servant leadership and they advance a five variable model for servant leadership that includes 1. Vision (Bennis, 1997; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Greenleaf, 1977, 1996) 2. Influence (Bass, 1990; Festinger, 1954) 3. Credibility (Bass, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1993) 4. Trust (Gaston, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes and Posner, 1993) and 5. Service (Akuchie, 1993; Gaston, 1987, Greenleaf, 1977; Snodgrass, 1993). The authors explore Servant Leadership theory in detail but they leave the reader with a dilemma in that they close their paper with the challenge "There exists a need to establish empirical support for the root sources of the values that servant leaders possess. Consequently, the authors encourage other researchers to join in the empirical studies required to advance this stream of literature to its next phase of maturation (Farling, Stone, Winston, 1999)."

According to Robert Greenleaf's (1977) foundational text on Servant Leadership natural servant leaders are persons who understand they are servants first. Consequently, they are more likely to define and strive to meet the "highest priority needs" of others, "than is the person who is leader first and who later serves out of the prompting of conscience or in conformity with normative expectations" (p. 14). Additionally, Greenleaf (1977) goes on to say "the servant leader is servant first ... It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead ... The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant -- first to make sure that other people's highest -- priority needs are being served. The best test, and the most difficult to administer, is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit or, at least, not be further deprived (pp. 13-14)?" A key principle developed by Greenleaf is that a servant leader is the first among equals (Primus Inter Pares) and ultimately sees him or herself in that role.

In the Spring of 2003 an activity in the Applied Leadership course of Dr. Homan at Purdue University was conducted to allow students to explore the basic concepts of Servant Leadership and the variables proposed by Farling, Stone, and Winston. The context of the class activity centered around students selecting a Primus Inter Pares (Primus) from among group members.

Over an eight week period 63 groups (approximately 10 students per group) were required to review and prepare a 20-30 min classroom presentation regarding an assigned

Harvard case study and in the same group prepare a group written analysis paper of another assigned case (Disneyland Paris). At four points during the last 5 weeks of the semester students were required to vote fellow group members out of contention for final Primus. The final Primus had the special duty of assigning the groups accumulated bonus points to individual group members in any way they decided was appropriate including self hoarding. Since the activity is designed to reinforce the first among equals principle the group had the final vote to accept or reject the Primus' plan. If the group vetoed the Primus' plan all points were lost to the group.

In order to apply the Farling, Stone, and Winston model each group member was allowed to indicate using a 10 point scale how they felt about the person they most wanted to vote out of contention for Primus in the areas of visioning, credibility, trust, and service. The expectation of the activity was that as the pool of candidates for ultimate Primus shrunk the qualities of those remaining would more likely reflect the model of Servant Leadership as proposed by Farling, Stone, and Winston.

Visioning

In regards to the variable of visioning the students indicated that on average group members voted out of contention for Primus early in the term demonstrated the quality of visioning less than those selected later in the term. It can also be seen in the chart below that the distribution was greater in the early stages of the voting but toward the end of term aligned more to the higher end of the scale.



Results - Visioning

Credible

In regards to the variable of credibility the students indicated that on average group members voted out of contention for Primus early in the term demonstrated the quality of being credible less than those selected later in the term. It can also be seen that the distribution was greater in the early stages of the voting but toward the end aligned more to the higher end of the scale.

Results - Credible

| Descriptive Statistics | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|--|--|--|
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | | | |
| Credible | 365 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 4.8055 | 2.62866 | | | |
| Credible2 | 343 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 5.8921 | 2.63413 | | | |
| credible3 | 332 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 6.5964 | 2.48252 | | | |
| credible4 | 345 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 7.6551 | 2.38695 | | | |
| Valid N (listwise) | 331 | | | | | | | |



Trust

In regards to the variable of Trust the students indicated that those voted out of contention for Primus early in the term demonstrated the quality of being trustworthy less than those selected later in the term. As seen in previous variables the distribution was greater in the early stages of the voting but toward the end aligned more to the higher end of the scale.

Results - Trust

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Trust | 365 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 4.8904 | 2.79108 |
| Trust2 | 344 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 5.9622 | 2.69029 |
| trust3 | 332 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 6.6476 | 2.51987 |
| trust4 | 345 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 7.5913 | 2.47979 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 332 | | | | |

Descriptive Statistics



Service

In regards to the variable of Service students indicated that on average those voted out of contention for Primus early in the term demonstrated the quality of a service orientation less than those selected later in the term. Consistent with the previous variables the distribution was greater in the early stages of the voting but toward the end aligned more to the higher end of the scale.

Results - Service

| | | - | | | |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| | Ν | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Service | 364 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 4.5687 | 2.72590 |
| Service2 | 344 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 5.7384 | 2.73219 |
| service3 | 332 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 6.5452 | 2.57593 |
| service4 | 345 | 1.00 | 10.00 | 7.7159 | 2.42214 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 331 | | | | |

Descriptive Statistics



Conclusion

The overwhelming evidence indicates support for the model proposed by Farling, Stone, and Winston (1999). The variables visioning, credibility, trust, and service all showed growth in the average ratings assigned to those being voted out of contention as the quality of the candidate pool was thinned and the final Primus or servant leader was closer to being chosen. This study is a positive step toward developing empirical support for the Farling, Stone, and Winston model but due to the limitation put on this activity as a class project vs. a formal research study additional effort is needed.

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LEADERSHIP EDUCATION RESEARCH: DO METHODS MATTER?

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Abstract

Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of an agricultural leadership program on rural community development beyond self-report survey data typically collected for program evaluation. Participants in the study were graduates of the program from 1982 to 2002 (*N*=290). Quantitative and qualitative research methods were used. Each participant was asked to complete a then-post survey that addressed areas of knowledge related to rural community development, if participants were acting as change agents, knowledge of community needs, and leadership role in community improvement. Paired samples t-test and Chi-Squared tests were used to describe the data. Additionally, extreme case sampling was used to identify eight participants for face-to-face interviews.

Findings and Conclusions: In spite of quantitative findings of change in knowledge, skills, and behavior, qualitative findings did not reveal important changes in skills or behavior related to leadership after completing the program. It was evident through the interviews that participants had not made an impact on community development. The program was found to be an awareness program only and was marginally successful in integrating rural community development process into the program. It was concluded that participants were not acting as change agents, and the program was not developing leaders to meet community needs. The participants were taking a minimal leadership role in improving their communities, bringing into question the data collection methods when in-depth interviews trump survey results.

Introduction

Agricultural leadership programs have a 70-year history in the United States. There is a need for leadership programs that teach citizens how to cope with the barrage of change in the rural environment. In particular, citizens must be educated and prepared with essential knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to assume leadership positions that concentrate on the concerns of rural America. The current array of agricultural leadership programs demonstrates a significant societal investment towards the important goal of fostering community participation

by rural citizens (Rossing & Heasley, 1987). Effective rural community development (RCD) is dependent on local leaders' knowledge, skills, and willingness to assume key roles in the development process (Mulkey, 1989).

Realizing the need to train more leaders to improve the quality of life for rural citizens, a major land-grant university in the southwest founded an agricultural leadership program in 1982. The goal of the program was to teach adults (ages 25-45) involved in agriculture or agribusiness leadership skills to impact policy at local, state, and national levels. Ten classes of approximately 30 participants each had been completed at the time of the study. The program objectives included 1) increasing participants' awareness of the agricultural industry, 2) expanding participants' understanding of U.S. economic, political, cultural, and social systems, 3) increasing participants' ability to analyze and react to complex problems affecting rural communities, 5) increasing participants' leadership involvement and activities at the local, state, or national level, and 6) helping participants increase and use their skills to solve community-based problems.

The program for the most recent class, held between August 2000 and March 2001, consisted of 13 seminars, a seven-day trip to Washington, D.C., and a two-week trip to New Zealand in March 2001. The weekend seminars (Friday afternoon to Sunday evening) focused on personal development issues, tours of agricultural research facilities, tours of specialty agricultural enterprises, tours of the state capital and discussions with state leaders, visits with agricultural association leaders and media personalities, visits to farm shows, and the future of rural America, including economic and demographic trends in the state.

A review of the literature found that most evaluation studies of agricultural leadership programs were limited to documenting claims via self-report survey methods (Bolton, 1991; Howell, Weir, & Cook, 1979; Lee-Cooper, 1994; Olson, 1992; Whent & Leising, 1992). Few evaluation studies triangulated the data with follow-up procedures involving multiple methods (Rohs & Langone, 1993). Therefore, this study adds to the literature by documenting the impact of one adult leadership program on rural community development (RCD) using participant self-report data (mail survey) and face-to-face interviews as measures for understanding the program's outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

Given the importance of effective leadership to rural community development processes and the challenges associated with survey data, the study asked the following questions:

- 1. Did the agricultural leadership program contribute to developing leaders for community development?
- 2. Did participants take an active role in improving their communities after completing the program?
- 3. Was there a difference in the findings based on the type of data collected (survey vs. interview) in determining program effectiveness?

Methods for Data Collection and Analysis

The population for the survey were all graduates of the program from 1982 to 2001 (N=290). A census was used for the survey based on the database kept by the director. Three individuals were excluded from the study, due to death (n=1) and wrong addresses (n=2).

Three data collection techniques were used for the research: 1) a then-post survey, 2) open-ended questions on the survey, and 3) face-to-face interviews with eight participants. Of the 125 participants who returned the survey (43% response rate), eight supplied extreme cases regarding the positive impact that the program had made on them in regard to integrating RCD processes into the program. Based on the survey responses, the individuals exemplified model change agents within their communities. Therefore, the sample for the face-to-face interviews was purposefully selected from subjects who completed the survey using a process known as *extreme case sampling*. Extreme case sampling involves people with unusual characteristics. In this case, the eight individuals were chosen based on their above average self-reported understanding of and commitment to RCD.

Survey Methods

An original survey was developed for the study based on Pigg's (2001) work. The instrument was a then-post design with Likert-type scales. Respondents were asked to read each question, reflect on their knowledge or behavior before entering the program (then), and rate themselves accordingly using a Likert-type scale. A second column adjacent to the first contained an exact copy of the scale and asked the respondent to reflect on their knowledge or behavior after completing the program (post) and rate themselves a second time. The ratings included strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree and were scored 1-4, respectively. Not sure/not applicable was coded 0 for the analysis. The two scores were compared using a t-test to determine differences in perception from before and after the program at a single point in time. The Cronbach coefficient alpha for internal consistency for all survey questions was calculated at 0.96.

The then-post design was chosen to control for several challenges to validity and reliability, including *overestimation of changes in knowledge* and *response-shift bias* among participants. When pretest-posttest information is collected, actual changes in knowledge and behaviors may be altered if the participants overestimate their knowledge and skills on the pretest. Similarly, pretest overestimation is likely if participants lack a clear understanding of the attitude, behavior, or skill the program is attempting to affect (Pratt, McGuigan, & Katsev, 2000).

Changes in participants' frame of reference due to the program is called *response-shift bias* (Pratt et al., 2000; Rohs, 1999). To avoid this source of error for self-report surveys, a thenpost method was used to collect retrospective data at the conclusion of the program as participants rated themselves within a single frame of reference and at a single point in time.

Although the then-posttest controls for response-shift bias and overestimation, other challenges to validity and reliability arise such as *memory-related problems, social desirability responding,* and *effort justification* (Howard, Millham, Slaten, & O'Donnell, 1981; Pratt et al.,

2000; & Sprangers, 1987). Evaluators using retrospective tests must consider memory-related problems that influence the recall process. Clarifying a defined period, such as "since you began this program," may facilitate recall (Pratt et al., 2000). When using retrospective tests, instead of representing the accurate treatment, they represent impression management as a possibility (Sprangers, 1987). *Effort justification* occurs when subjects do not experience any benefit of the training, and in an attempt to justify the effort spent, adjust their initial pre-treatment ratings in a downward direction or their post-treatment in an upward direction (Sprangers, 1987). Control for *memory-related problems, social desirability*, and *effort justification* was attempted by using objective measures (Pratt et al., 2000; & Sprangers, 1987). Interviews were also used to probe participants on exact behavior changes to triangulate results.

A panel of experts consisting of four faculty members with expertise in leadership education or RCD processes confirmed content, construct, and face validity of the survey. A pilot test was conducted with 30 randomly selected participants from the population. Seventeen people returned the pilot survey. The pilot surveys were analyzed and minor revisions were made. Because only minor revisions were required, the pilot data (n=17) were pooled with the final survey data (n=108) for a final response rate of 43% (n=125). The Dillman (2000) fourphase mailing approach was used for both the pilot survey and the final survey.

The double-dipping method was used to determine differences between the respondents and non-respondents (Linder, Murphy, & Briers, 2001). Along with an early to late respondent comparison, a random sample of 10% (n=20) of the non-respondents was administered portions of the survey via telephone. The two groups were compared on gender, employment status, level of educational attainment, and marital status with a Pearson Chi-Square. There were significant differences between non-respondents and respondents in gender, employment status, and marital status. There were no significant differences between the early to late respondents on any variable. Thus, results of the study can only be generalized to the survey respondents.

Survey data were analyzed using SPSS® v. 8.0. An alpha level of .05 was set *a priori* to determine statistical differences among variables. The statistical tests used were descriptive, t-tests, and Cohen's *d* effect size. Likert-type data is ordinal in nature; thus, it is acceptable and practical to treat it as interval data and subject it to statistical analysis as long as care is taken in the interpretation of the results (Kerlinger, 1986). Inferential statistics were used as a guide to understanding the relationships between variables. The effect size measures the magnitude of the treatment effect (Cohen, 1988). Measures of strength of association and effect size specify the practical significance of the research.

Qualitative Methods

Eight people were selected to be interviewed based on their survey responses for extreme cases, which demonstrated an in-depth knowledge of RCD processes. The participants were telephoned and asked to participate in an interview. The researcher drove to their places of business and conducted the interviews in their respective offices. The interviews followed a semi-structured outline. Probing questions allowed the researcher to explore emerging themes and to confirm hypotheses (Merriam, 1998).

To establish validity for the interviews, each interview was recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions were sent to the interviewees to validate their statements (Merriam, 1998). The

qualitative analysis software program ATLAS.ti® was used to organize the data from the openended survey questions and the interviews. Both data sets were analyzed and reported following Creswell's (1998) procedures:

- 1. *Organization of data*. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, cleaned by a research assistant who listened to the interview and read the transcript to check for accuracy. The text was then loaded into the qualitative data program ATLAS.ti®.
- 2. *Categorization of data.* The data were clustered into meaningful groups (coded) using ATLAS.ti® as an organizational tool.
- 3. *Interpretation of the data*. Statements that fell into like codes were examined for specific meanings in relationship to the purpose of the study.
- 4. *Identification of patterns*. The data and their interpretations were examined for themes and patterns that characterized the program and allowed the researchers to draw conclusions.
- 5. *Synthesis*. An overall representation of participants' responses was created where conclusions and recommendations were drawn based on the data presented.

Findings and Conclusions

Respondents' Profile

Survey respondents were married (90%), well-educated, middle class working adults who were civically engaged. One-hundred and thirteen men (90%) and 12 women (10%) responded to the survey. Their mean age was 43 years. The majority (54%) graduated college and 32% had earned graduate credit. Forty-seven percent earned \$30-\$50,000 annually and 100% voted in the last presidential election. Sixty percent volunteered 5-10 hours per month in social service activities and 69% were involved in 5-10 hours of economic development activities per month. They lived in their communities for an average of 24 years and the average community size was 30,000 people.

Did the agricultural leadership program contribute to developing leaders for rural community development?

Before community leaders can implement desired change, they must have a feel for existing attitudes and perceptions with respect to those factors that impact economic development objectives and outcomes (Williams, 1989). Effective community leaders could also promote community development by determining what leadership styles are needed for change based on their own, and their followers', skills and education (Robinson, 1994). Community leaders should be able to identify problems, assess community organizational structures, develop the necessary capacity, and design a plan for action to address problems (Mulkey, 1989).

The survey findings indicated that respondents believed the program developed them as leaders to meet their community's needs. A paired samples t-test resulted in significant differences for each variable from the then-post survey. The effect size, Cohen's *d*, was 1.79, indicating a large effect size for this construct (Cohen, 1988).

Findings from the eight purposefully selected interviewees were synthesized and conclusions are presented to triangulate the survey findings with additional data sources. Interviewees are represented by numbers presented in brackets to protect their identity.

Successful community development efforts are largely dependent on locally generated knowledge of how the community works. The development process includes needs assessment, community analyses, consensus building, and goal setting. Where these activities exist, communities are more likely to be actively engaged in the process of discovering and understanding their needs (Mulkey, 1989).

All eight interviewees were asked directly if they could identify their communities' needs [1, 29, 90, 134, 168, 208, 272, and 290]. Three participants stated that the program showed them who they needed to contact so those needs could be identified [1, 168, 290]. These participants believed that the program focused on how to find information, not how to use the information to implement change. "The one thing I learned in [the program] is I don't have to have those skills (RCD); I just need to know where to go to get them" [168]. "The groundwork was laid so we did learn whom we needed to talk to so we can find out those needs" [290].

One of the most important components of community leadership is the ability to generate collective action at the community level (Heekathorn, 1993). A central concept in the RCD literature emphasizes the importance of local participation as a means of strengthening the community (Martin & Wilkinson, 1985). One participant believed the program taught him to seek political power at the national level rather than work for development at the local level. "It probably helped me a lot more at the state and national level than on a community level. Basically, a lot of the things have a reflection on me and what's going to pay off on me is not as much at the local level as a state or regional level. The program identified more in what to do in the political process, more of how to sequester groups to help you with some of your problems and how to look at some groups that have similar causes to try to get those groups together because more numbers mean more votes for elections and people get their way" [90]. Participant 90's preception that the program helped more at the state and national level is inconsistent with the literature concerning effective RCD.

Three participants [29, 168, 272] believed they had a good understanding of their communities' needs before entering the program. These participants did not believe the program changed their knowledge of community needs. One interviewee did not think the program gave him the skills to identify needs in his community [134].

The participants were asked what the program could do to teach them to learn how to identify their community's needs. Two participants believed that the seminars should be changed to develop skills rather than focus on awareness [134, 208]. "Bring the whole aspect of community development into the program. Change the focus of the program to teach participants how to identify what the needs of their communities are; talk more about the different aspects of local government and organizations" [208].

Before community leaders can implement change, they must have a feel for existing attitudes and perceptions with respect to those factors which impact development (Williams, 1989). After reviewing the literature, it was concluded that if the program were developing leaders to meet community needs, then participants would know how to identify those needs as

well as design and implement action plans for community development. This was not the case among the eight interviewees. Therefore, the program did not contribute to developing leaders for rural community development as participants were not equipped with the knowledge or skills to identify their community's needs. The program did, however, increase awareness that communities have needs.

Did participants take an active role in improving their communities after completing the program?

The importance of participation as a means of strengthening local communities cannot be overstated as community leaders provide the basis for improving the quality of life in rural America (Martin & Wilkinson, 1985). People must not only get involved, they must also recruit people from racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds who represent the community (Beaulieu & Smith, 2000).

The survey findings indicated that respondents believed they were taking an active role to improve their communities. A paired samples t-test resulted in significant differences for all but one variable from the survey. The effect size, Cohen's d, was .67, indicating a large effect size for this construct (Cohen, 1988). The insignificant variable was, "I am very active in making efforts to improve the well being of the disadvantaged in my community" (p=0.15).

The survey findings also indicated that respondents believed they were listening to people with different socioeconomic status within their communities. A paired samples t-test resulted in significant differences for all variables from the then-post survey. The effect size, Cohen's *d*, was .49, indicating a medium effect size for this construct (Cohen, 1988).

All interviewees were asked specifically what they had done to improve their community since completing the program [1, 29, 90, 134, 168, 208, 272, and 290]. Five interviewees reported they had not been active in their community as leaders [29, 90, 208, 208, and 290]. "I probably have not done as much as I potentially could in developing this community" [90]. "I am not taking on as much as I probably should have" [29]. "I am not very active as far as a community leader in community organizations. I hope that I have become more active in my community in more of a support role. I don't feel like I came home and became a driving force to develop local communities [after the program]" [290]. One interviewee believed he was more involved in leadership roles before the program than after [208]. He believed his opinions were drastically different from other people and that the only leadership role he could assume was to lead by example and change his agricultural operation to be more sustainable [208].

Involvement at the local level was problematic for one participant [90]. He did not believe that graduates from the program could effectively be involved in community organizations because the graduates are more developed and better-quality leaders than ones in local community organizations who have not participated in the program. "Getting involved in the local organizations is probably a loser. The people who graduate from the program are so far ahead and the local agenda is so slow.... The people who graduate from [the program] are motivated by what helps them and their families" [90]. Another interviewee [168] believed the program stressed involvement at the state level instead of the community level. Two participants have taken on leadership roles in regional organizations [1, 134], and one participant [168] has started working on developing local projects to benefit the community. "I have taken on new leadership roles in regional organizations, I wouldn't have [done this] had I not gone through the program, but I could make more of an impact on rural development if I had more skills in managing change, strategic planning, and needs assessment" [134].

Networking opportunities was the most important aspect of the program for all the interviewees [1, 29, 90, 134, 168, 208, 272, and 290]. The exposure to different people and organizations put participants in contact with people who could assist them in RCD efforts. However, they did not believe they were currently using their networks to the fullest extent possible at the time of the interview [1, 29, 90, 134, 168, 208, 272, and 290].

Qualitative data from the open-ended questions on the survey were used to triangulate findings. Sixty-four respondents (51%) answered the question on the survey: "What was most beneficial to your community development efforts?" Eighteen of the sixty-four respondents (28%) believed that networking was the most beneficial thing they learned in the program. The networks offered exposure to other people and were valuable for direction and support [15, 179].

Based on the interview responses, most participants were not making changes in their communities, nor had they used their networks for community improvement. Participants reported that information gained in the program was not effectively used because they did not have the necessary skills to promote change.

The RCD process includes problem and needs identification, assessment of community organizational structures, developing capacity, and implementing programs to address issues (Mulkey, 1989). Community leaders should have adequate knowledge and skills to carry out these functions. One of the most important components of community leaders is the ability to mobilize resources at the community level (Heekathorn, 1993). The RCD literature emphasizes the importance of local participation as a means of strengthening the local community (Martin & Wilkinson, 1985). When asked directly about involvement in RCD activities, participants reported not being active in any phase of community development. Therefore, it was concluded that participants had not taken an active role in improving their communities after completing in the program.

Was there a difference in the findings based on the type of data collected (survey vs. interview) in determining program effectiveness?

All variables for the then-posttest survey were statistically significant at the .05 level, indicating that participants perceived they had gained knowledge and skills from the agricultural leadership program. However, when the eight purposefully selected participants were asked about their understanding of rural community development processes, it was found that they were not participating actively in community development activities, thus, they were not acting as change agents in their communities.

When comparing the findings from the survey data vs. the interview data, it can be concluded that the survey respondents *overestimated* their knowledge and skills regarding RCD processes on the survey (Pratt et al., 2000) due to *social desirability* (Howard, et al., 1981) and *effort justification* (Sprangers, 1987).

The study should alert other researchers' attention to the fact that self-report survey methods of evaluation may be inadequate for determining program impacts. Participants could not authenticate actual changes in behavior made after participating in the program. Survey-based studies may actually be documenting participants need for *effort justification* rather than tangible program impacts.

Recommendations, Discussion and Implications

The agricultural leadership program did create awareness among participants regarding the importance of RCD as stated in the objectives; however, it failed to move participants into action by producing community leaders. The qualitative data suggested that awareness was inadequate for participants to lead community development efforts as participants lacked both knowledge and skills for effecting change. Program designers should move beyond providing an awareness only program and provide opportunities to increase participants' skills in RCD processes by integrating more seminars and workshops into the program that focus on the mechanics of RCD. These experiences should also focus on new development opportunities where participants can engage in discussions with successful community leaders.

Townsend (2002) reported that one-shot programs develop awareness but were not effective in changing behavior. When an extended and sustained leadership class was provided, attitudes and leadership behaviors changed after the class. The agricultural leadership program used in this case study provides the long-term contact needed to change behavior; thus, the potential for incorporating knowledge and skill development exists but is currently under utilized. Program designers should integrate a leadership project or practicum into the program. Asking participants to create and implement a plan for community development within their home towns would serve to develop leadership skills, needs assessment skills, change agent skills, and increase participant impact on community development, at least in the short term. By experiencing success in a community development project, participants may also become more motivated to repeat the experience and become truly effective leaders rather than bystanders in their communities.

Other methods to determine participant impact on community development should be used to triangulate self-report survey data such as observation, interviews with participants and other community members, and collecting data other than participant satisfaction with the program. Program evaluators should also considering abandoning self-report survey research in favor of more credible data if funds for evaluation are limited. The financial and human resources used in developing the survey for this study could have been used toward randomly selecting more interviewees for face-to-face interviews as this study found that the survey data was invalidated by the in-depth interviews.

Recommendations for further research include conducting a longitudinal study of the program to document changes in the program based on the initial findings using interviews and observations as primary data sources. Also, the program designer should incorporate a participant-centered documentation process of the participants' impact on community development for internal evaluation purposes.

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RECRUITING AND MAINTAINING STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

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The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, founded in 1909, is the comprehensive professional association for family and consumer sciences professionals. The group's membership is comprised of different sections and divisions (based on areas of practice and interest) as well as categories. One portion of the Association's membership, the student portion, is both a section and a membership category. In this way, it is unique among other sections, divisions, and categories within AAFCS.

Another distinguishing feature of the Preprofessional/Graduate Student section (P/GS) is the demographics of its membership. While the majority of members in AAFCS are between the ages of 50 to 59 years (AAFCS "Annual Activities and Accomplishments Report", 2003), the members of the P/GS section are most typically in the age rage of traditional undergraduate and graduate students, 18 to 29 years of age.

While AAFCS has recognized recruitment and retention of younger members as key to the survival of the association, it also recognizes the failure to do so as an ongoing challenge. In order to ensure the perpetuity of AAFCS and the family and consumer sciences profession, the Association leadership continues to address several tough questions:

- How can students be recruited?
- What do students and new professionals desire in a professional association?
- What will it take to get students and new professionals to maintain membership in the Association?
- How does a professional association go about growing its future leaders?

In this paper, we will examine the association, discuss some of the challenges it faces and offer thoughts and suggestions in response to these questions.

History

The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, formerly known as the American Home Economics Association (AHEA), was founded in 1909 at the Lake Placid Conference, to serve as the professional association for Home Economics and related fields. The association supports the Family and Consumer Sciences profession as it provides leadership in: improving individual, family and community well-being; impacting the development, delivery and evaluation of consumer goods and services; influencing the creation of policy; and shaping societal change, thereby enhancing the quality of life for individuals, families and communities (AAFCS "Association History", 2003).

Vision, Mission, and Core Values

The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences is recognized as the comprehensive and integrative source of knowledge and the primary voice focusing on family, individual and community well-being.

The mission of the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences is to affect the optimal well-being of families and individuals by:

- empowering members to act on continuing and emerging concerns;
- focusing the expertise of members for action on critical issues;
- assuming leadership among organizations with mutual purposes.

The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences values:

- families as the fundamental social unit.
- research as a base for new and expanding knowledge, innovation, creativity and application of research to solve problems of individuals and families.
- holistic, interdisciplinary, integrative and preventative perspectives in addressing the issues of individuals and families as consumers.
- diversity, equality and human rights.
- both global and community perspectives when addressing issues of individuals and families as consumers.
- reciprocal relationships between people and their environment which affect the quality of life.
- the forging of partnerships and collaborations with others who share our values and purposes.
- life long learning.
- a healthy global environment which positively impacts the human condition.
- the profession as a force in shaping public policy.

(AAFCS "Vision, Mission, and Core Values", 2003.)

Purpose

The purpose of AAFCS is to improve the quality and standards of individual and family life through programs that educate, influence public policy, disseminate information and publish research findings.

Challenges

Like many associations, the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences faces challenges. As membership declines, the Association finds itself in a position of financial decline as well. We must develop strategies for recruiting and retaining members—particularly student members and new professionals, as they have potential for longevity within the Association.

Preprofessionals and new professionals are able to contribute an innovative perspective to the organizational culture. This innovativeness is not solely a result of their age. Anyone new to a group is not familiar with "the way things are done". Therefore, they are more likely to offer ideas and suggestions that deviate from the organizational norm. Young people, in particular, are more inclined to challenge the status quo and refuse to accept tradition as a solid reason for doing things a certain way (Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, and Calvert, 2000)

In an organization attempting to recruit more students and new professionals as members, there is also concern that too few of those members are participating in governance. Whether this lack of engagement is due to lack of opportunity, lack of know-how, or lack of initiative is debatable. Involving and empowering youth in the work of the association will provide them with a sense of ownership in AAFCS. By combining the experience of veteran members with the innovation of newer members, AAFCS could very well give itself the surge it needs to move in a more productive direction and more effectively serve its entire membership (Camino, 2001; Camino and Zeldin, 2002; Zeldin, et al., 2000).

Preprofessional/Graduate Student Section

P/GS is both a membership section and a membership category. The members of the P/GS are students in a wide variety of family and consumer sciences fields. Members are enrolled in both undergraduate and graduate program, and they hail from across the United States and around the world. They also have a wide variety of background in organizational involvement. Many may come from FCCLA (Family, Career and Community Leaders of America), FFA, or 4-H backgrounds or bring organizational and leadership experience from outside the profession. Some members may have no previous experience with organizational leadership.

The purpose of the P/GS is to provide family and consumer sciences students with opportunities to network, explore careers, gain leadership experience, and develop as young professionals. P/GS is the only membership unit with direct representation on the

national board of directors. While other sections and divisions are represented by liaisons, the P/GS chair has a seat on the board.

P/GS is not an easily definable group. Although they are part of a professional association, P/GS is not considered to be a preprofessional association, nor are members considered to be "full-fledged" active members. Although membership is comprised of students, P/GS is not considered to be a student organization. Consequently, they walk a fine line between the two.

The Challenges of Student Leadership

The Preprofessional/Graduate Student section has a high rate of turnover both in membership and leadership. This is inherent in the group, as members are students and individuals are who constantly enter and graduate from academic programs. Although this turnover is expected, it poses many challenges for the P/GS.

The lack of continuity in the P/GS often means that students are "re-inventing the wheel", so to speak. From year to year and location to location, the roles and expectations of student members will vary. Unless students are privy to the experience of veteran P/GS members and/or professional members (as advisors), they will often find themselves dealing with the same challenges each year. It seems that, as soon as students have a grasp on what needs to be done and an idea of how to do it, they graduate. This leaves other student members to begin the cycle anew.

Some of the challenges faced repeatedly by the student members of AAFCS are:

• Disconnected Membership

Students are "moving targets". Their addresses and other contact information are in constant flux. Settling on a method and frequency of communication which will satisfy their needs is important. However, breakdowns in the chosen communication chain(s) are frequent.

• Lack of Validation and Structure

Some colleges, universities, and affiliates have a system in place for the formation of student "chapters" and for involvement of students in the work of the Association at their given level, while others do not. The systems vary across the country. This suggests that expectations and definitions are not consistent. Also, student membership and involvement is somewhat sporadic and dependent on whether or not they feel a sense of belonging and purpose within the Association. Additionally, since students do not enjoy the same status as professional members, at times they can feel like "token" participants on boards, committees, and task forces.

No Opportunity for Training and/or Officer Transitioning

Typically, students who enter leadership positions have not been members of AAFCS for a long time. After all, their time as a student is brief. So a rise to

leadership may be quick and lacks prerequisite experience. For this reason, unless officers are properly trained and advised, they will be unclear about their responsibilities—leading to frustration and ineffective functioning.

• Complete National Officer Turn-Over on an Annual Basis

While some officers may serve for more than one year, most do not. At the national level, until recently, P/GS national officers were not allowed to serve more than one term. Therefore, the officer team was completely new each year. They lacked continuity and guidance—leading to the "re-inventing" mentioned earlier. Speaking from experience, they felt adrift on the AAFCS sea and uncertain as to how they were supposed to proceed once elected.

Although there is no guaranteed key to resolving the P/GS challenges, there are many tools that would help. Among them:

- Resource Development
- Professional Mentorship (in areas of family and consumer sciences practice)
- Association Mentorship (in terms of organizational culture)
- Organized Student Chapters
- Leadership Training
- Improved Recruitment Strategies
- Specific Goal Setting/Planning
- Communication and Networking

Using the ISOTURE leadership development process suggestions for AAFCS in their efforts to improve recruitment and retention in relation to student members would include:

- IDENTIFICATION: Recruiting student members and encouraging them to seek leadership positions.
- SELECTION: Despite need for members and leaders, avoid the "Warm and Breathing" method.
- ORIENTATION: Assist students in becoming familiar with organizational culture.
- TRAINING: Provide adequate leadership training and transitioning for officer positions.
- UTILIZATION: Encourage students to promote their personal talents and interests so that volunteer/task fit can be accomplished.

- RECOGNITION: Recognize students for their service and accomplishments- and also recognize (legitimize) their membership.
- EVALUATION: Involve as many students as possible in continual evaluation of progress, and encourage them to share ideas.

(Texas Cooperative Extension, 2003.)

Currently, each of these concepts are implemented, to a greater or lesser degree. From our experience, we have determined that the key isn't wholly in implementation but in the continuity and consistency of implementation. Furthermore, we suggest that the implementation must occur at the greater, rather than the lesser, degree.

Some progress made to date includes:

• Chair-Elect Position Introduced

In 1998, the first national P/GS Chair-Elect was elected to the student board. This meant that future Chairs would have at least one previous year of experience with national P/GS leadership. It was also determined that national P/GS officers could seek additional terms of office, provided they met candidacy requirements.

• Officer Training/Transitioning

Time is now set aside, at the Annual Convention, for the officers to be trained and to transition with their predecessors. While this time is brief, it is much more than was provided in the past. For future years, we are considering longer training times with more intensive discussion. Current section, division, committee, and task force practices indicate that training could take place as part of existing governance sessions.

• Information and Forms

In an attempt to strengthen communication networks, keep track of student resources, and provide information to students more effectively, P/GS has created contact sheets and other useful forms. We have also gained access to our membership database electronically.

• Handbook Revisions

The P/GS handbook was recently revised to be more reflective of current practices and expectations.

• National Consultant

A volunteer consultant is in place to serve as an advisor and resource for P/GS at the national level. Even though student leadership may change, this person will be with the group on a more continuous basis—and is therefore able to assist the officers with projects, communication, and continued progress.

• Leadership Training at Annual Convention

At the 2000 Annual Convention in Providence, RI a P/GS preconference was held to provide intensive leadership training for student members. At the 2001 and 2002 Annual Conventions in Dallas, TX, and Washington, D.C., respectively, similar sessions were offered within the context of the meeting.

• Electronic Newsletter

In previous years, the P/GS has sent out mailings to the affiliates for which there was a record of a P/GS affiliate chair. P/GS chairs at the affiliate level were then expected to pass this information along to the college and university chapters within their respective states. Ultimately, this process failed quite frequently—and many students did not receive necessary information in a timely manner. In 2001, the officers began **"In the Know"**, an electronic newsletter which is sent out periodically by the AAFCS P/GS leaders using the membership database on file at headquarters. We anticipate that this will be a more effective way of reaching the membership.

• National Chair Visits to Affiliates

The 2001-02 national P/GS chair, Jenny Stone (Iowa State University) spent the spring 2002 semester visiting AAFCS affiliates in order to recruit, train, and advise student members as well as encouraging professional members to mentor student members and include them in the operations of the Association.

• Chapter Development Guidelines (in progress)

Some of the current national officers, along with P/GS members from various affiliates, have been charged with the development of Chapter Guidelines. This resource will give students examples of consistency in structure and to help those who desire guidance for their membership. The anticipated completion date for this resource is spring, 2004. This will allow the resource to be shared at the 2004 AAFCS Annual Convention in San Diego, CA.

Additional ideas that are being considered for future work include:

- Electronic/Video Recruitment Tools
- Leadership Resource Kits
- Advisor Training
- Student Participation in Governance Sessions
- Collaboration with Sections/Divisions
- Specific Mentoring Programs
- Interactive Web-based Services
- Modified Election Procedures

• And the list goes on!

Whatever direction is chosen for the future of the P/GS section, the critical factor in reaching these goals is encouraging professional members to provide guidance and encouraging student members to take initiative. The success of the P/GS is up to all AAFCS members—and, ultimately, will determine the future success and longevity of the Association.

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MEASURING THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP SKILL DEVELOPMENT ON PUBLIC OFFICIALS

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Measuring the Impact of Leadership Skill Development on Public Officials

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Abstract: The focus for this roundtable discussion is upon the change in knowledge and skill that occurs in a leadership program that is designed to enhance the skills and knowledge of community leaders. The participants in a ten-week course were evaluated on pre and post-test knowledge of specific skills and concepts associated with community leadership.

What impact does leadership skill development programs have upon public officials? The focus for this roundtable discussion is upon the change in knowledge and skill that occurs in a leadership program that is designed to enhance the skills and knowledge of community leaders. The participants in a ten-week course were evaluated on pre and post-test knowledge of specific skills and concepts associated with community leadership. The result of the evaluations and the evaluation methodologies will be discussed in the session. The evaluation occurred in three leadership training programs from The Ohio Local Government Leadership Academy that included elected officials from county, municipal, and township governments, and appointed individuals who serve on local government committees, commissions, boards or task forces. The data for this presentation are drawn from a local Leadership Academy developed in the Toledo area in Ohio.

The Ohio Local Government Leadership Academy

The Ohio Local Government Leadership Academy was developed after a series of eight meetings with a committee consisting of representatives from state associations of local government in Ohio and administrators and faculty from The Ohio State University. The participants included representatives from:

- County Commissioners Association of Ohio
- Ohio Municipal League
- Ohio Township Association
- The John Glenn Institute for Public Service and Public Policy

- Office of the President, Government Relations
- Community Development, Ohio State University Extension

The initial meeting included fourteen individuals. The Community Development Office had requested the initial meeting to explore three questions.

- 1. In what ways can the university increase and strengthen its relationships with the associations of local government?
- 2. What kinds of programs can the university provide, or partner with the associations to provide to local government officials?
- 3. What kinds of research could the university provide to support the work of the associations?

Although several themes emerged from the first meeting, our purpose here is to discuss the development of only one of the joint initiatives that followed—the Ohio Local Government Leadership Academy. The first meeting was used to set the agenda for the subsequent meetings. The term leadership did not emerge at the first meeting. Rather, such terms as effective decision-making, conducting effective meetings, ethical conduct, effective media relations, and working with community residents were topics of discussion. During seven subsequent meetings, the discussions were refined to create a leadership academy to expand the knowledge base, and to build the skills of elected officials in several specific areas—each became a module in the curriculum.

To satisfy the needs of the three associations, the academy was developed so that interested public officials could complete one or more of the required or elective modules during the two annual meetings held by each association each year. Further, members of one association could attend the meetings of either of the other two associations to complete the leadership certificate more quickly than the three years outlined in the program.

Based upon requests from local officials and from county extension offices, a second version was created for presentation at local or regional sites. One local Academy is described in the pages that follow.

Toledo Area Local Government Leadership Academy

The academy was developed through a partnership between The Ohio State University Extension, The Ohio State University Sea Grant College Program and the Toledo Area Chamber of Commerce during a visit to the Chamber. Participants in the Academy completed ten sessions over a ten-week period with each session lasting two hours. A diverse audience made up the composition of the first Local Government Leadership Academy class including the following professional backgrounds: 1 mayor, 2 small business development commission directors, 2 executive directors of professional committees, 7 township trustees, 3 city council persons, 2 community development corporation directors, 1 precinct committee person, 1 attorney, 2 probate court magistrates, 1 university professional, 1 doctor, 1 engineer, 1 librarian, 1 executive vicepresident of a local business, 2 presidents of local businesses, 1 real estate professional, and 1 chamber of commerce executive. The course schedule and a brief description for each session are listed below.

January 8, **Public Officials and Public Service:** This is a workshop about the requirements and challenges for serving in public office in Ohio. The program is designed to provide participants with an overview of the basic issues, expectations and practices associated with serving in any public office in Ohio. The workshop will focus on the principles and practices that can provide a framework for improving your tenure and service in public office. Topics include: Duties and Responsibilities of Public Officials; Codes of Ethics; Standards of Conduct; Conflict of Interest; Using and Abusing the office--"the ice is very thin"; Open Meetings Laws; "Honesty, Ethics, Integrity and Civility go a long way."

January 15, **Conducting Effective Meetings**: This is a workshop about the principles and best practices that provide a framework for conducting effective meetings. The topics for the workshop include: Types of meetings; Legal Requirements; Pre-meeting Activities such as Agenda preparation/Distribution/"Five day rule"; The Meeting Environment; Process, Rules and Procedures; Conducting the Meeting--process and dynamics; After the Final Gavel--bringing closure and finishing the requirements.

January 22, **Communicating and Working with the Media:** This is a workshop about developing effective working relationships with media representatives and organizations that cover your meetings. The workshop will focus upon the basic principles and practices that will provide a framework for improving your media relations and skills.

January 29, **Communicating and Working with Citizens:** This is a workshop about establishing more positive and effective relationships with all residents of the community. The workshop is built around the principles that <u>should</u> define the relationships between government and residents. The content of the workshop will be based upon best practices that are used in many localities around the state and nation to provide a framework for building effective relationships and engaging community residents with their government in positive ways.

February 5, **Building Sustainable Communities:** This is a workshop about developing a better understanding of a new paradigm for governing our communities. The workshop provides an overview of the principles and practices involved in developing sustainable communities. The workshop is designed to explore the relationships between growth, development, environment, ecology, social structures and the civic culture.

February 12, **Team Building:** This is a workshop about the principles and practices that can provide a framework for building effective working relationships between and among members of the governing body and building effective working relationships with the administrative/managerial staff and with other employees of the local government.
February 19, **Leadership Skills and Styles and Effective Decision Making:** Do you know your leadership style? Do you know the leadership styles/ types of others on your board/ council? Do you know that understanding leadership styles and types can help improve our interpersonal relationships and the effectiveness of the board/council? The goal for every public official is to "make good decisions." What is a good decision? How do we make them? This is a workshop about the concepts, principles, and practices that can provide a framework to improve the operations and effectiveness of your governing body and your personal decision-making.

February 26, **Conflict Management and Dispute Resolution:** This is a workshop about the well-established principles and practices that are used to manage conflict and resolve disputes. The workshop is divided into four parts with each focusing on different dimensions of conflict management and dispute resolution. The workshop will focus on practical applications and examples of real situations that will help to build a framework for each participant to use the skills developed in the workshop.

March 5, **Intergovernmental Relations: Opportunities and Challenges for Cooperation:** This is a workshop about the principles and practices that can provide a framework for structuring working relationships between and among local governments. The workshop will explore Ohio law pertaining to opportunities and limitations for intergovernmental agreements and cooperative arrangements. The workshop will draw heavily from the positive and negative experiences of others who have engaged in cooperative agreements with other governments.

March 12, **Technology in Local Government:** This is a workshop about the uses, applications and limitations of electronic technology, especially computers, in local government. The workshop will focus upon five themes relating to computers and technology in local government—selecting hardware and software, common applications and practices currently in use among many local governments, new applications of government-on-line, emerging uses, and policies relating to the use of government computers.

Evaluating Knowledge Gain

An instrument was developed for the program that was designed to measure prior knowledge and evaluate knowledge gained and perspectives changed as a result of the program. The evaluations were conducted at the end of each of the ten sessions. A final evaluation was conducted at the end of the program to help assess the overall impact of the program. The paper and data provide a useful framework for further dialogue about the impact of such programs on community leaders. The instrument used to measure change was developed specifically for this leadership program. An example of the instrument for one session follows. The content of the evaluations were developed around the particular sub-topics for each of the ten sessions. An example of one of the evaluation instruments for the session on Conducting Effective Meetings is reproduced on the page that follows.

Ohio Local Government Leadership Academy Program Survey

Please rank your level of understanding by circling one of the following using a scale of 1-4, with **1 being poor** and **4 being good**.

| | before prese | today's entation | | My level of understanding of the following | | <u>after</u> prese | today's ntation | |
|---|-----------------|------------------|---|--|---|-----------------------|--------------------|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1. Meeting types: regular meetings, work sessions, public forums and public hearings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Legal requirements, notices, Sunshine Law, open meeting requirements, executive sessions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Pre-meeting activities, agenda preparation/distribution/"Five Day Rule", supporting documents, press briefings, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4. The meeting environment, accessibility, physical details, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5. Process, rules and procedures, code of ethics, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 6. Conducting the meeting, roles, public address, agendas, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 7. Meeting Closure, the press, follow-up, minutes and records. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Leadership Topic: Conducting Effective Meetings

If necessary, what could have been done better or included to enhance your understanding of this session? (Use back if necessary).

Please turn in at end of session. Thank you for your cooperation.

The Evaluation Results

The table that follows provides a summary of the evaluation data collected for each session. The data for each module from within each session are not reported in this paper. However, the overall statistics incorporates the information from each module to produce a session statistic. The numbers (N) for each session varies since participants were required to attend only seven sessions to earn their Certificate.

| Prior Knowledge | Session Topic | Knowledge Gained |
|-----------------|---|------------------|
| 35% | Public Officials and Public Service | 65% |
| 39% | Conducting Effective Public Meetings | 60% |
| 7% | Communicating and Working With the Media | 93% |
| 30% | Working and Communicating With Citizens | 71% |
| 6% | Building Sustainable Communities | 94% |
| 20% | Team Building | 80% |
| 25% | Leadership Skills and Styles | 97% |
| 7% | Conflict Management and Dispute Resolution | 92% |
| 13% | Intergovernmental Relations | 88% |
| 24% | Technology in Local Government | 76% |

One of the interesting observations that emerges from an examination of the data is that there is a reverse relationship between prior knowledge and knowledge gained. The logic is obvious, but too often we fail to assess the impact between starting point and ending point when we report results. Where knowledge is already high or assumed to be high, there is less chance that gains will be high. As an example, the four sessions where prior knowledge is low the gains were in excess of 90%. The reverse is true, where prior knowledge is the highest, knowledge gains were the lowest. For example, in the area where prior knowledge is rated the highest, Conducting Effective Meetings, knowledge gain was the lowest. The data do not, however, support an argument that we should focus on those areas where knowledge gained can be the greatest. Important learning occurs for "experts" at the margin where new insights or skills can improve an already effective leader.

Future Directions and Unanswered Questions

From our initial experience with the issues surrounding knowledge gained during the course of the ten week program, we concluded that we need to assess prior knowledge and knowledge gained differently. There are two levels of measurement for each category. One is the self reported estimate of prior knowledge and knowledge gained. Another way to assess prior knowledge and knowledge gained is through an assessment of specific sets of information that will be provided during the sessions of the Academy. One of the very difficult problems to overcome with adult learners, and especially elected officials, is to collect the information in a discrete manner. Most public officials are very aware of their own image and would be reluctant to provide information if there were any chance the assessment information could be attributed to them in any manner that could be embarrassing. The important questions needing attention include:

- 1. What are the best surrogate measures of knowledge that we can use? Is self reporting an adequate measure of prior knowledge and knowledge gained?
- 2. Is there a way to collect accurate information about the level of prior knowledge and knowledge gained that elicits accurate responses from adult learners, especially elected officials? Can information be collected in an environment where there is a sufficient comfort level to allow public officials to provide very accurate information that is not tainted by posturing or spin?
- 3. Are measures of knowledge gained the only true measures of the value of a program? Or, does valuable learning occur outside the parameters of specific topics and sub-topics within the sessions? Do we need to focus equally as much on value of an experience as we do on knowledge gained?

In teaching and learning situations involving public officials, interactions that occur within a program may provide the beginnings for a change in behavior. There is likely an important "time lag" between program content and the application of ideas within the operating environment of a public official. This time lag and impact issue will continue to plague educators and trainers as public sector leadership programs are developed and presented.

EXPLORING LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES IN EXTENSION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this roundtable discussion was to provide insight into the question, Do subordinates and superiors seek the same leadership skills in Extension leaders? Using a nominal group technique, participants in the session generated a list of leadership skills needed by Extension leaders in each of six leadership skill areas. The list that was generated was then compared with the findings of a research study conducted to create a leadership competency instrument for use with Extension leaders in state director and administrator positions. When the two lists were compared, several similarities and overlaps were found. There were also some obvious differences between the two lists. Findings suggests that various groups are seeking similar leadership skills in Extension leaders, but that all levels of the organization need to be involved in the identification of core leadership skills and competencies for leaders.

INTRODUCTION

Within an organization, identifying critical leadership competencies required for effectiveness helps define what skills leaders need (Pernick, 2001). The identification of key competencies provides for both individual and organizational growth and helps the organization meet future demands (Pickett, 1998).

The Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service (CSREES) is a unique organization in terms of structure and function. It is a publicly funded, non-formal educational system that links the activities of the USDA, CSREES, 51 land-grant universities created under the Morrill Act of 1862, 17 land-grant institutions created or supported under the second Morrill Act of 1890, 34 land-grant institutions created from 1890 to 1994, and approximately 3,150 county administrative units (Extension Committee on Organization and Policy, 1997; McDowell, 2001; Rasmussen, 1989). The senior leaders of the organization are the state directors and administrators housed within the land-grant universities in each state.

Performance evaluations have become standard practice in both public and private sector organizations (Patterson, 1987). Today's environment of accountability requires employee evaluations in many organizations and institutions, including the CSREES. Performance

evaluations are designed to evaluate how well an individual actually performs their responsibilities. In contrast, a competence assessment is designed to evaluate individual knowledge, education, skills, experience, and proficiency to perform those assigned responsibilities (Herringer, 2002). Unfortunately, in many instances, it is performance evaluations rather than competence assessments that are considered when selecting individuals to be promoted within an organization. Many Extension leaders, including those in the state director and administrator positions, are promoted almost exclusively from within based on their performance in previous positions (Patterson, 1997; Pittman & Bruny, 1986). This practice is problematic in that promotion based on doing a good job in a previous position does not necessarily lead to a good Extension leader.

The concept of identifying core competencies is not new to Extension. Many such studies have been conducted for a variety of positions within Extension. In their 1979 study, Beeman, Cheek, McGhee, and Grygotis first assessed the importance of core competencies needed by Extension agents in Florida as perceived by both county agents and state staff, and then compared the perceptions of each group toward the importance of each competencies. Firth, Watters, & Shepherd (1996) reported that an Arizona team determined core competencies for county agents working with youth- and families-at-risk. Cooper and Graham (2001) identified 57 competencies needed by county agents and county Extension supervisors in Arkansas. Their study also compared the perceptions of each group toward the level of importance of each competency.

In terms of leadership competencies, the literature related to Extension is arguably thin. In an attempt to more clearly define leadership development, the National Impact Study of Leadership Development in Extension (NISLDE) asked Extension staff what leadership meant to them. The result was the identification of 13 broad leadership competencies: (1) solving problems, (2) directing projects or activities, (3) forming and working with groups, (4) planning for group action, (5) managing meetings, (6) communicating effectively, (7) developing proficiency in teaching, (8) mobilizing for group action, (9) understanding and developing oneself, (10) understanding financial matters, (11) understanding leadership, (12) understanding society, and (13) understanding social change (Paxson, Howell, Michael, & Wong, 1993).

Some leadership competencies may be transferable, but it is nonetheless important to look at specific competencies needed within a particular organization (Barner, 2000; Fulmer & Wagner, 1999; Pickett, 1998). An Extension leader must fulfill a number of different roles, and therefore, must prove their competence in many different areas. However, no study could be found that attempted to identify the leadership skills and specific leadership competencies desired in the senior leaders of the organization.

According to Barner (2000), "it makes no sense to try to identify essential leadership capabilities unless one knows the business context in which the leaders will be expected to excel" (p. 47). Thus, for Extension to become a best-practice organization, leadership competencies identified specifically for Extension leaders must be developed. But, who should develop such competencies? Current Extension leaders, the administrative heads to whom the current leaders report, and the subordinates of the current leaders all have a vested interest in the development of such a list of core competencies. The question must be asked then, "Are all three

groups looking for the same thing?" Do current leaders believe that the competencies administrative heads perceive as essential are in fact important to their success as leaders of the day-to-day operations of Cooperative Extension Systems across the country?

BACKGROUND STUDY

As part of a research study examining the leadership styles and skills of current Extension leaders, Moore (2003) conducted a qualitative study designed to identify the leadership skill areas, skills and specific leadership competencies Extension leaders need to be successful, as perceived by their administrative heads. In the study, Moore conducted qualitative long interviews (McCracken, 1988) with seven administrative heads of agriculture, as identified by the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC). Prior to the interviews, participants were sent a skills summary sheet developed by Moore. This summary sheet was based on a review of literature and included sections on five skill areas: human skills, conceptual skills, technical skills, emotional intelligence skills, and industry knowledge skills (Goleman, 1998; Katz, 1955; Robbins, Bradley, & Spicer, 2001). The summary sheet described the skill category and provided two examples of specific leadership competencies within each skill area. The purpose of this skills summary sheet was to help participants focus their thinking on the types of competencies needed by Extension leaders.

Analysis of the data revealed six leadership areas of competence: human skills, conceptual skills, communication skills, technical skills, emotional intelligence skills, and industry knowledge skills. As expected, the five skill areas identified in the literature review prior to the interviews and addressed in the skills summary sheet emerged as important leadership skill areas for Extension leaders. However, communication skills emerged as an additional leadership skill area of importance (Moore, 2003). From the comments of the administrative heads of agriculture, a total of 45 leadership skills were identified and clustered into one of the six leadership skill areas (see Table 1). Skills were clustered into a skill area based on the review of literature.

ASSOCIATION OF LEADERSHIP EDUCATORS ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION

Participants attending the Exploration session of Concurrent Workshops IV at the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) Annual Conference participated in a nominal group technique activity designed to identify leadership skills needed by Extension leaders. Session participants were given the same skills summary sheet given to the administrative heads of agriculture who participated in the study conducted by Moore (2003).

Participants were divided into six groups. Each group was given one of the skill areas identified as important in the background study (Moore, 2003). Each group developed a list of leadership skills needed by Extension leaders within their skill. Each group shared their list and an overall list that encompassed all six leadership skill areas was created.

Session participants generated a total of 50 leadership skills (see Table 2). Some skills, such as delegation, motivation, conflict resolution/management, and listening skills were mentioned in more that one skill area. These skills were left in each skills area participants listed them in, regardless of overlap, yielding a total of 45 unduplicated skills.

Table 1

| Skill Area | Number of Skills | Leadership Skills |
|------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| Human Skills | 11 | Relationship builder |
| | | Open/approachable |
| | | Team member/player |
| | | Evaluate people |
| | | Team leader |
| | | Cultural awareness/diversity |
| | | Identify talent |
| | | Mentoring |
| | | Leadership development |
| | | Coaching |
| | | Understand social problems |
| Conceptual Skills | 6 | Vision |
| | 0 | Strategic/sequential planning |
| | | Decision making |
| | | Critical/creative thinking |
| | | Goals (set and achieve) |
| | | Organizational change |
| Technical Skills | 5 | Budgeting |
| | | Finance/fundraising |
| | | Computer skills |
| | | Internet skills |
| | | Competent (in technical area) |
| Communication Skills | 7 | Listening skills |
| | | Speaking skills |
| | | Communication (settings) |
| | | Reading skills |
| | | Electronic communication |
| | | Media interaction |
| | | Written communication |
| Emotional Intelligence | 9 | Time management |
| Skills | | Empathy/respect |
| | | Maturity (criticism/emotions) |
| | | Energy/enthusiasm |
| | | Honesty/integrity |
| | | Conflict resolution |
| | | Sense of numor |
| | | Negotiation |
| | 7 | Motivation |
| Industry Knowledge | / | Context/fole of Extension |
| SKIIIS | | NIOW CONSTITUENCIES |
| | | Political environment |
| | | Extension priorities |
| | | Extension priorities |
| | | Understand program areas |
| | | Networking adilities |

Skill Areas and Leadership Skills Needed by Extension Leaders as Identified by Administrative Heads of Agriculture

Table 2

| Skill Area | Number of Skills | Leadership Skills |
|------------------------|------------------|---|
| Human Skills | 9 | Personality types |
| | | Delegation/power sharing |
| | | Compassion |
| | | Personal and group development |
| | | Positive role model |
| | | Coaching/enabling/challenging |
| | | Communicate/create buy-in for vision |
| | | Conflict management |
| | | Promote creative/critical thinking |
| Conceptual Skills | 6 | Develop and promote mission/vision |
| | | Decision making |
| | | Needs Assessment (organization and constituents) |
| | | Organizational Roles |
| | | Motivation |
| | | Analyze and organize information |
| Technical Skills | 11 | Delivery methods (interactive video, on-line, etc.) |
| | | Recruitment and marketing skills |
| | | Strategic planning skills |
| | | Human resource management |
| | | Evaluation (use of tools) |
| | | Electronic communications |
| | | Programming process |
| | | Local programming |
| | | Group facilitation |
| | | Delegation |
| | | Resource development |
| Communication Skills | 12 | Listening skills |
| | | Questioning skills (probing, inquiry) |
| | | Delegation skills |
| | | Audience identification |
| | | Presentation skills (hi-tech/low-tech) |
| | | Organizing stakeholders |
| | | Conflict resolution |
| | | "Deal" with hard issues |
| | | Synthesis skills (summarize, paraphrase) |
| | | Provide feedback (good and bad) |
| | | Observation skills (internal and external) |
| | | Written communication skills |
| Emotional Intelligence | 6 | Time management (balance personal and professional) |
| Skills | | Encourage total participation |
| | | Understand personal strengths and weaknesses |
| | | Motivation |
| | | Listening skills (active/compassionate) |
| | | Willing to say "I am/was wrong" |

Skill Areas and Leadership Skills Needed by Extension Leaders as Identified by Association of Leadership Educators Roundtable Discussion Participants

 Table 2 (continued).

 Skill Areas and Leadership Skills Needed by Extension Leaders as Identified by Association of

 Leadership Educators Roundtable Discussion Participants

| Number of Skills | Leadership Skills | | | | |
|------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| 6 | Political environment | | | | |
| Networking | | | | | |
| | Recognize industry overlaps | | | | |
| | Industry above and beyond agriculture | | | | |
| | Funding (traditional and non-traditional; new and old) | | | | |
| | Create partnerships | | | | |
| | Number of Skills 6 | | | | |

COMPARING THE TWO LISTS

When the list generated by the administrative heads of agriculture (Moore, 2003) and the list generated by ALE session participants were compared, several similarities and overlaps were found. Each group identified 45 unduplicated leadership skills needed by Extension leaders. A total of 22 leadership skills were identified by both groups. Ten of the 22 leadership skills that were identified by both groups were clustered within the same leadership skill area (see Table 3). The remaining 11 leadership skills that were included on both lists were clustered into different skill areas (see Table 4). Although these skills may have different nomenclature between the two groups, the intent behind the skill was essentially the same.

Both groups were looking for leaders who could make decisions, plan ahead, solve problems, and motivate those around them. Communication skills, especially listening skills, were also important to both groups. In terms of time management, both groups felt it was important for leaders to be able to manage both personal and professional time as well as respect the time of each person within the organization. Due to the uniqueness of the organization, it was not surprising that understanding the context and role of Extension was viewed as an important leadership skill by both groups.

Table 3

| Skill Area | Leadership Skill(s) |
|-------------------------------|---|
| Human Skills | Coaching |
| Conceptual Skills | Vision Decision making |
| Communication Skills | Listening skills Written communication |
| Emotional Intelligence Skills | Time management Motivation |
| Industry Knowledge Skills | Political Environment Create linkages/partnerships Networking |

Leadership skills identified by both groups in the same skill area

It is interesting to note that both groups generated lists with a total of 45 unduplicated leadership skills needed by Extension leaders and that almost half of the skills identified, 22 of 45, were the same for each group. These findings suggest that, while they may not be categorizing the specific skills into the same skill area, both groups are looking for similar leadership skills in Extension leaders. Not all of the ALE session participants were directly involved in Extension, and although they were asked to identify the leadership skills they believed Extension leaders need to be successful, it is possible that they were not thinking of leadership skills specifically in the context of Extension. While it has been noted that the development of leadership skills and competencies within the context of the organization is important (Barner, 2000; Fulmer & Wagner, 1999; Pickett, 1998), the apparent similarities between the two lists were nonetheless encouraging.

Table 4

Leadership skills identified as important by both groups but in different skill areas

| Evaluate people/Use of evaluation tools |
|--|
| Identify talent/Understand personal strengths and weaknesses |
| Strategic/sequential planning |
| Critical/creative thinking |
| Finance/funding |
| Electronic communications |
| Media interaction/Delivery methods |
| Maturity (criticism/emotions)/"Deal" with hard issues |
| Conflict resolution |
| Context/role of Extension/Organizational roles |
| Know constituencies/Audience identification |
| Understand program areas/Programming process/local programming |

Although it is important to note that there were 22 leadership skills identified as important by both groups, it is equally important to note that there were several leadership skills identified by one group but not the other. For example, delegation/power sharing skills was identified by three of the small groups of ALE session participants, but was not identified as an important leadership skill for Extension leaders by the administrative heads of agriculture. On the other hand, the administrative heads of agriculture identified skills such as mentoring and leadership development of subordinates as an important skill for Extension leaders to have, while the ALE session participants did not include such skills in their list of important leadership skills they are looking for in Extension leaders.

Some of the most interesting findings that emerged from examining the two lists center around the differences between the two lists. ALE participants were concerned with understanding personality types and working within groups made up of different personalities. The administrative heads of agriculture were concerned that the leader had empathy for others and an understanding of society and social, as well as organizational, change. It is interesting that ALE participants made no reference to the leader as a change agent. ALE participants wanted a leader who was not afraid to admit when he/she was wrong while the administrative heads of agriculture wanted a leader with a sense of humor. It appeared as though the administrative heads of agriculture identified more skills that focused on the leader being able to see the big picture and their role within the organization as a whole, while the ALE session participants identified skills that focused more on the effect the leader had on individuals within the organization. Some of these differences may be attributed to the relative homogenous group of administrative heads of agriculture that were interviewed as compared with the heterogeneous group of participants in the ALE roundtable discussion. Even with this in mind, the findings are still interesting and provide much insight into the question to superiors and subordinates seek the same leadership skills and competencies in their leaders.

Overall, the similarities and differences between the two lists support the notion that each of the various stakeholder groups within an organization has a vested interest in being involved in the development of core leadership competencies for the leaders of the organization. Some of the leadership skills are transferable from one group to another. However, some leadership skills appear to be of more importance to one group as opposed to the other.

The identification of the leadership skills deemed important by the superiors of the current leaders was an important first step. However, the findings that emerged when the two lists involved in this roundtable discussion were compared and contrasted remind us of the importance of including all levels of the Extension in the identification and development of core leadership skills and competencies for its leaders. Future studies should be conducted with participants at all levels within Extension to provide empirical evidence to substantiate the findings of this roundtable discussion.

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CREATING YOUTH/ADULT PARTNERSHIPS TO BOOST TEEN LEADERSHIP

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Working with youth/teens as partners can be a very rewarding experience. However, far too often both adults and teens lack a true understand of their roles and/or expectations. This often leads to a frustrating unrewarding experience. Using <u>Creating Youth/Adult Partnerships</u> material from National 4-H Council, this workshop will explore those roles and expectations. <u>Creating Youth/Adult Partnerships</u>

is a training curricula for youth, adults and youth/adult teams developed by youth and adults through the National 4-H Council to teach the process of creating partnerships. Developing youth/adult partnerships is consistent with research on resiliency, adolescent development and the literature formulating the youth development field. In addition it meets the developmental needs of young people.

Unfortunately many adults (including professionals) working with youth do not understand or embrace the concepts behind youth/adult partnerships. They often think they are empowering youth by letting or allowing them to make decisions. This attitude often results in the teens having little or no respect for adult opinions because the adults' attitude is that teens need to make it on their own without adult guidance . The opposite of this is where the teens have no input in the decision making process at all. Adults working in this atmosphere often dismiss teen ideas and suggestions and dominate any discussion. True youth/adult partnerships have both teens and adults sitting together at the table with mutual respect for each other and a willingness to listen to one another. Decisions are made together with both groups having a chance to share their opinions and ideas.

<u>Creating Youth/Adult Partnerships</u> uses the "Spectrum of Attitudes" model developed by Lofquist (1989). This model includes three different attitudes adults can hold toward young people. Often the attitude held by the adult determines the degree to which they will involve young people as significant partners in the decision making process.

The first attitude looks at "youth as objects". Adults know what is best for young people and control situations in which they allow them to be involved. Adults with this attitude generally believe that young people have little to contribute and they work to keep young people in a relatively powerless position. They often feel they are protecting the youth from making mistakes, however with this attitude they do not allow for meaningful involvement and growth by youth.

The second attitude regards "youth as recipients". Adults with this attitude allow young people to take part in decision-making because it will be a good experience for them. Youth need to learn from the adults and be guided by them. Youth should "practice" decision making on

decisions that they can't mess up too bad. Responsibilities and tasks given to young people are often trivial (so if they mess up, it won't matter) or those which adults don't wish to do (picking up trash/litter). This attitude leaves youth in powerless positions and does not allow for "real life" responsibility and learning.

The last attitude considers "youth as partners". With this attitude, adults respect young people as having something significant to offer now (as youth) and youth are encouraged to become involved. Youth and adults both bring strengths to the table and work in an equitable relationship. Youth are asked for their opinions, how and what they want to learn, what they think their role is, what they would like their role to be and the kind of training they need.

Most adults working with youth prefer the last attitude. However putting into practice the theory of "youth as partners" is often difficult. Sometimes adults try to share power and responsibilities, but get so caught up in protecting youth from failure, they do not let youth discover how their decisions actually work in the real world. And far too often, adults, in their zeal to give youth the power of decision making, forget that they need to provide the tools for youth to participate as true partners. Adults often do not hold youth responsibility for their decisions and often make excuses for them.

The Prince William 4-H Teen Leadership Club (TLC) and the Virginia 4-H State Youth Cabinet are two models of youth/adult partnerships in action. In TLC, youth learn the skills needed to participate as true partners. Youth/adult partnerships are practiced in a variety of ways throughout the four-year leadership program. Leadership skills are taught first in Leadership I. Skills are practiced by making decisions related to the skills – community service projects planned by the group. Additional skills are taught in Leadership II and III and by the time a teen reaches Leadership IV, he/she has the capabilities to plan and implement their own project including raising funding and other resources and planning a publicity campaign. Decision making is done by the teen with guidance/advice from adult advisors.

The Virginia State 4-H Cabinet also uses YAPs. The youth are encouraged to make decisions about issues affecting them, to state their views on issues affecting them and to take leadership for teen programming in their districts. These two examples offer a model of how youth/adult partnerships may be implemented into youth programming successfully.

To get more information about YAP trainings, contact the National 4-H Council, your state 4-H Office or any National Trainer. Working with teens can be a very rewarding and enjoyable experience where both the youth and adults have the opportunity to grow as individuals. The teens I have worked with often comment on how much they have learned, how much they enjoyed the chance to learn leadership and use it and how useful they have found the skills. But more importantly, they state how they feel valued, trusted and held to high expectations which they make every effort to achieve. They also liked being treated as a friend and that is very special because I consider them my friends as well.

Using Prudential Youth Leadership Institute to Enhance Teen Leadership

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Prudential Youth Leadership Institute (PYLI) was created by The Center for Creative Leadership with assistance from Youth Service America and The Points of Light Foundation. It is administered through POLF. It is a "road map" (process) for change, projects and problem solving. This process is called the Creative Leadership Process

The Creative Leadership Process is used as a way to teach young people how to plan and conduct local community service projects but it also works for any project a young person might undertake. It systematically walks participants through the steps they should be taking as they plan their project. These eight steps, explained below, are: Assessment Formulation Transformation Goal Setting

Planning and Organizing Evaluation and Control Implementation Reassessment

Assessment is the step where you gather information about the situational, human and cultural conditions that will affect your project. You make sure the project is needed or wanted and that you have the ability to conduct the project with the resources you have – people, money, time, space and materials.

Step two, Formulation is where you identify and state the basic problem or issue you will be working to correct or improve.

Once you know what you focusing upon, you need to move to Transformation. This step encourages you to determine the exact problem or issue; then define possible solutions from many different angles.

After you know exactly what the problem is you want to address, you move to step four – Goal Setting. This is where you decide exactly what you wish to accomplish. Your goal should be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and trackable.

Step five is Planning and Organizing. This encompasses all the details of how to reach your goal. Much attention needs to be given to planning these details. This step often doesn't get the attention it needs so step six, one that is often overlooked, becomes important.

In the Evaluation and Control step, participants learn to review the details and the possibilities of unexpected events. This step teaches to expect the unexpected and troubleshoot before trouble occurs.

Step seven is Implementation – just doing it!.

And finally, step eight – Reassessment is reflection, evaluation and recognition. Reviewing how to improve or what is learned is the real lesson of community service.

Prudential Youth Leadership Institute (PYLI) offers a wonderful model for young people to follow as they plan projects. The Prince William 4-H Teen Leadership Club uses this model for the variety of community service projects they conduct.

Workshop participants experienced some of the activities used to teach PYLI and had a chance to review some of the materials and curriculum. To get the curriculum, you must attend a PYLI training. Once certified, you will receive the materials, an on line newsletter and access to support and aid.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: RETURN ON INVESTMENT - CALCULATING THE MONETARY VALUE OF THE MANAGERIAL ASSESSMENT OF PROFICIENCY PROGRAM FOR THE GEORGIA EXTENSION SYSTEM

By

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INTRODUCTION

Measuring the Return On Investment (ROI) in training and development has consistently earned a place among the critical issues in the Human Resources Development (HRD) field. The topic appears routinely on conference agendas and at professional meetings. Journals and newsletters regularly embrace the concept with increasing print space. At least a dozen books provide significant coverage of the topic. Even top executives have developed an appetite for ROI information (Phillips, 1997). Leadership educators may soon find that program sponsors and administrators will be asking for Return On Investment information as well.

Although the interest in the topic has heightened and much progress has been made, it is still an issue that challenges even the most sophisticated and progressive HRD departments and those involved with leadership development programs. Some professionals argue that it is not possible to calculate the ROI of many programs, while others develop measures and ROI calculations. Regardless of the position taken on the issue, the reasons for measuring the return are still there(Phillips, 1977). Most professionals involved in training and development share a concern that they must eventually show a return on their training investment and thereby abandon some of the more traditional methods of evaluating programs.

The term evaluation has been used by leadership educators and human resource professionals in a variety of ways. Most professionals would agree that the term evaluation implies a 'change in something' or connotes the value or worth of a program or training. How one measures the 'change', 'value or worth' varies greatly, however, most evaluations seem to fall into one of four categories. A survey conducted by Training in 1996 surveyed over 40,000 training managers and specialists to determine the status of how training was evaluated. Table 1 shows the results.

| Level | As a Percent of Organizations Measuring at this Level | Percent of Courses Measured at this Level |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Level 1: Training Reaction | 86% | 83% |
| Level 2: Learning | 71% | 51% |
| Level 3: Behavior | 65% | 50% |
| Level 4: Business Results | 49% | 44% |

Table 1: Evaluation of Training in Industry

Source: Training magazine, October 1996, p. 63.

As indicated in table 1, most evaluations were conducted at the lower levels -measuring a participants reaction to a program (level 1), or measuring skills, knowledge or attitude changes (level 2). Measuring behavioral changes (level 3) and the business impact of the program (level 4) were the two remaining levels of evaluation. The report indicates that surprisingly, these last two levels (3 and 4) accounted for 65% and 49% respectively of the evaluations organizations conducted. Phillips(1997) states that "there is a distinct trend toward more accountability of training, particularily at the higher levels of evaluation where training is connected to business results". As a result of this trend Phillips(1997) states that "a fifth level of evaluation has become more prominent–Return on Investment or ROI." This level of evaluation compares the monetary value of the results with the cost for the program and is usually expressed as a percentage figure.

Evaluation of leadership programs have largely been limited to the lower levels of evaluation. The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2002) reviewed 55 major leadership development programs with the hope that it would shed some light on how various programs are evaluating outcomes and impacts. They key findings indicate that most programs measured individual leadership outcomes in the traditional ways-participant reactions, changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviors, relationships built, etc. Few dealt with the monetary value of the program-comparing results with cost or ROI. At best, some programs reported leveraged dollars or money that individuals, collaborations of program participants, organizations or communities have been able to attracted as a result of the program. The implication with such a measure is that these dollars, being attracted as a result of the program implies an improved leadership capacity.

Regardless of the setting, ROI is now taking on increased interest (Phillips, 1997). Executives and program directors who watched their training budgets grow without appropriate accountability measures are now demanding a return on training investment. Leadership educators are not exempt from this dilemma. Most are being asked to report impacts, more will be asked to report return on investment.

This paper reports the return on investment of the Southern Extension Leadership Development

(SELD) program as implemented at The University of Georgia. A brief explanation of that program is provided below followed by the calculations used to determine the ROI on the Georgia SELD program.

SELD: Southern Extension Leadership Development

During the past decade, the Cooperative Extension System has faced an era of economic scarcity and has been impacted by a number of internal and external challenges (Ladewig & Rohs, 2000). Many of these changes and challenges have changed the nature of work and relationships. Organizations that respond to the changing nature of work and authority relationships are learning organizations (Senge, 1990).

A major challenge impacting the transition to a learning organization is that few Extension administrators are professionally trained in competencies and styles of leadership appropriate for learning organizations. Rather, they have been promoted to leadership positions because they excelled in their subject-matter discipline, and they learn their new craft by emulating those who proceeded them. While this practice is commonplace throughout the industrialized world, these administrators often lack the necessary leadership competencies necessary to truly transform their organizations to compete in the information technology era (Patterson, 1998).

In response to the growing need to understand and cope with the many changes currently and potentially impacting the Extension System, Cooperative Extension Directors and Administrators of the Southern Region called for the establishment of a regional leadership development program. The results was the formation of Southern Extension Leadership Development (SELD).

The SELD program is unique in that the competency-based approach builds around the skills individuals and groups in Cooperative Extension need to be effective in the future. With such knowledge, Extension educators can design professional development plans that are relevant, useful, and customized to their needs. While regional workshops were conducted individual states were encouraged to implement their own leadership development program. The centerpiece of SELD is the Managerial Assessment of Proficiency (MAP), developed by Training House, Inc. of Princeton, NJ. The assessment portion is a video-driven, competency-based, computer-scored simulation consisting of 200 items that assesses a participant's proficiency in 12 competencies. The twelve competencies are: Time management, setting goals, planning and scheduling work, training, coaching and organizing, giving clear information, getting unbiased information, solving problems, making decisions and weighing risk, thinking clearly and analytically. The assessment portion was followed by a series of competency building workshops to strengthen participants weaker competency areas.

PROGRAM COSTS AND BENEFITS

Before calculating the Return On Investment program costs and benefits must be determined. Tabulating the costs involves monitoring or developing all related costs of the program targeted for the ROI calculation. Among the cost components that should be included are:

- * cost of the design of the program, prorated if possible over the expected life of the program;
- * cost of all program materials provided to participants;
- * instructor costs, including preparation time and delivery time;
- * costs of facilities for the program;
- * travel, lodging and meal costs for participants, if applicable;
- * salaries, plus employee benefits of the participants who attend the program;
- * administrative and overhead costs of the training function.

Phillips(1997) states that specific costs related to the needs assessment and evaluation should be included, if appropriate. Phillips(1997) recommends the conservative approach, including all of these costs so that the total is fully loaded.

Program benefits, especially for leadership educators , may be harder to measure. Converting leadership impact data into monetary values, in most instances is difficult–but not impossible. For example, a team building program in a manufacturing plant reduced the number of monthly grievances filed by employees. Six months after the program was completed the reduction in grievances per month (related to the program as determined by supervisors) declined by seven. Using the labor relations staff in the company, the cost of the average grievance was estimated to be 6,500 when considering time and direct costs. At seven grievances per month the total annual value of the program would be 546,000 ($84 \times 66,500 = 546,000$).

When converting data to monetary benefits one must first focus on a unit of improvement or measurement. In the above case that unit was the number of grievances per month. Then a value was assigned to each unit or grievance. In the above case the value or cost of one grievance was estimated by those most familiar with the process, i.e. the labor relations staff. Once these figures are determined, the value of the program or improvement can be calculated.

Calculating the Return on Investment (ROI)

Two basic calculations are required to compute the Return On Investment. The first is the Benefit/Cost Ratio (BCR) and the second Return on Investment (ROI). Those formulas and an example follow.

 $BCR = \frac{Program Benefits}{Program Cost}$

 $\frac{\text{ROI (\%)} = \frac{\text{Net program Benefits}}{\text{Program Costs}} \quad x \ 100$

The BCR utilizes the total benefits and costs. In the ROI formula, the costs are subtracted from

the total benefits to produce net benefits which are divided by the costs. For example, a program at Peach State, Inc. produced benefits of \$283,500 with a cost of \$40,500. Therefore, the benefit/cost ratio is:

BCR = $\frac{\$283,500}{\$40,500}$ = 7.0 (or 7.0:1)

As this calculation shows, for every \$1 invested, \$7 in benefits are returned. In this example, net benefits are \$283,500 - \$40,500 = \$243,000. Thus, the ROI is :

$$ROI(\%) = \frac{\$243,000}{\$40,500} \quad x \ 100 = 600\%$$

This means that for each \$1 invested in the program, there is a return of \$6 in net benefits. The benefits are usually expressed as annual benefits, representing the amount saved or gained for a complete year after program completion. While the benefits may continue after the first year if the program has long-term effects, the impact usually diminishes and is omitted from calculations.

ROI: A LEADERSHIP EXAMPLE

New Extension Agents hired between 1995 and 2001 who completed their probationary period of 18 months with the cooperative extension service formed the population for this study. Based on Extension Personnel records a total of 216 new county extension agents (CEA's) were hired and participated in the same new employee orientation program. Only 185 CEA's completed their probationary period during this time and were included in this study. Basic background data was also gathered on these employees. This data included gender, degree level (BS, MS), ethnic background and job responsibility (AG, FACS, 4-H) and if resigned or terminated. Based on personnel records these new CEA's were then grouped into one of two groups. The first group were those individuals who completed the Georgia SELD/MAP and follow up Excel skill building program workshops and the second group-those who did not participate in the SELD/MAP and follow up program. It was found that 40 CEA's completed the Georgia SELD/MAP program and 145 did not. Furthermore only two CEA's in the SELD/MAP group had left the organization and 38 of the CEA's in the non-SELD/MAP group had left the organization during this time period. These figures represent an employee turnover rate of 5% and 26% respectively. It was this difference in turnover rates (26% vs. 5%) that provided the basis for calculating the program benefits in monetary terms.

Program Benefits

Based on these figures the potential turnover rate among the SELD/MAP participants could have been as high as 26% or 10 CEA's leaving instead of the actual 2 CEA's at the 5% turnover rate. Thus 8 (10-2=8) fewer CEA's left the organization benefiting the Georgia Extension organization in the amount of \$400,000 ($$50,000 \times 8 = $400,000$).

Program Costs

To calculate the ROI on the Georgia SELD/MAP program the following program cost components were used:

- * Program Design Costs- license fee, costs for video tapes, etc. per individual @ \$10.00. Total costs= \$400.00
- * Program Material Costs to Participants- @ \$60.00 per participant for MAP and \$100.00 per participant for follow up Excel workshop. Participants=40. Total Costs= \$2400.00 + \$4,000.00 = \$6,400.00
- * Instructor Costs- prorated salary time @ \$500.00 per day (includes all fringe benefits and costs to the organization/university). Two instructors -12 days per year for 6 years. Total Costs= \$36,000.
- * Facilities Costs- State 4-H Center charge for use of facilities/equipment @ \$8.00 per participant for follow up Excel workshop. (\$8.00 x 40= \$320.00) Total Costs = \$320.00
- * Travel Costs- 28 cents / mile for auto, \$28.00 per day for meals and \$55.00 per night for lodging if necessary (includes instructor and participant travel costs). Amounts based on attendance and travel records. Total Costs= \$10,460.00
- * Salaries plus employee benefits for participants- based @ \$50,000 per year- prorated For number of days in the program (6 days). The \$50,000 figure was arrived at based on administrative communications and college business office calculations. Cost computation- \$200.00/ day x 6 days= \$1200/ participant. \$1200.00 x 40 participants= \$48,000.00
- * Administrative and Overhead Costs- @ 2% of total cost = \$2,031.00 (Accounting figure used by college business office)

TOTAL PROGRAM COSTS = \$103,611.00

Using the formulas for BCR (Benefits/cost Ratio) and ROI (Return on Investment) the following calculations were made:

TOTAL BENEFITS-\$400,000 TOTAL PROGRAM COSTS -\$103,611

BCR- \$400,000 / \$103,611 = 3.86

ROI- (\$400,000-\$103,611) / \$103,611 x 100 = 286 %

Thus the benefit cost ratio (BCR) calculation shows that for every \$1 invested, \$3.86 in benefits are returned and that for each \$1 invested in the program, there is a return of \$2.86 in **net** benefits.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Calculating the Return On Investment of a leadership program is not easily done. Many programs are not able to convert outcome measures to monetary terms. In this particular case one measure

could be used-employee turnover. Identifying a unit of measurement that can be converted to a monetary value will present a challenge to those involved in leadership training. While business and industry can provide some examples that may help with identifying outcome measures easily converted to monetary value many leadership programs are conducted in settings less conducive to assigning monetary values to outcomes with any degree of validity. Fortunately in this study personnel records and travel data were either easily accessible or readily computed with relative ease.

The access to personnel records, while not complete, allowed for some additional data analysis. Specifically, were the two groups of extension agents (MAP/SELD participants vs non-participants) significantly different from each other on some variable that might influence the results? To answer this question some basic background data was available from their files. The data that was analyzed included major job responsibility (agriculture, family/consumer science or 4-H youth), gender, ethnicity, degree level (BS, MS) and whether or not they were still employed by the Georgia Extension Service. The only statistically significant difference (p < .01) found between the two groups was that those who did not participate in the MAP/SELD program were more likely to leave the organization than those who did (Table 2.).

| | Variat | ole Mean | |
|--|------------------|----------------------|---------|
| Variable | Map/Seld N=40 | No Map/Seld N=145 | t-value |
| Job Responsibility (2 = Agr, 3 = FACS, 4 = 4-H Youth) | 3.10 | 3.20 | -0.37 |
| Gender (1 = male, 2 = female) | 1.60 | 1.60 | 1.00 |
| Ethnicity (1 = Caucasian, 2 = African American, 3 = other) | 1.12 | 1.05 | 1.34 |
| Degree Level $(1 = BS, 2 = MS)$ | 1.49 | 1.50 | 0.96 |
| Resign/Terminate $(1 = yes, 2 = no)$ | 1.93 | 1.73 | -2.65* |

Table 2: Test of significance between groups on selected variables

This study indicates that for every \$1.00 spent in the MAP/EXCEL program \$3.86 in benefits are

realized and \$2.86 in net benefits are returned on the investment. Had all those extension agents hired between 1995 and 2001 participated in the program, employee turnover might have been reduced by 21%, saving the organization a minimum of \$1,550,000.00 (31 fewer terminations x \$50,000= \$1,550,000) in annual employee turnover costs. Since these terminations occurred after an average of 2.33 years of employment the total savings to the Georgia Cooperative Extension Service could have exceeded \$3.62 million (\$1,550,000 x 2.33 years).

While this study does not account for all the variables that may influence whether a person continues with the organization or not, one of the key factors can be the type of management and leadership training they receive. In some instances a monetary value can be calculated to show the benefits of such a program. With good record keeping program costs can also be determined. With benefit and costs figures the return on investment (ROI) on a program can be easily computed.

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DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP SKILLS THROUGH CAPSTONE EXPERIENCES

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Introduction

Wagenaar (1993, p. 209) defined a capstone course as "a culminating experience in which students are expected to integrate, extend, critique, and apply knowledge gained in the major." Crunkilton (as cited in Andreasen & Trede, 2000) identified five required learning activities and six educational outcomes for capstone courses. The activities included project and/or case studies, small group work, issues analysis, oral communication, and industry involvement. The outcomes included decision making, critical thinking, collaborative/professional relationships, oral communications, written communications, and problem solving. According to Sitton (2001) the capstone experience offers students the opportunity to enhance the knowledge and skills they have acquired in previous classes. The collaboration of students throughout the semester shows that teamwork is vital to the completion and success of the project, just as those skills are necessary in the workplace. Leadership is not only a process, but it involves influencing a group of people toward a common goal (Northouse, 2001). The goal of AGCM 4413 is completion of the *Cowboy Journal*.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if a capstone course, such as AGCM 4413, builds leadership skills beyond technical classroom learning.

Research Objectives

- 1) To determine if leadership skills were developed during AGCM 4413, a 15-week capstone course for seniors in agricultural communications.
- 2) To determine if those students who held leadership positions experienced more leadership development than those who did not hold leadership positions.

3) To examine students' perceived leadership skills exhibited in five internal scales: Working with Groups, Understanding Self, Communicating, Making Decisions and Leadership.

Review of the Literature

Capstone Coursework

Crunkilton, et al. (1997) describes a capstone course as the following:

A planned learning experience requiring students to synthesize previously learned subject matter content and to integrate new information into their knowledge base for solving simulated real world problems (as cited in Fairchild and Taylor, 2000, p.4).

According to Fairchild & Taylor (2000) a capstone course should focus on integration of knowledge, facilitate meaningful closure, and provide students with a contextual framework connecting theory and application based on their academic experiences and the connection among the disciplines and the role of their profession in the outside world. The American Association of Colleges (1991) states one approach to the capstone course stresses the values of reflection, connectedness, and diversity. At the end of the course, the student takes knowledge and experience provided in their past coursework and tests these against the challenges of the outside world (as cited in Dickinson, 1993).

Kerka (2001) cites the following objectives as typical to a capstone course (Fairchild & Taylor, 2000; Rhodu & Hoskins, 1995; Thomas, 1998):

- 1. To provide students an opportunity to synthesize knowledge from formal to informal learning and apply it to contemporary issue in the field.
- 2. To help prepare students for a successful career by providing experiential experiences that enhances their labor market advantage.
- 3. The increase students' understanding of the big picture, including ethical and social issues related to the field.
- 4. To help students understand the relevance of theory and research to practice.

The objectives of AGCM 4413 included the following:

- 1. To apply journalism and photography skills and knowledge gained through coursework to a publication or broadcast production setting; To specifically to enhance skills in:
 - Gathering, writing and editing agricultural news features
 - Selling, designing and creating sponsorships
 - Producing effective layout and design
- 2. To experience working as a member of a team.

According to Fairchild & Taylor (2000) students who complete capstone courses generally require less on the job training. Andreason and Trede (1998) discovered that agriculture capstone graduates found the application of knowledge to be the most beneficial outcome to their capstone experience (as cited in Kerka, 2001).

As in the case of AGCM 4413, most capstone courses are completed during a student's last semester of study. A student's capstone course should be scheduled in the last term of the student's program to ease the transition between academic experiences and entry into a career or further plan of study (Fairchild and Taylor, 2000). Agricultural communications graduates at the university are required to complete the course. If the magazine deadline is not met and no magazine is produced, students must re-take the course and are unable to graduate until the capstone course is completed.

Leadership Education

Employers want people who can think, solve problems, make decisions, communicate effectively, be cooperative, posses positive attitudes and have a positive self-concept (Ricketts, 2003). According to Brock (1992) employers of all occupations wish to find workers with the same qualities found in great leaders of our time. In day-to-day activity, leaders are common people striving to improve organizations and activities and employers want leadership to be included in an applicant's résumé.

As cited in Welch (2000, p. 71):

At the heart of leadership education, most would include the need to train students to grasp the problems and issued facing society, to develop analytical and problem-solving skills, to learn to communicate and work effectively as members of a team, to have experience working in groups, to learn to work with people of diverse backgrounds, cultures, and academic disciplines, to learn to establish goals and motivate others to achieve those goals, and to know how to speak and write effectively (Hersh, 1998; Hopkins and Hopkins, 1998; Brungardt, Gould, Moore and Potts, 1997; Hashem, 1997; Reed, 1996; Conger 1992; Dertouzos, Lester, and Solow, 1989).

According to Watt (2003) leadership education should promote both youth and adult leadership, enhance leadership by establishing relationships for the exchange of ideas, information and research, and develop an environment encouraging the translation of leadership theory and research into practice.

Wren identified seven considerations in teaching leadership and development (as cited in Watt, 2003):

- 1. Students must be able to feel comfortable with the concept of leadership
- 2. Students must be able to recognize the various elements of leadership
- 3. Students need to know about the process of leadership
- 4. Students ought to have an increased awareness of the practice of leadership
- 5. Students should have a sense of purpose of leadership
- 6. Students should begin to develop an awareness of their individual strengths and weaknesses as leaders
- 7. Students need to enhance their skills of analysis with improving oral and written communication skills

For young people, leadership skills are best developed in real-world situations rather than in the classroom. Students can make connections between needs and resources, learning and service, and people and leadership (Boyd, Stafford, & Linder, 2001). According to Townsend (2002) true leadership education should be a long-term, sustained effort as leadership awareness may be provided in short, one-shot programs, and leadership learning may be provided in sustained programs. In AGCM 4413 students spend 16 weeks developing a 50-page magazine with a readership of close to 10,000 including students, faculty and alumni. Students are responsible for production of the magazine, including selling sponsorships, designing layout and writing and editing stories. Students search for, write, peer-critique and edit feature stories about students, faculty and programs within the agricultural communications department. Students work with high-resolution graphics and interact with each other to solve problems and take advantage of opportunities. Each aspect involves firm completion deadlines and each student plays a vital role in completion of the final product. The course instructor has little input on the magazine, as the production process is a team effort.

According to Northouse (2001) leadership occurs in groups, and groups are the context in which leadership takes place. Group projects can increase student learning, improve interpersonal skills and prepare students for what is becoming more common in the workplace: team projects (Michaelsen & Razook, 2003). Colbeck et al. (2000) found that "when students receive instructions on dynamics and how to work together in groups, they are more likely to experience more positive outcomes than when no instruction is provided (as cited in St. Clair & Tschirhart, 2002). Teams are organizational groups composed of members who are interdependent, who share common goals, and who must coordinate their activities to accomplish these goals (Hill, 2001). Team goals need to be very clear so that team members know when the objective has been met (Northouse, 2001). The team goal of AGCM 4413 is completion of the magazine.

As cited in Doren (2003), Larson and Lafasto (1989) list eight characteristics of high performing teams:

- 1. A clear, elevating goal
- 2. A results-driven structure
- 3. Competent members
- 4. Unified commitment
- 5. A collaborative climate
- 6. Standards of excellence
- 7. External support and recognition
- 8. Principled leadership

According to Doren (2003) teams enable the exchange of information, expertise and creativity to involve more than just one person. Collaboration, shared ownership and role-clarification are the livelihood of teams. Included in AGCM 4413 were five leadership positions. Students had the opportunity to apply for a position of their choice by stating their qualifications and strengths in their chosen area. Based upon the applications, students were appointed to positions by the course instructor. The following positions are ranked in order of importance:

- 1. Co-Editors (2): Coordinated all phases of production and business, seeing that everything ran according to the schedule. As the name implies, the editors were the final authority to ensure all copy was clear, correct and consistent throughout the publication. Editors were expected to see the publication to completion, including sending electronic files to the printer and making corrections to final proofs.
- 2. Graphics Coordinator (1): Coordinated all graphic elements, other than photographs, including fonts, template and line art. Graphics coordinators ensured the technical quality of all graphics and assisted other staff with design and layout.
- 3. Photo Coordinator (1): Coordinated all graphics files and assisted as needed with photographic shoots and file conversions. Responsible for technical quality of all photographs and asked to re-take photos if necessary.
- 4. Sponsorship Coordinator (1): Coordinated details and development of all sponsorships. Mailed invoices and thank you notes, accounted for payments and conversed with clients. Worked with editors to ensure all sponsorship layouts were included in the final text.
- 5. Circulation Coordinator (1): Coordinated distribution of the *Cowboy Journal*. Updated and prepared mailing list for upcoming issues and prepared final mailing list document.

Those students holding leadership positions (in particular the co-editors) held a position of authority over their peers. In order for harmony to exist in a group, communication and taking opinions and suggestions of the group into consideration is imperative. According to Fisher (1974) "some of the positive communication behaviors that account for a successful leader emergence include being verbally involved, being informed, seeking others' opinions, initiating new ideas, and being firm but not rigid" (as cited in Northouse, 2001, p. 6). According to Watt (2003) leaders must be effective communicators both interpersonally and organizationally. Shultz (1980) found that individuals' use of communication behaviors, as perceived by their work group, predicted their emergence as leaders (as cited in Flauto, 1999).

Leadership Skills Inventory

Developed by R.I. Carter at Iowa State University in 1980, the Leadership Skills Inventory originally consisted of 99 statements and 10 internal scales. The instrument, used to assess students' self-perception of leadership skills, now consists of 21 statements describing various leadership and life skills. The instrument includes five internal scales: Working with groups, understanding self, communicating, decision making and leadership.

Methodology

Students participating in the study included those enrolled in AGCM 4413. The study was descriptive and quantitative methods were used to collect data. Students were asked to complete the Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI). A pre/post test design was used to collect data. Skills examined included five internal scales for analysis: Working with groups, understanding self, communicating, making decisions and leadership. A likert scale was used to measure responses: 1-strongly agree, 2-agree, 3-undecided, 4-disagree, 5-strongly disagree.

Findings & Conclusions

Comparison of Overall Perception of Leadership Skills

| | Ν | Mean | Difference |
|-----------|----|-------|------------|
| Pre-test | 15 | 32.00 | |
| Post-test | 15 | 30.87 | 1.13 |

(Table 1)

Table one shows a positive difference (1.13) when comparing the means of the pre-test and post test scores for the entire population. Student's perceptions of their leadership skills improved on the post-test.

Comparison of Perceived Leadership Skills in Internal Areas of Analysis Scale: 6-30

N=15

| | Pre | Post | Difference | |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|------------|--|
| Working with groups | 9.276 | 9.276 | 0 | |
| Understanding Self | 8.244 | 7.836 | 0.408 | |
| Communicating | 6.07 | 5.67 | 0.60 | |
| Making Decisions | 8.94 | 8.66 | 0.28 | |
| Leadership | 7.73 | 9.67 | -1.94* | |
| Oliabt difference (1.0 mainte) | | | | |

Slight difference (1-2 points) (Table 2)

Table 2 shows pre-test and post-test scores for each internal area of analysis. A scale of 6 to 30 was used for analysis. There was no difference found in the working with groups area. Very small differences were found in the understanding self (0.408), communicating (0.60), and making decisions (0.28) areas. There was a slight difference (-1.94) in the leadership area, as students perceptions of their leadership skills decreased on the post-test.

| | Ν | Mean | Difference |
|-----------|---|-------|------------|
| Pre-test | 9 | 31.56 | |
| Post-test | 9 | 32.56 | -1.00 |

Comparison of Perceived Leadership Skills for Those Who Held Leadership Positions

(Table 3)

Table 3 compares the pre-test and post-test mean scores of students who held leadership positions in the course. There was a negative difference found (-1.00) as students perceptions of their leadership skills decreased on the post-test.

Comparison of Perceived Leadership Skills for Those Who Did Not Hold Leadership Positions

| | Ν | Mean | Mean Difference |
|-----------|---|-------|----------------------|
| Pre-test | 6 | 32.67 | |
| Post-test | 6 | 28.33 | 4.33 skills improved |

(Table 4)

Table 4 compares the pre-test and post-test means of students in the course who did not hold leadership positions. There was a positive difference (4.33) found as students overall perceptions of their leadership skills improved on the post-test.

Comparison of Those Who Held Leadership Positions and Those Who Did Not Hold Leadership Positions in Internal Areas of Analysis Scale: 6-30

Working with groups skills

| | Ν | Pre | Post | Difference |
|------------------------|---|-------|-------|------------|
| Leadership position | 9 | 8.928 | 9.732 | -0.804 |
| No leadership position | 6 | 9.396 | 8.40 | 0.996 |

(Table 5)

Table 5 shows a decrease at (-0.804) in the working with groups skills of students who held leadership positions, as compared to an increase (0.996) in the working with groups skills for students who did not hold leadership positions when comparing pre-test and post-test scores.

Understanding Self

| | Ν | Pre | Post | Difference |
|------------------------|---|-------|-------|------------|
| Leadership position | 9 | 8.136 | 8.532 | -0.396 |
| No leadership position | 6 | 8.004 | 6.804 | 1.20* |

slight difference (1-2 points) (Table 6)

Table 6 shows a decrease (-0.396) in the understanding self skills of students who held leadership positions, as compared to slight increase (1.20) in the understanding self skills of students who did not hold leadership positions when comparing pre-test and post-test scores.

Communicating skills

| | Ν | Pre | Post | Difference |
|------------------------|---|-------|-------|------------|
| Leadership position | 9 | 9.0 | 8.34 | 0.66 |
| No leadership position | 6 | 9.255 | 8.505 | 0.75 |

(Table 7)

Table 7 shows an improvement in the communicating skills for student who held leadership positions (0.66) and students who did not hold leadership positions (0.75) when comparing pretest and post-test scores.

Decision making skills

| | Ν | Pre | Post | Difference |
|------------------------|---|------|------|------------|
| Leadership position | 9 | 9.56 | 9.78 | -0.22 |
| No leadership position | 6 | 8.34 | 7.34 | 1.00* |

* slight difference (1-2 points)

(Table 8)

Table 8 shows a decrease (-0.22) in perceived decision making skill for students who held leadership positions, as compared to a slight improvement (1.00) in perceived decision making skills for students who did not hold leadership positions when comparing pre-test and post-test scores.

Leadership skills

| | Ν | Pre | Post | Difference |
|------------------------|---|------|------|------------|
| | | | | |
| Leadership position | 9 | 8.11 | 9.11 | -1.00* |
| No leadership position | 6 | 7.0 | 9.5 | -2.50** |

*slight difference (1-2 points)

**notable difference (2-3 points)

(Table 9)

Table 9 shows a slight decrease in perceived leadership skills (-1.00) for students who held leadership positions, as compared to a notable decrease (-2.50) in perceived leadership skills for students who did not hold leadership positions when comparing pre-test and post-test scores.

Recommendations

Although it was expected that leadership skills would have been gained in a capstone course involving extra group work and assigned leaders, the findings show differently. The popular term 'integration' is appropriate in this circumstance. With many schools requiring a capstone course for undergraduate students, leadership skills should be integrated into the curriculum. Many schools lack the luxury of the undergraduate leadership classes offered in many of our land-grant institutions, and although it may be difficult to directly include leadership training into the capstone classroom, teachers must utilize 'teachable moments,' or ones during which they can incorporate leadership training into the learning experience. Dickinson (1991) speaks of the *senioritis syndrome* in many capstone courses, during which perfectly good students weaken and become reluctant to engage in serious work. This phenomena, which was very apparent through observation in AGCM 4413, raises important questions about the typical capstone course. Should the course be saved for a student's last semester, or should it be offered a semester or two earlier in their education so the student takes the course more seriously? A follow-up study should be conducted on students who are at least one year out of the course. Attitudes may change as students have a chance to utilize skills from the course in the real world.

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TAKING PROGRAM SNAPSHOTS: PLANNING STRATEGIES WHEN THERE ISN'T TIME FOR STRATEGIC PLANNING

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Periodic strategic planning is critical to long-term program success. However, comprehensive strategic planning can be overwhelming -- and costly in terms of human and fiscal resources. Here's a process shortcut -- taking program "snapshots" -- designed to help program teams make mid-course corrections within the strategic planning cycle. This much shorter process (6-8 weeks) is particularly effective for small program areas or project teams.

The advantages of taking program snapshots are, first, you can obtain qualitative information quickly from clients, colleagues and administration for use in program planning. Second, it provides optimal working environments for planning by bringing people in to the process sequentially rather than concurrently. And third, it allows a widening circle of people to become champions of the program before the solutions are finalized.

Step 1: Informally <u>interview</u> colleagues, clients and administrators affiliated with the program. Ask what they view as the strengths and the weaknesses of the current program, and what changes they'd like to see in the future. You're looking for perceptions, not quantifiable data. This takes about three days, counting waiting for call-backs.

Step 2: Draft a short narrative <u>report</u> about what you heard. This isn't rocket science so don't agonize over it; plan on a maximum of one day.

Step 3: Convene a small group of <u>Creative Thinkers</u>. Bring together five to eight people who love to explore new possibilities. Some of these people may be within your organization and some may be from the outside. Promise them one day in a comfortable, non-intrusive environment; a day with minimal structure and maximum creativity; a day with no naysayers. They'll jump at the chance!

When the group's ready to start, quickly share your narrative report, identify any "givens" (such as "must be implemented at the start of the fiscal year"), describe what outcomes they should achieve by the end of the day (such as "propose 2-4 workable models") — and stand back! Besides having plenty of paper, pens, flipcharts, food and beverages on hand, no facilitation is needed or desired. You're there to clarify any points and to make sure they have everything they need.

They'll have a GREAT time, bouncing ideas, grabbing pens to write on charts. The energy levels will stay incredibly high all day long. Several of them will exclaim, "This is what work

is supposed to be like!" And yes, at the end of the day, they'll hand you the product you requested.

Step 4: Invite <u>Reactors</u> to ...react. The next day (or as soon as possible), the Creative Thinkers will introduce their proposals to six to eight reactors, people skilled at listening and analyzing the feasibility of ideas. The reactors are told to "shoot holes" in the models and to "rip 'em apart" — which they'll do with great glee! These people's strength is in finding flaws; conversely, this means that they're also skilled at recognizing good ideas when they see them.

Quite quickly, without any prompting, they'll find themselves saying things like "Well, it won't work because you have A in here, but if you did B, you'd get the same results and avoid this pitfall." They'll begin to find creative solutions, tweaking here and there, but, without changing the essence of the proposals.

Again, minimal interference from you. At the end of this day, you'll have several strong proposals, names of the next people to bring in to the process — *and* 12-16 people committed to the ideas.

Step 5: Now, it's your turn -- to <u>synthesize</u> the materials offered by the creators and reactors. Draft a working proposal document, making sure to include a short overview, the advantages and disadvantages of each of the proposals, estimated budget and phase-in time. Don't forget to prominently display the names of the people who crafted the concepts. Distribute the document the following day to appropriate decision-makers, and of course, to the people who put it together.

Maintaining forward momentum is vital so plan to write this document within a day or two after the meetings. The quick turn-around time implies respect for the time and energy the creative thinkers and reactors gave to your program, and minimizes rumors. And, in the next phase, as new insights and clarifications come pouring in, keep sharing that information.

Step 6: Identify and approach <u>additional stakeholders</u> -- and do it right away. These people are generally those who would be implementing (field personnel), or supporting (office staff) or administering (program leaders) the proposed new program actions. Now's the time to bring them into the planning loop to minimize glitches, to develop understanding of what's being attempted, and to garner more champions for the ideas. Invariably, the additional stakeholders are very willing to give good advice, especially before the proposals become reality.

Another advantage to moving quickly, is that many of the creative thinkers and the reactors will informally talk about the proposals to anyone who will listen. Why? Because they found the process exciting, they have ownership, and they know the ideas are valid. The circle of people who have a stake and an enthusiasm for the concepts widens even more. In two weeks, you can easily have an additional 50 people to add to your list of "authors." Expect to spend about 10 days on this step.

Step 7: Implementation! This is what you all have been waiting for! When official

approval or a decision has been made by whatever mechanism is typical for your organization, share that quickly with your authors. They'll want to know. They'll also want to provide assistance in turning the concept into reality.

Are you asking yourself, "Sounds good but does it *really* work?" Yes, it does. Groups average 6-8 weeks from start to finish. Two federal agencies, one state agency, and two non-profits organizations in Oregon have successfully incorporated the program snapshot process into their strategic planning cycle.

USE OF FOCUS GROUPS: AN EFFECTIVE TOOL FOR INVOLVING PEOPLE IN MEASURING QUALITY AND IMPACT Judith A. Villard Extension Agent, 4-H Youth Development, Chair and Associate Professor Ohio State Univ. Extension – Richland County, The Ohio State University 1495 W. Longview Avenue, Suite #206, Mansfield, Ohio 44906

Evaluation, including impact assessment, has become an indispensable tool of educational organizations. Therefore, evaluating the quality and impact of an educational program has become an important management and program development focus. While contemporary educational organizations exist in environments of decreasingly scarce resources, organizations must be accountable for their work, be visible in their outreach and be sensitive to public scrutiny.

Focus group interviews are a qualitative research method that consist of a carefully designed "discussion" which allows people to express their points of view in a group setting and provide researchers with indicators of program impact. Focus group interviews nurture different perceptions and points of view and are used to gather information for discovery, bench marking, evaluating, verifying perceptions, feelings, opinions and thoughts (Patton, 1990).

Participants in the focus group interview are brought together because they possess certain characteristics related to the subject under study. Group members can influence each other by responding to ideas and questions that may not otherwise be brought out in measuring the quality and impact of a current or potential program. While the purpose of focus groups is to promote self disclosure among participants in a group(s) by ascertaining their perceptions, feelings, opinions and thoughts, focus group interviews are not intended to help groups or researchers reach decisions, gain consensus or establish how many people hold a particular view like statistics (Ludwig, 2000).

Focus groups are most productive when used to determine information on new proposals or programs, determine the strengths and weaknesses of a program, assessing whether a program is working and in the evaluation or success of a program (Greenbaum, 1993). Advantages of conducting a focus group interview are the flexibility in questioning, the encouragement of dialogue and exchange of ideas, the generation of hypotheses, being relatively fast and inexpensive and producing findings in a form that most users fully understand (Miller, 2000).

While using focus groups can be an effective qualitative research method, these types of interviews are not conducive for all types of research generation. Disadvantages of focus group interviews are the technique can be misused by poorly trained researchers (called moderators), the interpretation of data is tedious and time intensive, results can be

overgeneralized, and groups can vary considerably and be difficult to assemble (Miller, 2000).

Planning the Focus Group Process

The first step in conducting a focus group interview is to determine the purpose of the study and whom should be studied. In deciding on whom to include in the study, participants should be sought who will have the information the researcher needs (represents a variety of people). Participants should be representative of the group, but not randomly selected. Part of determining the purpose is to consider the information "users" of the gathered information – who they are, what they want and why they want the information (Krueger, 1988). The users usually include the decision makers or resource allocators related to the educational organization. For example, if the research study was on teen vehicular safety, the people to be studied might include teen drivers, parents of teen drivers, law enforcement officials, school personnel, government representatives and educators/safety leaders in the community. The users of the information could include local, state and federal legislators, driving schools, government and school officials and the community in general who desires to function in a "safe" driving environment.

Researchers conducting the focus group interview process must develop a chronological and financial plan. The chronological plan would include the time line to contacting and informing participants for each focus group, making arrangements for the location of each focus group and contacting the individuals to interpret the gathered data. For the greatest productivity, focus group sessions should be limited to one or two per day with reflection time for the moderator and the assistant moderator in between. An average of eight to ten participants with a homogeneous background, but unfamiliar with each other, is needed for each group. The participants should be representative of the group to be studied in terms of gender, race, age, income level, etc. Researchers should avoid using existing groups as some members may be intimidated to be active respondents. The average number of focus groups of participants to include in a study is four to five groups. The financial plan should include the costs for communication with participants, incentives to bring participants together (i.e., refreshments, services or products) if applicable, taping equipment and supplies, location and facilities, data analysis and other follow-up expenses as needed.

A key component in conducting successful and productive focus group interviews is identifying appropriate and informative questions to be asked of the participants. The questions should clearly define the purpose of the research. Generally, five to six questions are desired. To determine the "right" questions (those with a clear understanding and that match the purpose of the research), a review by a panel of experts or pilot and field tests with comments from participants are suggested. Questions may be derived to help the researcher learn of the participants knowledge, skills and abilities, aspirations and attitudes related to the subject. The questions should have a stimulus (topic of discussion) and a response (clues to the answer to how people are expected to answer). The sequencing of the questions must establish a pattern for asking questions, be descriptive, allow for opinions, feelings and perception to arise and stem from the participants knowledge and/or skill. Questions starting with "why" should be limited in the selection process. In addition, questions should be open-ended and flexible, but focused to the research topic. The use of probing questions will help the participants better understand exactly what each question is asking. The more complex or emotional the issue under study, the fewer topics and specific questions can be covered. More divergent views take more time in focus group interview situations. An example of a question and probing question are:

<u>General Question</u>: "Has your participation *(the stimulus or topic)* in the program made a difference *(the response)* in your life?"

<u>Probing question</u>: "What specific skills, abilities, experience, etc. did you gain from your involvement?"

Other examples of questions:

- "What do existing clientele or potential clients think about this new program?"
- "What are the strengths and weaknesses of the program?"
- "Will you participate in similar programs because of your involvement with this program?"
- "What new and different things have you participated in or contributed to as a direct result of volunteering or participating in this program?"
- "How should we promote the new program?"
- "How well is the current program working?"
- "Would you encourage others to become involved in the program?"
- "What results have you observed from helping others?"
- "If you could change anything about your experience with this program, what would it be?"

The focus group interview process involves a tremendous amount of planning prior to the face-to-face contact with the group participants, but actually conducting the focus interviews is the key part of the process. A moderator must be identified who is familiar and comfortable with the group process and one who can keep the participants on target. The moderator must be a good listener and observer and a skilled facilitator. The moderator should be trained to not let personal feelings arise between participants or the process could be sabotaged. The moderator must be mentally alert at all times, patient as participants respond to questions (or not respond), free from distractions, well-informed about the purpose and objectives of the study and posses the ability to manage the communication process. The moderator should be a neutral third party by avoiding head nodding or other responsive body language. The moderator must also be able to use the probing questions in a productive and timely manner.

The second member of the focus group interview team is the assistant moderator. This individual provides background support by arranging the meeting room, taking notes (in the rare case the recording equipment would fail), including verbal comments and body language from participants, handling distractions (i.e., late arrivals, excess noise), debriefing with the moderator after each session and providing feedback on the analysis report. The assistant moderator should be observant of the group participants and assist in seating participants for the interviews. Potential shy and quiet participants should be seated directly across from the moderator. Projected "experts" and loud participants

should be seated on either side of the moderator. The notes taken by the assistant moderator should include actual words of the participants, session date, time of the session, names of the participants and descriptive information about the setting for credibility and record. The assistant moderator may also give leadership to participant arrival and welcome, refreshments and the preparation, operation and monitoring of the recording equipment. The sessions are recorded (as a group without notation to any individual) to assure comments from the participants are accurate and clear.

In conducting the focus group interviews, the moderator should open with "small talk", an explanation on how the participants were selected, the expected length of the interview session and a brief explanation of the process to help make all participants more relaxed and ready to participate. Each individual should introduce themselves, by first name only, to provide credibility to the research study and make each participant more comfortable with others in the group. The moderator should explain that notes will be taken and words recorded for clarification purposes only. No connection will be made between the comments shared and the individual participant. Ground rules should be established, shared and given consensus support. Examples are:

- Everyone will have the opportunity to speak one at a time
- No answer is right or wrong rather they are just differing views
- No one "has" to answer a certain question
- This is a research project and no sales are involved
- You will not be requested to attend further events related to this research
- Please speak one at a time so comments will not be garbled or misinterpreted

The first question asked should be designed to engage all participants one at a time in the group discussion and may not necessarily be a component to the research study. Good techniques for the moderator to use are the "five second pause" (prompts additional points of view or agreement with previously mentioned position) and the "probe" (request for additional information to describe further, what did you mean, would you say more, is there anything else and I don't understand).

The most time intensive and tedious part of the focus group research is to analyze and report the results. Once the verbal data is collected and typed, at least three individuals trained in the field of study of the research read through all of the raw data as soon as possible to look for repeated responses and/or re-current trends. The noted results are then compared among the readers with the most common responses highlighted. The most common responses then become the major results of the study. Quotations are also pulled to support the responses to important questions. The results are tabulated and should be organized around introductory, transition and key questions. The final report should be shared in a form that is conducive to the understanding of the key users of the information. Final advise to researchers who move forward with a focus group research project is that the moderators should arrive early to set up the room, all equipment should be tested (and include backup equipment and tapes), the introduction should be planned and practiced, a dynamic environment should be sought and the experience should be interesting to all.

Conclusion

Focus group interviews can provide a variety of interesting and needed information for certain types of research projects. Many times focus group interviews do not stand alone as the research tool. They can be used as a follow-up to quantitative research (i.e., needs assessment) about the meaning and interpretation of previously derived data. The challenge to the coordinator of the research is to determine whether the focus group approach is appropriate to gather the information desired, how to structure the focus groups and to fully understand the process of implementation.

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OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME PROGRAMMING: ASSESSING THE IMPACT ON ASSET DEVELOPMENT IN YOUNG PEOPLE

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Abstract

Current literature on youth development supports the theory that out-of-school programming has an effect on positive youth development (Carnegie Corporation, 1992; Dunham & Walker, 1994; National Institute on Out-of-School-Time, 2001). However, little research has been conducted on types of out-of-school programs and comparisons among levels of involvement in relation to specific developmental traits. Hence, the purpose of this study was to analyze relationships between students' level of program involvement and the development of positive assets. Seven indices were formed to represent assets past research has determined to be critical in the positive growth of young people (Benson, 1990; Pittman, 1996; Hendricks, 1998; Perkins & Butterfield, 1999). These indices were formed by statistically combining responses to questions related to each asset. The assets included empowerment, contact with adults, self-confidence, positive identity, social competence, character and learned skills.

The findings of this study exemplify a method that can be used to assess the effects of out-of-school programs on youth development. Also, this research examined specific programs and how different levels of involvement relate to one another and to the development of positive assets. Specifically, this study examined 4-H in an effort to find differentiation of 4-H youth development among other out-of-school programs.

TEACHING AN UNDERGRADUATE COURSE IN CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN LEADERSHIP

An ALE Round Table Discussion - Anchorage, Alaska - July 16, 2003

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In the spring 2002, Oklahoma State University added a course entitled <u>Contemporary Issues in</u> <u>Leadership</u> as part of a 14 credit hour minor in Leadership Education (see Table 1). This upper division undergraduate course follows lower division courses in leadership theory and values based leadership. The instructors sought to develop a course that bridged the two prerequisite courses with current readings in leadership. The following course objectives were developed:

- articulate an understanding of contemporary leadership issues and problems;
- contextually integrate leadership theories with contemporary issues; and,
- synthesize knowledge of leadership theories with contemporary leadership issues.

Two required texts, <u>Contemporary Issues in Leadership</u>, (5th edition, Rosenbach & Taylor) and <u>Now, Discover Your Strengths</u> (Buckingham & Clifton) were selected. The Buckingham and Clifton text is a popular press book that includes a web-based strengths inventory. The inventory proved to be an appropriate link to the values-based leadership taught in a lower division leadership course. Approximately one fourth of the class sessions were devoted to this text. Students were asked to select a book to review based on the strengths identified in the inventory.

The Rosenbach and Taylor text was selected because it is an anthology of leadership articles written by prominent leadership scholars. Divided into four sections, the text offered a wide range of topics ranging from women in leadership to biographies of current leaders. A total of twelve articles, centered on four themes, were selected for class discussion. Students were asked to bring a single discussion question with them to each class session.

Additionally, students were divided into equal teams and were to meet each week to study a selected agricultural issue. Teams studied the issue and prepared a strategic plan for leadership within the context of the selected agricultural issue.

At the conclusion of the course, instructors reflected on the course (see Table 2). Based on that reflection and comments made during the ALE round table discussion, the following modifications are planned for the fall 2003 semester.

- Continue the course using a discussion format
- Continue to use "Strengths" and "Contemporary Issues" textbooks
- Eliminate agricultural issue team project
- Replace team project with current issues surfaced through reading the daily newspaper

Table 1

Leadership coursework at Oklahoma State University

| AGED 1511 | Introduction to Leadership - A one-credit hour freshman level course designed to introduce students to the field of leadership. Application to student organization is encouraged. |
|-----------|---|
| AGED 2303 | <u>Personal Leadership Development</u> - This course allows students to explore their personal values system as it applies to leadership. |
| AGED 3303 | <u>Agricultural Leadership</u> : <u>Theory and Practice</u> - Leadership theory and application to organizations is the theme. Students also learn about motivation, power, and group dynamics. |
| AGED 3333 | <u>Contemporary Issues in Leadership</u> - Students explore leadership through the writings of current theorists in leadership. |
| | |
| AGED 4101 | <u>Seminar in Leadership Education</u> - A one-credit hour junior level course designed to provide an in-depth study of a particular topic in the study of leadership behavior. |

Table 2

Lessons learned in a course on contemporary issues in leadership

| What Worked | Why it Worked |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Now Discover Your | Served as a good transition from the values-based leadership class; |
| Strengths | students liked the personal application gained through the inventory |
| Contemporary Issues in | The text contained a wide range of leadership topics; the majority of the |
| Leadership | readings were related to topics discussed in previous classes |
| Face-to-face feedback on | Student participation and dialogue improved after individual conferences |
| class performance | |
| Great discussion | Students liked articles which were short and an "easy" read |
| "Theory to Practice" – one | Allowed time to take a break from the discussion format and to add topics |
| session in every four class | of specific interest to the students; sessions included Shackelton's Great |
| sessions | Adventure at IMAX (road trip), Kouzes & Posner LPI Assessment |
| | (personal inventory), and creating a student organization for leadership |
| | education minors |
| Student paper addressing a | Students showed their ability to synthesize information in class with a |
| critical issue uncovered in | current issues |
| class | |
| Ended class with a | Film prepped the case and the case prepped the discussion; the topic was |
| Film/Case Study on Adolf | selected based upon discussions previously held in class and student |
| Hitler | interest |

| What Didn't Work | Why it Didn't Work |
|--------------------------|---|
| Book reviews on personal | Reviews lacked depth of thought, students had trouble selecting a book |
| strengths | appropriate for the assignment |
| Group project | Groups failed to fully utilize class time available for team meetings, |
| | students failed to adequately research their critical issue and to apply |
| | leadership theory to the issue, students "fought" the assignment and saw |
| | strength in collective mediocrity, instructors failed to communicate |
| | expectations clearly |
| Weak discussion on some | A handful of articles were too long, discussion was weak when a majority |
| articles | of the class did not fully read the articles |
| Students writing | The instructors (both Theory Y) did not collect the discussion questions |
| discussion questions | and when the students realized they could "get away" with not writing the |
| | DQ on paper, then they stopped writing discussion questions |

Bill Weeks

Oklahoma State University Professor, Agricultural Education

Educational Background

| 1989 | Ph.D. | Texas A&M University; College Station, TX |
|------|----------|--|
| | Major: A | gricultural Education |
| 1987 | M.Ed. | University of Illinois; Champaign Urbana, IL |
| | Major: V | Vocational Education |
| 1983 | B.S. | Illinois State University; Normal, IL |
| | Major: A | gricultural Education |

Courses Taught

| AGED 3203 | Planning Communications Programs in Agricultural Education |
|-----------|--|
| AGED 3303 | Leadership Skills for Agricultural Organizations |
| AGED 3333 | Contemporary Issues in Leadership |
| AGED 5823 | Advanced Teaching Methods |
| AGED 6103 | History and Philosophy of Agricultural Education |
| | |

Personal

Weeks teaches courses in teacher education, leadership, and philosophy of Agricultural Education. He serves as Graduate Coordinator for the Department and is a past recipient of the Regents Outstanding Teaching Award. In his spare time Weeks likes to talk about fishing, likes to actually go fishing, and he can be seen with his children fishing at Theta Pond. He likes to cook, is an avid gardener, enjoys movies that other people hate, and plays all Nintendo 64, and most PlayStation2 games. An Aries, he is often moody, but forgets easily.

Penny Pennington

Oklahoma State University Assistant Professor, Agricultural Education

Educational Background

| 2001 | Ph.D., Texas A&M University, College Station, TX |
|------|--|
| | Major: Agricultural Education |
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- 1991 M.S., Texas A&M University, College Station, TX Major: Educational Psychology
- 1989 B.S., Texas A&M University, College Station, TX Major: Psychology

Courses Taught

AGED 2303: Personal Leadership Development

AGED 3333: Contemporary Issues in Leadership

AGED 4203: Professional Development in Agriculture

AGED 5752: Leadership in Context

AGED 5940: Styles of Leadership in Agriculture

Personal

Pennington teaches courses in leadership theory and education. She serves as Coordinator for the Leadership and Service Option in the Department of Agricultural Education and is involved with Oklahoma State University's Minor in Leadership Education. She has been a member of the Association of Leadership Educators for 4 years and currently serves on the Board. Outside of work, Penny spends most of her spare time running her daughter, Kamle, to cheerleading or volleyball practice. She also enjoys scrap booking, keeping up with the latest movies, and has recently begun working as a volunteer for CASA (Court Appointed Special Advocate) for Kids.